THE DEVELOPMENT OF PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE: A STUDY ON REQUESTS

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ELİF YUMUN

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Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

_____
Prof. Dr. Sencer Ayata
Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis
for the degree of Master of Arts.

_____
Prof. Dr. Wolf König
Head of Department

This is to certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is
fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the Master of Arts.

_____
Prof. Dr. Deniz Zeyrek
Supervisor

Examining Committee Members

Prof. Dr. Deniz Zeyrek　　　　　　(METU, FLE)　　　_____

Assist. Prof. Dr. Çiler Hatipoğlu　(METU, FLE)　　　_____

Dr. Ceyhan Temürcü　　　　　　　(METU,COGS)　　　_____

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Name, Last name: Elif YUMUN

Signature:

ABSTRACT

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Elif, Yumun

M.A., Department of English Language Education

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Deniz Zeyrek

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The purpose of the study was to investigate the pragmatic competence of Turkish learners of English in requests at two levels of English proficiency. Another aspect of the study was to identify the overall and situational proficiency of the learners in performing the speech act of requests and to figure out development and transfer factors. Additionally, the extent to which the changing social variables of power and distance in each of the situations and through the situations affect the learners' request behaviour and the development regarding this issue was also pursued. For these purposes, the data were collected from four different subject groups. The learner groups include 19 beginner level and 19 upper intermediate level subjects. The control groups comprised of 21 Turkish native speakers and 15 American native speakers.

The data were collected from the subject groups using interactive role plays. Each subject was provided with five request situations differing in terms of power and distance variables. The performances were videotaped and interactions were transcribed according to the CHAT manual (Mac Whinney 2000). Following the data collection process, the performances of the subjects in five situations were examined in terms of the directness levels, internal and external

modification. For the statistical calculations in the study, one way ANOVA and t-test were employed.

The results of the study showed that mostly there is development in the learner groups in accordance with the proficiency level. The upper intermediate group did better than the beginner group most of the time. However, there are also many instances in which even the upper intermediate group failed.

Keywords: pragmatics, development, requests, role-play, English as a second language, Turkish learners

ÖZ

KULLANIMBİLİM YETERLİLİĞİNİN GELİŞİMİ: RİCALAR ÜZERİNE BİR ÇALIŞMA

Elif, Yumun
Yüksek Lisans, İngiliz Dili Öğretimi Bölümü
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Bu çalışmanın amacı İngilizce öğrenen iki farklı seviyedeki öğrencilerin kullanım yeterliliğini araştırmaktır. Çalışmanın diğer bir niteliği de genel ve durumlara göre kullanımdaki beceriyi teşhis edip, gelişimsel ve transfer etkenleri ortaya çıkarmaktır. Bunlara ek olarak, durumlardaki farklılaşan güç ve tanışıklık etkenlerinin, öğrencilerin rica davranışlarını her bir durum içerisinde ve durumdan duruma geçişlerde ne derece etkilediği ve nasıl bir gelişimin olduğu da takip edilmiştir. Bu amaçlarla veri dört farklı gruptan toplanmıştır. Öğrenci grupları 19 başlangıç ve 19 üst seviye deneği içermektedir. Kontrol grubu 21 anadili Türkçe olan denek ve 15 anadili Amerikan İngilizcesi olan denekten oluşmaktadır.

Veri etkileşimli rol oynama kullanarak denek gruplarından toplanmıştır.Güç ve tanışıklık açısından farklılaşan beş rica durumu deneklere verilmiştir. Performanslar kaydedilmiş ve CHAT el kitabı kullanılarak yazılı hale getirilmiştir. Veri toplama sürecinin ardından beş durum, kullanılan ricaların direktlik seviyesi, iç destekleyiciler ve dış destekleyiciler açısından incelenmiştir. İstatistiksel hesaplamalar için tek yönlü ANOVA ve t-test kullanılmıştır.

Çalışmanın sonuçları çoğu zaman öğrenci gruplarında İngilizce yeterlilik seviyesi ile doğru orantılı olarak gelişimin olduğunu göstermiştir. Üst seviye öğrenciler, alt seviye öğrencilere göre genellikle daha iyi sonuçlar elde

etmişlerdir. Fakat üst seviye öğrencilerin bile başarısız oldukları bir çok örnek de söz konusudur.

Anahtar kelimeler: kullanımbilim, gelişme, ricalar, rol oynama, ikinci dil olarak İngilizce, Türk öğrenciler.

To my parents

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Presentation

In this introductory chapter, first a background to the study is given. Next, the problems related to the core of the study are touched up on. Following that the purpose and scope of the study together with its significance are explained. Lastly, the limitations of the study are presented and the chapter is completed with the research questions.

1.2. Background to the Study

In accordance with the shifting needs of the world, the needs of the learners with regard to language learning have changed. While at the very beginning, language learning was only limited to structure, in the course of time, changing issues such as education, politics, economy and culture have created the urgent need, i.e. *effective communication* for language learners. Thus, the structuralists' idea of seeing grammar as an end in itself faded away and a shift appeared from *grammatical competence* to *communicative competence*. This new concept was first introduced by the sociolinguist Hymes (1972) and together with the appearance of speech act theory (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969, 1979) the attention has been directed to *language use* from then on. The works of these philosophers were based on the assumption that linguistic expressions are not the minimal units of human communication, but the performance of some acts like making statements, asking questions, thanking and so on are the real origins of human communication (Blum-Kulka, House, Kasper, 1989).

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In the light of this new trend, pragmatics attracted the attention of the linguists and emerged in the field as a discipline. While it was considered as a concept limited to language at the beginning, in the course of time the scope of it has been widened and pragmatics has started to be considered as a social phenomenon which "studies the use of language in human communication as determined by the conditions of society" (Mey: 2001, 6). After a time, the research studies have seen a marked increase, and the efforts to explore pragmatics have been widened. As a result, the relationship between pragmatics and second language learning came to the foreground. Attention was focused on learners' inappropriate speech act realizations and attempts were made to account for the bitter fact that a significant number of the learners fails to interpret and produce pragmatic features appropriately.

The first attempt related to this problem came from the linguist Jenny Thomas. The theoretical framework of pragmatic failure in cross-cultural communication was first established by her. She defines pragmatic failure as follows:

> Misunderstandings which arise, not from any inability on the part of H to understand the intended sense/reference of the speaker's words in the context in which they are uttered, but from an inability to recognize the force of the speaker's utterance when the speaker intended that this particular hearer should recognize it.(Thomas, 1983, p. 94)

She claims that pragmatic failure occurs in the form of communication breakdown when the hearer can not manage to recognize the force of the speaker's utterance. For instance, via the following sentence, the speaker wants to elicit an apology from the hearer: "Is this coffee sugared?" However, the hearer interprets it as a normal request for information and answers it as "I don't think so. Does it taste as if it is" (Thomas, 1983, p. 93)? Within pragmatic failure; other than that, she further contributed to the pragmatics with the distinction she made between *pragmalinguistic failure* and *sociopragmatic failure*. She points out that the former occurs when the pragmatic force drawn for a given utterance by the learner is

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different from the force assigned to it by the native speaker. For instance, compared to English, Russian allows using more direct strategies in polite usage. As a result, Russian learners of English transfer these direct utterances into English in an inappropriate way. It can be said that pragmalinguistic failure is more related to "the pragmatic force of a linguistic token", so it is basically grammatical (Thomas, 1983, p. 103). However, sociopragmatic failure results from the sociopragmatic miscalculation and it is more related to "the judgments concerning the size of imposition, cost/ benefit, social distance, and relative rights and obligations" (Thomas, 1983, p. 103-104). It occurs when the learners have difficulty in adjusting their systems of beliefs in accordance with the different belief system of the target culture. For instance, "In a student's own culture, teachers may have a rather higher status than they do here (a social judgment), leading the student to behave more deferentially than would normally be expected (sociopragmatic failure)" (Thomas, 1983, p. 105).

Focus on pragmatic failure, brought out some major approaches to study such failures systematically. The first one of these approaches is the *micro-sociolinguistic analyses* which principally deal with analyses of naturalistic encounters, minutely identifying problematic features as to discourse organization, conversational management and non-verbal behavior such as analysis of conversational style differences and identification of where these differences become problematic. On the other hand, as the second approach *contrastive pragmatics* focuses on cross cultural and cross linguistic pragmatic differences and similarities by investigating speech act realizations in different languages. The researches done under the title of contrastive pragmatics are descriptive ones, and they have no predictive power. However, they are still regarded as important because of their explanatory and hypothesis generating nature. In addition to these approaches, a third kind of investigation has been required to be able to determine where the learners' pragmatic performance differs from L2 and in what way it happens, and Interlanguage pragmatics has emerged. Interlanguage pragmatics is the result of the understanding that language learners stand somewhere between native language and the target language during the acquisition process. This discipline considers non-native speakers as its subjects, and

it deals with their comprehension and production of speech acts in the target language as well as paying attention to how their pragmatic competence develops over time. (Kasper, Blum Kulka, 1993). Kasper and Rose define it as "The study of nonnative speakers' use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge" (Kasper, Rose, 1999, p. 81). To date, a handful of studies have been conducted on this popular approach and it has the potential to be the focus of many more upcoming studies in the future, because absolutely significant number of the learners fails to interpret and produce pragmatic features appropriately and as a result, this pragmatic failure creates an endless inspiration for the studies of interlanguage pragmatics.

When such issues began to be studied, some claims related to *pragmatic universality* started to emerge. The matter of universality versus culture-specificity appeared and within this framework, the universality in the politeness of speech acts was hotly debated. Researchers shared their views about the relationship between directness and politeness. Some researchers suggested that the more indirect a strategy is, the more polite it is perceived to be. Leech (1983) and Brown and Levinson (1987) are the leading researchers who support this idea. Leech claims that the force of a direct illocution is bigger, compared to the force of an indirect one (Leech, 1983). Thus, it does not give as much optionality as the indirect one and it is perceived as impolite. The similar idea is followed by Brown and Levinson, as well. They propose the FTAs (Face Threatening Acts) and point out that face should be saved and maintained. For that aim, they develop five different strategies ranging from direct to indirect. They claim that in accordance with the face threat, a person chooses these strategies. If the face threat is big, people choose the most indirect strategy, so they appear to be polite. Thus, they had belief in the relationship between directness and politeness. In the course of time, this hotly debated issue has become the focus of many studies. Researchers put a lot of effort to be able to confirm the universality factor related to the relationship between directness and politeness. However, alternatively, some other researchers challenged this universality issue with the results of their studies. As it is known in the Blum- Kulka, House and Kasper's directness scale, conventionally indirect strategies include indirect request strategies, but non-conventionally indirect strategies include the most indirect

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strategies in the scale. The results of House's (1986) study show that German subjects give highest rating for politeness to the conventionally indirect strategies, not to non-conventionally indirect strategies although non- conventionally indirect strategies are more indirect than the conventionally indirect ones. In the same way, Blum- Kulka's (1987) study shows that Hebrew speakers rate the conventionally indirect strategies as more polite than the non- conventionally indirect strategies which are more indirect and expected to be more polite than the conventionally indirect strategies. As a result, House and Blum- Kulka come to the conclusion that there is not a linear relationship between directness and politeness. There is a problem at the level of the non- conventionally indirect strategies because although these strategies are the most indirect strategies in the directness scale, they are not always perceived to be the most polite ones. (as cited in Blum- Kulka & House, 1989).

A similar problem is also pointed out by Marti (2006). The results of her study show that from time to time her subjects rate conventionally indirect strategies as more impolite than the explicit performatives which take part in the direct request strategy types in the directness scale. Thus, Marti directs the attentions to the problem at the level of conventionally indirect strategies and she points out that the problem between indirectness and politeness is not only at the level of non-conventionally indirect strategies. The conventionally indirect strategy level is also problematic for giving opposing signals for the relationship between directness and politeness. Thus, House and Blum- Kulka go on about the problem at the level of non-conventionally indirectness, while Marti underlines the problem at the level of conventionally indirectness.

All these core issues, efforts and different claims have taken a good part of the stage and brought out a lot of intriguing questions waiting to be answered. All these questions are the basis of the research studies of many researchers and inspire them to draw a new picture of pragmatics together with new different unexplored sides.

1.3. The Problem

For centuries, learning other languages has been the desire of many people. Many different methods, approaches, strategies have been developed and people have put a lot of effort to reach their aim. However, all these efforts can not entirely prevent the learners from confronting various problems. Grammar, syntax, pronunciation, vocabulary, spelling, punctuation and some other characteristics of the new language stand like barriers on the way of language learning. To be able to get rid of all these barriers, material developers and the language teachers have given a big emphasis to each of them. However, despite all these efforts, most of the language learners have continued to have difficulty in using the language effectively. At this point, the reasons of this failure have been searched and it is realized that the primary probable reason of this failure comes from the demanding nature of the pragmatic competence.

As Bialystok (1993) indicates, pragmatic competence requires a variety of abilities as to the use and interpretation of language. First of all, it includes the ability of the speakers to use language for different purposes such as request, instruct, and apologize. Besides, it requires the ability of the listeners to understand the intention of the speakers even if these intentions are not directly expressed as it happens in sarcasm or irony. In addition to these aspects, it also entails the components of the coherent speech such as coherence, turn taking and cooperation. When the speakers manage to control all these things, a successful communication appears. However, mostly these requirements cannot be met by the learners and they end up with various pragmatic failures.

What is more, even though the learners can manage the complicated nature of pragmatic competence, they still may not be successful if they do not take into consideration the fact that different cultures have different perceptions as to some social aspects. For instance, for a culture distance, more specifically familiarity between the interlocutors may be a more important factor than the power factor in a conversation. In the same way, another culture may attribute more importance to the

power factor and not pay much attention to the distance namely, familiarity issue. Blum –Kulka and House (1989) exemplify this difference with an example from Israel:

> Visitors to Israel are surprised by the phenomenon of passing drivers engaging in conversation at a red traffic light (Is your car for sale?) talk that presumably will not occur in a culture where higher values are placed on social distance. (Blum-Kulka, House: 1989, p. 138)

This example gives implications to work out the size of the difficulty that an Israeli person will confront while trying to learn the language of the country where relative weight given to distance factor is very high. Most probably different perceptions of the person from Israel will lead him or her to phrase a speech act in the target language in a different way in terms of directness. As a result, this person will be regarded as impolite and he or she will be condemned. Thomas indicates the seriousness of such pragmatic failures by comparing it with the grammatical errors:

> While, however, a speaker who is not operating according to the standard grammatical code is at worse condemned as *speaking badly,* the person who operates accordingly differently formulated pragmatic principles may well be censured as behaving badly; as being an untruthful, deceitful, or insincere person.(Thomas, 1983, p. 107)

Apart from the difficulties resulting from different perceptions, environmental issues also appear to be an impediment to the pragmatic success. As it is well known, although a great number of English language learners put a lot of effort to acquire this target language, they do not always have the opportunity to use their knowledge in the natural environment of the English speaking society. That is, these EFL learners have to confine themselves to the English language classrooms of their own countries. In these non- native classes they generally manage to gain an excellent grammatical and lexical command. However, they cannot display the same success while communicating in the target language.

Moreover, the differences between the first and second language of the learners cause the failure. Such differences pose problems when the learners try to get the pragmatic issues in the target language. This problem is emphasized by Wierzbicka (1991) with an example from Polish. She points out that the Polish learners of English have serious problems while asking for something in English. In Polish, the use of interrogative form in requests is restricted, and Polish people mostly prefer imperatives in their Polish requests unlike the English people. They have the tendency to do the same thing in their English requests, and this situation poses problems in terms of the politeness issue. Polish learners of English tend to use imperatives to realize nearly all of their requests in English and they are perceived to be impolite by the English people.

In addition to these points, ignorance of the pragmatic aspects in the classes also gives occasion to pragmatic failure. As Bardovi Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) indicates, in many of the L2 classrooms, the pedagogical focus is mainly on grammatical competence and this leads the learners to take the grammatical competency as a priority while not paying attention to the pragmatic aspects. Raising the awareness of the learners is not the case in classes, and mostly pragmatic aspects are left to be picked up by the learners themselves. However, even learners of high grammatical proficiency cannot necessarily show equivalent pragmatic development and they also confront with pragmatic failure (Blum- Kulka, House, Kasper, 1989). Thus, grammatical success does not guarantee pragmatic success in the second language.

1.4. Purpose and Scope

It is evident that due to the problems mentioned above, learners cannot manage to come closer to the native standards no matter how hard they try. There is a big problem related to teaching and gaining pragmatic competence, which calls a need for the studies to explore the reasons and eliminate all these problems related to

pragmatics. However, despite the fact that pragmatic studies were first carried out more than 20 years ago, there is still a shortage of research in the area, especially in the area of developmental pragmatics (Rose, 2000). This relative neglect has led some researchers to pay more attention to this underrepresented area and directed them to make more research efforts to compensate for the gap in the field. This study is an attempt to fill this gap with its effort to be an exploratory study to contribute to the growing literature with data from the Turkish learners of English.

For this aim, being one of the most demanding and problematic speech acts, requests have been chosen for the current study. Ellis (2001) points out the reasons for considerable attention to the requests in researches as follows:

> They are face-threatening, and therefore, call for
> considerable linguistic expertise on the part of the learner,
> they differ cross- linguistically in interesting ways and they
> are often realized by means of clearly identifiable formulas.
> (Ellis, 2001, p. 168)

As the overall purpose, by dwelling on this speech act, the present exploratory cross sectional study aims to discover the issues as to the *development* of the requests in the interlanguage of Turkish learners of English. At a specific level, it aims at focusing on the pragmalinguistic aspect, so the request strategies used by the Turkish learners of English from two different proficiency levels will be compared to each other and to those of the native speakers. In that way, any developmental trends in the learners' requesting abilities are intended to be explored in the general sense.

As well as the overall developmental issues, the point which is in the center of the present study is the development of *sensitivity to the situational variation within each situation* and *from one situation to another.* Therefore, as well as the overall usage of the request strategies, their variation within each situation and from one situation to another will be searched in the present study. As it is known, on one hand directness is universal, but on the other hand, it is not. It is universal because it occurs to some degree in all languages. However, it does not mean that indirectness is always used or employed in the same way by cultures. Cultures differ from one another because of their changing preferences as to the directness in different

situations. In this sense, it is not universal (Thomas, 1995). However, there are some factors suggested by Brown and Levinson (1987) which appear to rule directness in all languages; even though, the weights attributed to these factors vary widely in different cultures and as a result the strategies vary in accordance with these differing weights. These factors are power, distance and imposition. The present study will provide the subjects with the situations varying in terms of the weight of these factors namely power, distance and imposition and then by taking into consideration the request realization patterns of the learners in terms of directness, internal and external modification strategies, learners' sensitivity to situational variation within each situation and from one situation to another will be investigated.

Apart from focusing on overall usage of the request strategies and the situational variation, the possibility of pragmatic transfer from Turkish will also be underlined in the study.

1.5. Significance of the Study

Interest in interlanguage studies is growing day by day. The literature on the empirical studies as to the requesting behaviour of English learners from different languages is quite rich. There is a substantial body of research on interlanguage pragmatics. However, as Kasper and Rose (1999) indicate "the great majority of studies focus on L2 use rather than development" (p. 81). Thus, the present study is an attempt to contribute to the literature as to pragmatic acquisition and development by including two different learner levels within its scope and focusing on the speech act of request in terms of these learners' choice of politeness strategies and the development of these choices across proficiency levels.

Furthermore, the study is expected to be helpful as to understanding the interlanguage characteristics of the Turkish learners of English by providing implications about where these learners stand between native language and the target

language during the acquisition process. In that way, the study can help the teachers to work out the kinds of pragmatic problems that the learners confront and give them ideas as to some approaches or effective strategies related to successful language instruction and assessment. In doing so, teachers may have a chance to guide the students towards a more native- like pragmatic behaviour. In the same way, the study may also be helpful for the curriculum and material developers by constituting an important source of knowledge for the weaknesses and strengths of the Turkish language learners as to pragmatic competence and it may imply necessary changes in the curriculum and material development.

As well as providing information about the pragmatic aspects of the Turkish language learners of English to the educators and developers of curriculum and material, the study is also hoped to be motivating for these professionals. By enhancing the understanding with regard to the acquisitional, developmental and the interlanguage characteristics of the Turkish learners of English in the speech act of requests, it is expected that the study will be inspiring for the professionals in the education discipline and as a result, it will stimulate their research interests in the related field to conduct their own studies.

The study is also important in terms of being one of the small numbers of studies which focus on a learner group whose L1 is not a Western language. While requests by second language learners are often studied, these studies generally include the learners from Western cultures like Germany, Spain, France and so on. The number of the pragmatic studies which concern the Turkish learners of English is quite limited. Thus, this study will be a contribution to the present knowledge about pragmatic competence of the Turkish learners of English.

Apart from the assist of the current study in the general sense, it also has many strong sides in terms of its design, procedure and instrument. Kasper and Dahl (1991) points out the importance of design of the interlanguage studies as " the canonical design for interlanguage studies- comparable sets of IL, L1, and L2 data- is more informative and thus preferable, for the study of IL pragmatics" (p. 14). The same point is also underlined by Ellis (2001), "ideally, the study of illocutionary acts

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in learner language should involve three sets of data" (p. 162). With three sets of data Ellis means speech act examples performed in the target language by L2 learners, examples performed by native speakers of the target language and the same examples produced by the learners in their L1. Within this respect, the present study can be regarded as a different one, compared to most of the studies in the relevant area with its comprehensive scope. The present study does not confide itself only to the experimental, namely IL data from the Turkish learners of English. It also includes baseline data from L2, English and L1, Turkish. With the help of L2 data, the study has the chance to compare the results of the experimental groups to each other and to those of native speakers to detect the place of the two learner groups in the area of interlanguage pragmatics and figure out developmental aspects related to these learner groups of two different proficiency levels. Moreover, as well as L2 data, L1 data is also included in the study to see the effects of pragmatic transfer.

Moreover, in the research design although gender is not designated as an independent variable for the study, it needs to be stressed that the number of the male and female students are tried to be kept close to each other to get rid of any drawbacks that may come out because of the unequal distribution of the respondents, in the present study.

Besides, the study appears to be an important one because of the instrument that it uses. Most studies conducted in Turkey and abroad have used discourse completion tests because of their ease in data collection process. They use this instrument for the sake of its potential to give a chance to collect data in a very short time and from a large number of subjects by ignoring the fact that something written cannot be the complete reflection of the real life communication. Thus, in the study this fact is considered and as the data collection instrument, role play is used to turn the setting of request situations into a more naturalistic one.

Apart from these points, another strong side of the present study is the systematic way it follows in the choice of the situations to serve for its aim. A situation assessment scale is prepared to be able to use the most suitable situations for the present study. The situations are prepared in a way that they differ from one another in terms of changing degree of power, distance and imposition. The

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perceptions of the subjects related to these changing variables in the situations are checked before starting the study. The situations used in the role plays are rated by the American subjects and the Turkish subjects regarding the degree of these variables and only after it is understood that the perceptions of the two subject groups are roughly the same for these variables, the situations are included in the current study. Thus, random situations are not included in the study and the present situations serve for the aim of the study in a more effective way.

These situations also appear to be important in the study for providing a chance to figure out a neglected issue in the literature, whether the request patterns can be used appropriately in line with the changing weights of the variables within each different situation. Unlike the present study, most of the research studies only confine themselves to the aim of discovering whether certain request strategies are used or not in the overall sense without focusing on the situations.

The points discussed so far are the significant sides of the study. In addition, the request performance of the learners while passing from one situation to another is studied in the present study. As well as focusing on the request behaviour of the learner groups in the overall sense and within each situation, the study also focuses on the performances of the learners through the situations to figure out whether the learners can manipulate their request behaviour coherently by taking into consideration different power and distance variables in different situations. With an additional focus on this issue, the study differs from most of the studies in the literature which ignore this point.

1.6. Limitations

The study has some drawbacks concerning data collection. One of these limitations is the restless atmosphere for some of the subjects due to the video-recording procedure. Because of the video recorder used in the present study some of

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the subjects may have felt restless. Moreover, because of the setting they may have felt as if they were in an oral exam and this situation may have affected their performance.

The subjects were not given the choice to opt out of the speech act with the concern that some of the subjects may take advantage of this option, not because of their real intention, but because of the desire to keep the role play performance short and less demanding for them. However, it is known that in real life opting out is an option used by the people and a person may opt not to request something from somebody especially if the face threat is big.

In the current study only power, distance and imposition were considered as variables. However, there are some other possible social variables such as age, seniority, and formality which can be investigated in the future studies.

In the data collection process from the American native speakers, the subjects had to switch the roles during their role play performances. In the normal data collection process, the subjects are directed to a room one by one to perform and the other subjects are not allowed to watch the performance of the others in order not to be affected by the performance of the other one. However, this process could not be applied to the data gathering process from the native speakers. In this data collection process, first a subject took part in a role play activity as the professor for instance, and the other one as the student. Then they switched the roles and performed the same act again. In that way, they were exposed to the performance of the other and they might have been affected by the performance of the other subject unconsciously. This procedure was necessary due to the limited number of American native speaker subjects that could be accessed, and the reason for this limitation is that this project was not funded and for the native speaker data collection process, the assistance of a colleague from the U.S. was got.

1.7. Research Questions

For the purpose of this study five research questions were formulated:

1. What is the overall pragmalinguistic proficiency in English evidenced in the request realizations of beginner and upper intermediate level learners?

2. Is there evidence of overall pragmalinguistic development between beginner and upper intermediate level learners?

3. What is the situational variation sensitivity in the learners' request behaviour within each situation and from one situation to another with different social variables of power and distance?

4. Is there evidence of situational variation sensitivity development between beginner and upper intermediate level learners' request behaviour in each situation and from one situation to another in accordance with different social variables of power and distance?

5. Is there evidence of influence from L1, Turkish in the English requests of the beginner level learners and upper intermediate level learners?

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Presentation

In this chapter, the literature on key concepts namely, speech act theory, politeness theories and pragmatic development are dwelled on. Following them, the studies done abroad and the studies done in Turkey are taken up. All these main points are elaborated with related sub-topics. First, the speech act theory (SAT) is reviewed and as the leading scholars in this area, the ideas of Austin (1962) and Searle (1969, 1979) are emphasized. Subsequently, the main theories of politeness are reviewed with an emphasis on three perspectives: politeness explained in terms of principles and maxims, politeness and the management of face, politeness as a shifting concept in the course of interaction. Then two important theories by Schmidt (1993) and Bialystok (1993) are outlined in terms of the pragmatic development issue. Lastly, reviews of cross- cultural request studies and Turkish studies on request strategies are taken up.

2.2. Speech Act Theory (SAT)

The idea of communicative competence which can be considered as the starting point of pragmatics has been influenced by the developments in the philosophy, especially by the theory called speech acts. Thus, this language theory was first introduced to the linguistic field interestingly not by a linguist but by a philosopher, John L. Austin (1962). Then it is further developed by another

philosopher, Searle (1969, 1979). Both of these philosophers support the idea that "speaking a language is engaging in a rule-governed form of behavior" (Searle, p. 22).

At the time of Austin there was a predominant idea, namely the view that "to say something ... is always simply to *state* something' (Austin, 1962, p. 12). According to this idea, the sentences' main responsibility is stating facts, and they have to be evaluated as their being true or false. However, Austin claims that language has a more complex duty than just making statements and he asserts that some sentences cannot be considered only in terms of their truth value. There are some sentences which constitute the performance of an action. Thus, he introduced the concept of 'performatives' which constitutes the speech acts. According to his description, some sentences, namely performative sentences do not describe or report something and they cannot be evaluated as true or false either, but "the issuing of the utterance is the performing of an action- it is not normally thought of as just saying something" (Austin, 1962, p. 6-7). Some examples that can be given to illustrate performatives are as follows:

a. 'I do' (sc. take this women to be my lawful wedded wife)' – as uttered in the course of marriage ceremony.

b. I name this ship the *Queen Elizabeth* – as uttered when smashing the bottle against the stem.

c. 'I give and bequeath my watch to my brother' – as occurring in a will.

d. ' I bet you six sixpence it will rain tomorrow'(Austin, 1962, p. 5)

These sentences are not used to make true or false statements. They are used to perform an action. In the first sentence; for example, in saying *I name this ship the Queen Elizabeth* one does not describe what s/he is doing. In fact, the speaker is performing the action of naming the ship as the *Queen Elizabeth*.

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Following the introduction of the term 'performatives', Austin (1962) also maintains that three acts can be realized at the same time when one produces an utterance. They are locutionary act, illocutionary act, and the perlocutionary act.

Act (A) or Locution

He said to me 'Shoot her!' meaning by 'shoot' shoot and referring by 'her' to *her*.

Act (B) or Illocution

He urged (or advised, ordered, &c.) me to shoot her.

Act (C.a) or Perlocution

He persuaded me to shoot her.(Austin 1962, p. 101)

As exemplified in the sentences above, a *locutionary act* is the act of saying something with a normal sense and reference. An *illocutionary act* is performance of an act *in* saying something and it is different from the locutionary act which is the act *of* saying something (Austin, 1962, p. 99).Informing, ordering, warning , undertaking can be examples of illocutionary acts (Austin, 1962, p. 108). As the last category, *perlocutionary act* is concerned with the effect brought about or achieved by saying something. Convincing, persuading, deterring surprising or misleading can be considered as the examples for this act (Austin, 1962, p.108). These three acts can be summarized as follows. Locutionary act is a phonetic, the phatic, rhetic act and it has a meaning. The illocutionary act has a certain force in issuing of an utterance and perlocutionary act is the concept which assists to achieve some certain effects when one says something (Austin, 1962, p. 120).

After Austin, some philosophers and linguist put effort to organize his theory and of these Searle attracted the attention at his time especially at two points. First of all, regarding the *indirectness* he made an important comment as follows:

It is possible to perform the act without invoking an explicit illocutionary force-indicating device where the context and the utterance make it clear that the essential condition is satisfied.(Searle, 1969, p.68)

He elaborates this explanation with the utterance "Could you do this for me?"(Searle, 1969, p. 68).He emphasizes that without the meaning of the lexical items and interrogative illocutionary aspect of this sentence, it is understood as a request through inferences (Searle, 1969, p. 68).In addition to all these points, Searle also comments on the relationship between *politeness* and *indirectness* which is a controversial topic dwelled on a lot in the pragmatic studies and as it can be understood from the following statement he accepts the relationship between these two concepts:

This feature of speech – that an utterance in a context can indicate the satisfaction of an essential condition without the use of the explicit illocutionary force- indicating device for that essential condition – is the origin of many *polite* turns of phrase. (Searle, p. 68)

Following the contributions mentioned above, Searle (1979) also developed a very useful taxonomy of speech acts. This taxonomy consists of five major categories: representatives, directives, commissives, expressives and declarations. Of these, representatives show the belief of the speaker that the propositional content of the utterance is true. Directives are related to the attempt of the speaker to get the addressee to do something. "Verbs denoting member of this class are ask, order command, request, beg, plead, pray, entreat, and also invite, permit and advise"(Searle, 1979, p. 14).

Commissives obligate the speaker to do some future course of action as in expressions like "I promise to pay you the money"(Searle, 1979, p. 22).Expressives have the intention of expressing the psychological state of the speaker related to a previous action or an affair. They are realized with the verbs like thank, congratulate, apologize, condole, deplore and welcome (Searle, 1979, p. 15). Declarations change the reality and they require extra linguistic ability.

2.3. Politeness Theories

Speech act theory is not the only theory which has shaped pragmatics as a discipline. There has been a lot of interest in *politeness*, as well and many different theories and paradigms have been developed regarding this concept. The interest has been so big that politeness is even considered like the sub-discipline of pragmatics (Thomas, 1995). Besides, the term is also strongly associated with the *social appropriateness* in the general sense (Watts, 1992a), so it is relevant to the present study which emphasizes the social appropriateness by testing the realization of requests in different social situations. Thus, in this part of the study the theories which have shaped the idea of politeness will be reviewed.

2.3.1. Politeness Explained in terms of Principles and Maxims:

After the speech act theory, politeness phenomenon has started to have the theoretical basis with the efforts of some linguists. Lakoff is one of these early linguists who considered politeness as a theory and dwelled on it. Lakoff's (1973) definition of politeness underlines the idea that "friction in personal interaction is undesirable, a prescriptive stance, and that societies, in some mysterious way develop strategies, i.e. politeness, to reduce that friction"(Watts, 2003b, p.50).

Apart from these, to refer to pragmatic competence, she also introduces two rules, namely *be clear* and *be polite* and then elaborates them with three sub-maxims, each of which represents different level of politeness, namely *do not impose, give options* and *make the addressee feel good*. With all these rules and sub- maxims, she draws a conversational framework and it was approved at its time. However, in later years it was criticized for not stating clearly the relationship among the rules and maxims and for being vague in terms of not explaining how to assess the level of politeness in an interaction (Watts, 2003b).

Apart from Lakoff, Leech (1983) also made use of maxims in his theory and he developed a politeness theory to compensate the weakness of Grice's Cooperative principle (CP) whose assumption is that any discourse is the joint effort of speaker and the addressee. Leech (1983) claims that the CP is in a weak position alone, and it has to be accompanied by politeness principle (PP) that he developed "to rescue the CP from serious trouble" and to give an answer to the question "why people are often so indirect in conveying what they mean" (Leech, 1983, p. 80). He believed that there is a "trade –off relation between them" (p.82) and he lists six maxims associated with the PP that he developed.

(I)   TACT MAXIM (in directives and comissives)

(a) Minimise cost to *other* [(b) Maximise benefit to *other*]

(II)   GENEROSITY MAXIM (in directives and comissives)

(a) Maximise cost to *self* (b) Minimise benefit to *self*]

(III)   APPROBATION MAXIM (in expenssives and assertives)

(a) Minimise dispraise of *other* [(b) Maximise praise to *other*]

(IV)   MODESTY MAXIM (in expenssives and assertives)

(a) Minimise praise of *self* [(b) Maximise dispraise to *self*]

(V)   AGREEMENT MAXIM (in assertives)

(a) Minimise disagreement between *self* and *other*

[(b) Maximise agreement between *self* and *other*]

(VI)   SYMPATHY MAXIM (in assertives)

(a) Minimise antipathy between *self* and *other*

[(b) Maximise sympathy between *self* and *other*](Leech, p.132)

Related to these maxims, Leech underlines two important factors in his theory. First, he points out that these maxims are not evaluated in the same way in a culture. For instance, for Mediterranean cultures Modesty Maxim is not as important as the Generosity Maxim. More to the point, he also indicates that the relative weights of these maxims are not the same in different cultures. There is cross-cultural variation in the relative weights of these maxims. For instance, while the eastern cultures like Japan and China value Modesty Maxim very much, it is not so important for the Western countries (Leech, 1983, p.150). Leech's politeness theory has contributed a lot to our understanding especially as to the cross- cultural differences in the perception of politeness. However, it is still not a faultless theory "like the other politeness strategies. It has been criticized a lot; for instance, for having too many maxims and no motivated way to restrict the number of these maxims"(Thomas, 1995).

2.3.2. Politeness and the Management of Face:

The most influential theory of politeness was put forward by Brown and Levinson (1987). The center of their theory is the concept, *face* which was proposed by Goffman (1967).Goffman defines the face as:

> The positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact. Face is an image of self delineated in terms of approved social attributes- albeit an image that others may share, as when a person makes a good showing for his profession or religion by making a good showing for himself. (Goffman, 1967, p. 5)

Brown and Levinson used Goffman's definition of face and developed their own theory of politeness which is claimed to be universal. They define face as "the

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public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself"(Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 61).According to them, face is something emotional and it must be enhanced, maintained or protected. This is the mutual interest of the participants in interaction. This constitutes the basis of their theory for politeness that includes two kinds of face as the positive and the negative. Positive face refers to the desire to be appreciated approved of and respected by others. On the other hand, negative face is related to the desire not to be infringed upon.

As an important component of their theory of politeness, they also developed the concept, FTA (Face threatening acts). According to them, "Some acts intrinsically threaten face" and requests are one of these intrinsically face threatening acts (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 60). Because of these acts the participants end up in a situation to take part in face management work. During this process they follow some strategies as developed (Brown and Levinson 1987, p.69) as follow:
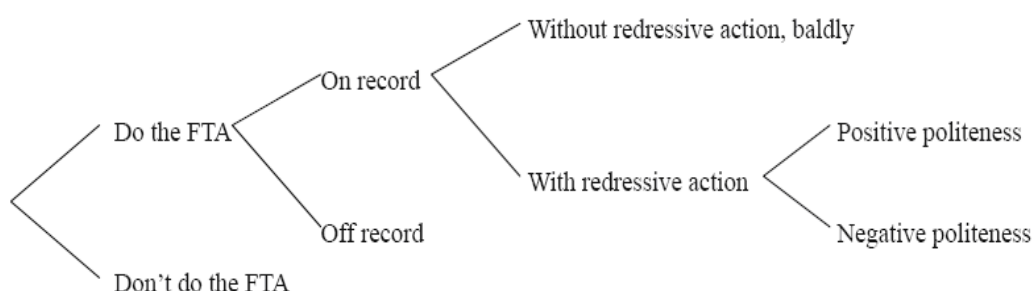
Figure 1. Face-work strategies.

According to this scheme, first the speaker can choose to perform the act or not to perform it. If the act is performed, it can be on record or off record. Off record is used when an expression can have "more than one unambiguously attributable intention" (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 69). In that way, the speaker removes himself from any imposition. For instance, the following sentence is negotiable because the speaker does not declare his real intention, borrowing money. He implies it: "Damn I'm out of cash, I forgot to go to the bank today" (Brown and Levinson,

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1987, p. 69). Another option is on record. If this option is chosen, then there are two alternatives, baldly on record action or redressive action. "Doing an act baldly, without redress, involves doing it in the most direct, clear, unambiguous and concise way possible (for example, for a request, saying `Do X! `" (Brown and Levinson, p. 69). However, if the strategy with redressive action is chosen then there are two alternatives. They are positive politeness and negative politeness strategies. Positive politeness is related to intimacy. When the speaker follows the way of positive politeness he treats the hearer as a member of an in-group. As Brown and Levinson indicate, "S wants H's wants" (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 70). Negative politeness, on the other hand, is oriented toward protecting the needs of the hearer for not losing the freedom. The speaker tries not to impose on the hearer. It is a kind of "avoidance based" strategy (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 70). The difference between negative politeness and positive politeness is explained in an effective way by Brown and Levinson with this illuminating sentence, "negative politeness is the heart of respect behaviour; just as positive politeness is the kernel of familiar and joking behaviour"(Brown and Levinson, p. 129).To elaborate this face work strategies, Brown and Levinson developed the following three sociological variables. According to them, the choice of strategies mentioned below should be done in accordance with the weightiness of these sociological variables. These variables are as follows:

(i) the 'social distance' (D) of S and H (a symmetric relationship)
(ii) the relative 'power' (P) of S and H (an asymmetric relationship)
(iii)the absolute ranking (R) of imposition in the particular culture.(Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 74).

They prepare a formula with the help of which they assume that the interlocutors compute the weightiness of a FTA and choose the suitable strategy in accordance with the calculation result:

$$Wx = D (S,H) + P (H,S) + Rx \qquad\qquad (1)$$

In this formula (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 76) the Wx, as the numerical value is responsible for measuring the weightiness of the FTAx. D (S, H) stands as the value which measures the social distance between the hearer and the speaker. P (H, S) in the same way measures the power that the hearer has over speaker. Lastly, Rx measures the degree that shows to what extent FTA x is rated as an imposition. If the Wx is considered as a risk, the distance between the hearer and the speaker, the power the hearer has over the speaker and the rate of imposition determine the bigness of the risk and the speaker chooses the suitable strategy in accordance with the bigness of this risk.

Because of the fact that the relationship among distance, power, and imposition is the basis of the situations used in the present study, these social variables will be reviewed in a detailed way in the following part.
The first variable distance (D) is associated with *social closeness* and *social attributes* by Brown and Levinson and it is defined as "the frequency of the interaction and the kinds of material or non-material goods (including face exchanges between S and H)" (Brown and Levinson, 1987,p. 77).

Regarding the second variable, the power (P) Brown and Levinson use the definition, "the degree to which H can impose his own plans and his own self-evaluation (face) at the expense of S's plans and self-evaluation" (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 77). Besides, as the source of this social variable, power they present two concepts. They are *material control* and *metaphysical control.* While they associate the material control with economic factors and physical force, they relate *metaphysical control* to metaphysical forces.

Lastly, the ranking of imposition (R) is defined as "culturally and situationally defined ranking of imposition by the degree to which they are considered to interfere with an agent's wants of self-determination or of approval (his negative- and positive-face wants)" (Brown & Levinson 1987,p.77).According to this definition it can be said that asking for money is a greater imposition than

asking for help finding a location. In the same way asking for finding a location can be considered as a bigger imposition than asking for time.

Brown and Levinson's politeness theory has also met with a number of criticisms. Watts (2003b) is the harshest critic of this theory. He wrote a book called *Politeness* and in this book, he devoted some chapters to criticize some of the politeness theories in the literature. The harshest criticisms went to the theory of Brown and Levinson in this book. First, he criticizes their model showing the strategies to get rid of or reduce the face threatening acts. Watts criticizes this model for its binary setting which do not consider the alternative that more than one option may be chosen at the same time during the interaction: "It excludes the possibility that two or more strategies might be chosen at the same time" (Watts, p. 88).

Besides, he criticizes the idea of face used in the theory of Brown and Levinson. Watts argues that although Brown and Levinson claims using the concept, face developed by Goffman in their theory, their idea of face is not consistent with Goffman's. Watts states that according to Goffman face "may differ from one interaction to the next, or from one part of the same interaction to the next, depending on the lines that have been chosen"(Watts, p. 124) and Watts supports this idea heartily. However, according to Watts, this change in the flow of interaction, which is the core of his theory that will be discussed in the next part, is ignored by Brown and Levinson and he criticizes them for ignoring this fact and taking face more like a psychological construct which gives priority to individual wants as it happens in positive and negative politeness. Watts states that for Brown and Levinson face is "as a stable core of values lodged somewhere in the individual", but for Goffman it is "far less real and it is constantly renegotiable"(Watts, p. 105).

2.3.3. Politeness as a Shifting Concept in the Course of Interaction

Three linguists underline the dynamic, changing aspects of the politeness. While Fraser and Nolen (1981) imply this idea in their theory, Watts (2003b) uses it

as the starting point of his theory. Fraser and Nolen define politeness by taking into consideration the rights and the obligations of the participants and suggest the idea, Conversational Contract (CC) (as reported in Watts, 2003b). According to this idea, "on entering into a given conversation, each party brings an understanding of some initial set of rights and obligations that will determine, at least for the preliminary stages, the limits of the interaction"(Fraser and Nolen, 1981 stated in Watts, 2003b, p.78). What is more, these rights and obligations can be adjusted during the changing course of interaction. Thus the theory of Fraser and Nolen is a discourse based theory and as Thomas(1995) indicates, compared to the theories of Lakoff, Leech, Brown and Levinson, their theory appears to be more sociolinguistic. (Thomas, 177).

In a similar way Watts (2003b) also considers the politeness and perceptions as dynamic concepts which are constantly subject to change during the course of interaction in accordance with the changing potentials in the context. To redefine the idea of politeness and to present his own theory, he first underlines the difference between politic behavior and polite behavior. He defines politic politeness as "linguistic behavior which is perceived to be appropriate to the social constraints of the ongoing interaction", whereas he defines the polite behavior as "linguistic behavior which is perceived to be beyond what is expectable"(Watts, p. 19).

In other words, it can be said that while one produces insincere, but socially appropriate utterances to keep the equilibrium in the conversation, it is considered as politic behavior. However, if the utterance that is produced is something unexpected in the course of interaction it is regarded as polite behavior. The relationship between politic behaviour and politeness is clarified by Watts as "politeness is *payment*, but it is payment in *excess of* what is ordinarily required by the politic behaviour of the social interaction"(Watts,2003b,p. 152).

To show the difference between politic behavior and polite behavior, Watts gives the following example taken from a local radio open –line phone-in programme from Radio Manchester, recorded in 1984 to clarify the difference between politic behaviour and polite behaviour:

> H*: I agree/I quite agree with you/ I quite agree with you/*
> particularly *I mean*/ I would have thought that the/ there

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must be a-a- an institutional standards organization that
makes sure that really noxious things don't get into tins for
pet food…(Watts, 2003b, p. 240)

According to Watts the first utterances, *I quite agree* is part of the politic behavior of this phone-in programme. It is a common way of showing agreement in the course of the conversation. However, because of the fact that the utterance is repeated twice and the intensifier *quite* is added, the politic behaviour is changed into the potential politeness. Then almost immediately after this polite utterance another politic attempt is done with the usage of *I mean.* It is used by the speaker to clarify what he is saying.

The important idea as to the politeness of Watts is that there is a constant change in the course of interaction in accordance with the participant's different assessments of the shifting factors in the conversation. What is more these assessment may differ from one person to another. Thus, what is polite or not is something decided by interactants. As he calls his theory is "processual" and the politeness is "part of the social practice" (Watts, 2003b, p. 160,255)

2.4. Pragmatic Development

Two influential proposals have been done as to the pragmatic development of the adults. As Kasper and Blum Kulka (1993) indicate because of the fact that little work has been done regarding the adult second language learners' acquisition, the theoretical frameworks suggested by Schmidt (1993) and Bialystok (1993) as to this point has been very illuminating and inspiring in the related research field. Schmidt is concerned with the conditional aspects of the pragmatic learning. On the other hand, Bialystok deals with the cognitive aspect of such learning.

Schmidt (1993) emphasizes the importance of *consciousness raising* in his theory and indicates its importance in second language learning as "although many theorists believe that unconscious learning predominates in second language learning, it is very unlikely that what language learners consciously perceive or notice in input is unimportant for learning"(Schmidt, 1993, p. 25).To support this idea for instance, he underlines the importance of the relationship between motivation, explicit learning and development of pragmatics in his theory. He emphasizes that the students who are motivated and provided with explicit teacher-provided information about pragmatics of the second language are more successful than the ones who are not. He believes that "second language learners may fail to experience the crucial noticing for years" (Schmidt, 1993, p. 36). Thus they have to be led to realize such features of input. Schmidt believes that implicit learning and incidental learning are useful. However, he thinks that conscious learning is a must in pragmatic development. He especially underlines the idea that attention to input is a necessary condition for any learning at all with some anecdotes:

> Journal entry, Week 6. This week we were introduced to and drilled on the imperfect. . . . The basic contrast seems straightforward enough: ontem eufui ao clube ["yesterday 1 went to the club"] vs. antigamente eu ia ao clube ["formerly Iused to go to the club"]. L gave us a third model: ontem eu ia ao clube ["yesterday I was going to the club"], which L says is a common way of making excuses . . .Wednesday

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night Amos came over to play cards, and the first thing he
said was eu ia telefonar para voce ["I was going to call you"],
exactly the kind of excuse L had said we could
expect.(Schmidt, p. 29)

With the help of this example he tries to prove the connection between noticing and learning. In this anecdote, Schmidt shares one of his experiences while learning Portuguese. He had been taught some aspects of the pragmatics in the lesson and following that he noticed the structure he had learned in the lesson in his friend's talk. He claims that this noticing brings out the successful learning.

On the other hand, Bialystok (1993) explains the pragmatic development of the learners by comparing adult pragmatic learning to the child pragmatic learning. She claims that the adults and the children are quite different from each other as to pragmatic development. According to Bialystok (1993), for the children, form-function mapping of the pragmatic knowledge is very important and developing control strategies for efficient use of pragmatic knowledge has the secondary importance in their pragmatic acquisition process. However, for the adult learners the opposite of this situation is the case. Adult learners' process of pragmatic competence requires two separate cognitive components: *acquiring new knowledge and acquiring control over this knowledge*. For them, the primary problem is related to the latter one, controlling their pragmatic knowledge. Adults produce pragmatically incorrect utterances and the reason for that is not their poor pragmatic knowledge. Bialystok explains this problem as follows:

For adults the problem to be solved for pragmatic
competence is essentially to develop the control strategies to
attend to the intended interpretations in contexts and to
select the forms from the range of possibilities that satisfy
the social and contextual needs of the communicative
situations.(Bialystok, p. 54)

The claim of Bialystok regarding the importance of acquiring control over knowledge is regarded by Hassal (2001a, 2003b) in his two studies and they lent partial support to Bialystok's claims. In the studies of Hassal, while Australian learners of Indonesian managed to modify their utterances *externally* which can be

done with the existing L1 knowledge to some extent, they cannot be as successful as the native speakers with regard to modifying their utterances *internally* which requires both new knowledge and the control over this knowledge.

2.5. A Review of Cross- Cultural Request Studies

After Searle (1979) came up with the concept *directives* as an attempt by the speaker to get the hearer to do something, many linguists used this concept as the basis to define the most studied major speech act category, *requests* "Requests are pre-event acts, intended to affect the hearer's behaviour"(Blum- Kulka, 1990, p. 256). "Requests are attempts on the part of a speaker to get the hearer to perform or to stop performing some kind of action"(Ellis, 2001).

Defining the requests is not the only effort of the linguists. They realized the fact that requests have the potential to provide insights related to the acquisition of pragmatic skills, so they touch on its different sides with their different research studies.

2.5.1. The Cross- Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP)

Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) may be considered as the most important and effective attempt which has inspired deeply the studies following it. It was initiated in 1982 and published in 1989 by an international group of researchers. They believe that mainly three types of different variability namely, *cross cultural variability*, *sociopragmatic variability* and *interlanguage variability* cause the diversity in the realization of speech acts in context (Blum-Kulka, Olshtain, 1984). Therefore, they have set up the

methodological framework of their project in accordance with this assumption and tried to establish the patterns of speech act realization under different social constraints by focusing on a number of languages and cultures with both native and nonnative subjects (Blum-Kulka, House, 1989). Eight languages or varieties have been studied in this project: Australian English, American English, British English, Canadian French, Danish, German, Hebrew and Russian, so the project has appeared to be both intercultural and intralingual.

In all these languages, as the speech acts, requests and apologies have been studied. To collect data as to these speech acts, as an instrument discourse completion test (DCT) has been used. This test consists of 16 situations, half of which elicit requests, the other half apologies. Each of them has been preceded by a short description of the setting and the social distance between interlocutors and their status relative to each other. To underline the effect of situational variation, eighteen items in the project have been varied on the social parameters of changing social distance and dominance. This version of the DCT have been translated into seven languages and administered to 400 subjects including equal number of male and female university students. Half of the informants are native speakers and half non natives.

2.5.1.1. Request Studies in CCSARP

The results emerged from the Cross -Cultural Speech Act Realization project have been quite complex, but at the same time quite enlightening. In the framework of this big scale project, its international group of researchers from different countries shared their findings related to CCSARP in some studies. Of these, the relevant ones to the present study will be reviewed in the following parts. Thus, first of all, being in line with the *pragmalinguistic* aspect of the present study, the findings of Blum-Kulka (1989) as to conventionality in indirectness and the findings

of Weizman (1989) as to hints will be reviewed. Following these pragmalinguistic studies, as to *the situational variation* aspect, the sociopragmatic findings of the study about cross -cultural and situational variation of requests by Blum-Kulka and House (1989) will be reviewed.

The other aspects of the present study, *internal and external modification* have also been underlined by the researchers of the CCSARP, so the findings of Faerch and Kasper (1989) as to internal and external modification will be reviewed in the following parts. Besides, a study which has been conducted by House and Kasper (1987) will be reviewed since despite being published beforehand, it is also the part of CCSARP, focusing on the same points of Faerch and Kasper's study.

Lastly, as the part of the CCSARP, the findings of Rintell and Mitchell (1989) about the comparison of *research methods* used in the study of requests will be reviewed together with the study by Sasaki (1998) which has the same starting point as Rintell and Mitchell's study.

2.5.1.2. Studies Related to Directness in the CCSARP

Being related to *pragmalinguistic* aspect of the present study, the findings of Blum-Kulka (1989) about conventionality in indirectness and the findings of Weizman (1989) about hints in the CCSARP will be reviewed here as mentioned above. Regarding the conventionality in indirectness in the CCSARP, Australian English, French, Hebrew and Argentinian Spanish have been studied by Blum Kulka (1989) and it has been found that conventional indirectness is the most frequently used main strategy type in all these languages. Besides, the results have showed that Argentinian Spanish speakers are the most direct, followed by speakers of Hebrew. The least direct are the Australian English speakers. Speakers of French stand at the middle point of directness. As well as the different proportions of directness used in the languages, the proportions of the preferences for specific substrategies under the

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title of conventionally indirectness have also appeared to be different in these languages.

Related to *pragmalinguistics* aspect, as well as conventional indirectness, hints have also been underlined by Weizman (1989) in the framework of the CCSARP as mentioned above with the help of the data by Australian English, Canadian French, and Israeli Hebrew. It has been found that the frequency of hints in the CCSARP data is low. Besides, with a detailed analysis of hints in these languages substrategies of hints have been identified. These substrategies are reference to the requested act, reference to the hearer's involvement, reference to related components, questioning hearer's commitment, questioning feasibility and stating potential grounders.

2.5.1.3. The Study Related to Situational Variation in the CCSARP

As mentioned above being related to *situational variation* and so to the present study, the research done by Blum-Kulka and House (1989) will be reviewed in this part. In their study, the researches' first concern is the relationship between situational and cultural factors in determining variable patterns of requestive behavior. Besides, they want to see whether the situations given to the subjects are perceived and rated similarly or not by members of different language communities. As a first step, to be able to explore the relationship between situational and cultural factors, they have used five situations provided in the CCSARP questionnaire, translated and culturally transposed into the five languages studied. The data from these languages have been collected from native speakers of Hebrew, Canadian French, Argentinian Spanish, Australian English, and German. The results related to this first aim of the research have showed that cultural factors interact with situational factors. The subjects of these five languages vary their requests in accordance with the situations. However, there is the effect of cross-cultural variation

in their choices. The specific proportions in the choices between the more direct and less direct strategies are culture- specific. Besides, it is seen that languages vary in the extent to which they change directness levels by situation. For instance, the subjects of Australian English switch the least by using conventional indirectness as the first preference in nearly all of the situations. On the other hand, the subjects of Hebrew and Argentinian Spanish have been more sensitive to the situational constraints and they have switched their strategies a lot in accordance with the situations.

In the second part of this study, an assessment questionnaire has been used to compare the perceptions of the social situations used for eliciting requests. Three groups of native speakers, Israelis, Germans, and Argentinians are given five situations followed by six questions representing six social dimensions namely, obligation, right, dominance, familiarity, compliance and difficulty. The results have showed that the subjects from these different three cultures have changing estimates of weight for each specific parameter and in accordance with this difference in estimates, they change the directness level of their request strategies.

2.5.1.4. Studies Related to Internal External Modification in the CCSARP

In addition to the pragmalinguistic points in the CCSARP regarding the present study, the findings of Faerch and Kasper (1989) in this project about internal and external modification will be reviewed in this part. To underline the aspects of internal and external modification in the CCSARP, as the subject groups Danish native speakers, German native speakers, English native speakers, Danish learners of German and Danish learners of English have been used. Five situations from the CCSARP in which preparatory strategies are employed most frequently have been chosen. The results have showed that the learners have used external strategies more than the internal strategies. This result has been attributed to the needs of the learners to be clear by using external modification strategies which are more explicit.

Besides, it has been found that lexical/phrasal downgraders have been used more than the syntactic downgraders. This has been claimed to be related to the idea that lexical/phrasal downgraders are both more transparent and easier to process than complex syntactic downgraders. Lastly, it has been concluded that external modification strategies are selected independent of the internal contextual features. Rather it depends on the assessment of the requester on sociopragmatic constraints.

The study which has been conducted by House and Kasper (1987) will be taken up in this part as being like the part of the CCSARP and underlining the same points, internal and external modification in the study of Faerch and Kasper (1989). Other points underlined in this study are directness and transfer effects. To reach its aims, as the subject groups 200 German learners of English, 200 Danish learners of English, 100 British English native speakers, 200 German native speakers and 163 Danish native speakers have taken part in the study. Five situations are taken from the CCSARP. In these situations dominance, social distance, interlocutors' rights and obligations, degree of imposition involved in the event have been taken into consideration. The results of this study have showed that sociopragmatic features of the situational context have an important role in choosing request realization patterns in all language groups. Besides, it has been found that in accordance with the selection of syntactic downgrader and lexical/phrasal downgrader, the directness level changes. Moreover, some differences between the learners and the English native speakers as well as between the learners groups themselves have been found: Learner groups are different from the native speakers in terms of selecting higher directness levels, fewer syntactic downgraders and more external modification strategies. The learner groups differ from one another as they use different amount of syntactic downgrader, lexical/phrasal downgrader. In addition to these findings, it has also been figured out that German learners' requests are more elaborative and formal than the Danish learners, so in terms of approaching target language standards, Danish learners have appeared to be more successful. As the last point, the study has also revealed that as to transfer, learners avoid transfer of language-specific features, so they are aware of the constraints at the pragmatic level.

2.5.1.5. The Study on Request Research Methods in the CCSARP

Another study which has made use of the findings of the CCSARP has been done by Rintell and Mitchell (1989). The aim of this study is too see whether the responses elicited for requests and apologies in oral role play situations are different or not from those elicited via discourse completion test. To be able to find an answer to this question, the data have been collected in two parts. In the first part data has been collected from learners of English as a second language. The number of these subjects is 50. Written questionnaire has been given to 29 of these students and the remaining 21 students have taken part in role play activities. In the second part of the data collection process 37 native speakers have participated. Written data has been collected from 23 of these subjects and oral data from 14. To be able to make the written and oral data parallel to one another the original American version of the CCSARP discourse completion test has been modified. The line of the dialogue given after the blank line for the subjects' response has been eliminated so that the problem of inserting a preplanned line of a dialogue in a spontaneous oral role play has been got rid of. The comparison of the written and oral data eliminated from the learner and the native speaker subject groups has showed that the length of responses of the learners in the oral responses is longer than the ones in the discourse completion test. However, such a big difference has not been seen in the native speaker data. There has been only a slight length difference between oral and written data collected from native speakers. Besides, the results of the study have revealed that in two situations there are differences in frequency of use of direct request strategy forms between oral and written data, for both learners and native speakers. Although both direct and indirect strategies are employed, in the written data, there seems to be a greater frequency of direct strategies than in the oral data.

Similar to the study above done on methods, a research on the same points has been done by Sasaki (1998). The study has compared two measures of second language pragmatic competence, namely production questionnaires and role plays to

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find out the differences and similarities between them. 12 Japanese university students were used in this study. 6 of these students were female and 6 of them were male students. These subjects represented low, low intermediate and high-intermediate level English language learners. Each group consisted of 4 subjects from each group. However, the level of the language learners is ignored in this study because the number of the subjects is not enough for such a consideration. Production questionnaire and role play have been used as the instruments in this study. For each of these strategies, four requests and four refusal situations have been prepared by taking into consideration the variables, power, distance and imposition. Twelve subjects have been divided into three random groups and they first have taken part in role play activities. Then the same subjects have responded to the same eight situations in the production questionnaires. Response length, content, and native speakers' evaluation of the responses have been taken into consideration during the analysis process. Finally, two trained native speakers of American English have evaluated the responses of the subjects in terms of appropriateness and grammar/ structure.

The study shows that the oral responses of the subjects are longer than their written responses. In written data, the subjects generally have used the most critical part of the speech act and ignored the other parts. However, in spoken data they have kept the speech longer with repetitions, hesitations and alerters. Apart from that, with the help of this study it is understood that in oral and written data, request strategies used in request head acts varied. For instance, although they have used hint a lot in role plays, they have not used it in written language. There is also a difference in terms of frequency. For instance, same situations have included more direct strategies in written request situations compared to the ones in oral data. All the results up to now are related to data elicitation side of the role plays and the production questionnaires. Apart from that, these instruments have also been evaluated as testing tools of EFL students' pragmatic competence and it has been found that as testing tools, both production questionnaires and role plays have high inter rater reliability. Nevertheless, the correlation between appropriateness scores of these methods is too low, so they have not measured exactly the same feature.

2.5.2. Request Studies Related to Thinking Processes of the Learners

The following two studies by Cohen and Olshtain (1993), and Woodfield (2006) do something different compared to most of the researchers who focus on only the actual request utterances of L2 learners. As well as studying on request realization patterns of the learners, these studies also touch on the thinking processes and its effects on utterances of the learners with the help of the retrospective reports.

Cohen and Olshtain (1993) want to investigate the processes while learners produce speech acts, so they attempt to describe the ways learners assess, plan, and execute utterances. The subjects for this study consist of 15 advanced EFL learners, 11 native speakers of Hebrew and 4 near- native speakers of Hebrew. The data are collected by means of role plays which include two apology, two complaint and two request situations. The interactions are videotaped and the subjects are asked in Hebrew, both fixed and probing questions just after they have watched their performances to remember. The results of this study reveal that the learners do not plan the specific utterances. They just arrange the general direction that the utterance follows. While doing that, they do not pay much attention to the grammar or pronunciation. They often think in two languages and sometimes in three languages.

Besides, the speech production of the learners is analyzed and three different learner styles are found: metacognizers, avoiders, and pragmatists. Of these, metacognizer are the ones who have a voice in the back of the head informing them of their general deficiencies and monitoring their utterances. Avoiders are the learners who do not use some structures or words when they are not sure about how to say or use them and the last learner type is the pragmatists. They also have some weaknesses at some points like avoiders. However, instead of not using them, they find alternative solutions to approximate what is needed.

Similar to the study above, retrospective report strategy is also used by Woodfield (2006), to explore the difficulties experienced by the learners in planning and performing the written request strategies. However, unlike the first study, this issue is focused on as the secondary aim of the study. For the main aim, requesting

behavior of two different ESL learner groups, namely Japanese and German learners of English is compared in this study to figure out the requesting behavior of the ESL learners'. To be able to reach this aim, the data are collected by means of DCTs as it happens in most of the studies. However, in a different way, the participants in this study work in shared L1 pairs while completing the DCTs. Thus, the responses in the DCTs in this study consist of the agreed linguistic responses of the learners after the negotiations preceding them. Fixed and data driven questions are asked in retrospective interviews in the study and the DCTs are analyzed with a focus on the level of directness, internal mitigation and perspective.

The results of the study gained through retrospective interviews indicate that learners experience both grammatical and lexical difficulties in the planning of the written requests. The reasons of the grammatical difficulties for the German learners are contributed the negative transfer from the first language. Besides, with the analysis of the verbal reports, it is seen that there are the indications of sociocultural transfer which influence the thinking of the Japanese learners. Apart from the results gained through retrospective interviews, the ones from the DCTs indicate that like the native speakers of English, both of the learner groups mostly prefer conventionally indirect strategies. However, the data for Japanese learners include more direct strategies compared to the German learners and native speakers of English. Both the learners groups and the native speakers of English use the internal strategies. However, learner groups make use of a limited range of internal strategies than the native speakers. As to perspective, the native speaker group uses the joint perspective from time to time while the learners do not prefer such a usage.

2.5.3. Request Studies on the Young Learners

Unlike most of the request studies done with the help of the adult subjects in the literature, the following two studies conducted by Rose (2000) and Achiba (2003) prefer young learners as their participants.

To be able to figure out the range, development, and the transfer effects of the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic realizations of the speech acts, namely requests, apologies, and compliment-response strategies, Rose (2000) conducts a study with the Cantonese -speaking primary school students in Hong Kong. These students represent three levels as Primary Two, Primary Four and Primary Six (P-2, P-4, and P-6). There are 15 students in each group to collect Cantonese data and the subject numbers for English data are 20 for P-2, 14 for P-4 and 19 for P-6. The average age for each group is 7, 9, and 11 years respectively. As an instrument, cartoon oral production task (COPT) is used. To be able to develop this instrument, first of all, a preliminary questionnaire including one example of a request, apology and compliment is given to the students. Then, they are asked to write most recent requests, apologies, and compliments they have made or witnessed. 30 items are selected from their answers and a single-frame cartoon is drawn to depict these situations for the children. Thus, the COPT includes 15 scenarios which require addressing to a higher status hearer and another 15 to an equal status hearer. These request scenarios also vary in terms of degree of imposition as high medium or low.

The results of the study show that, conventional indirectness is the most frequent strategy used by the participants. However, the frequency of its usage is not equal in each group. Compared to the high level, it is used less by the low level. In the same way direct strategies are used more by the low level than the high level, so this study shows that there is some evidence of development, mainly in the movement from direct to conventionally indirect strategies among the groups. On the other hand, the results also show that there is little evidence of pragmatic transfer from L1 or sensitivity to the situational variation. Thus, although there are the

indications of pragmalinguistic development in the study, the sociopragmatic development can not be seen.

Achiba (2003) has an attempt to examine how and to what extent the child learns the request realization patterns in the second language. By this means, she hopes to add to our understanding as to what developmental path the learning process follows in the child's requestive repertoire. The main subject of this study is the seven- year- old daughter of the researcher, Yao. There are also 10 peer interlocutors, a teenage interlocutor, and two adult interlocutors in the study. Peer interlocutors are ten classmates of Yao. The teenage interlocutor is a 14- year- old girl. The adult interlocutors are a 19-year-old university student employed as a babysitter and a 33 year-old neighbor. There are two kinds of data in the study. The first and the major one is the recorded data. Yao's interactions with the other subjects' are audio and video recorded. In addition, a diary is used as a supplementary source of information in the study. The data are analyzed with two aspects in consideration. Firstly, they are analyzed to determine the request strategies and the modifications for these strategies. Besides, the analyses are done to find out how the child's requestive repertoire varies in accordance with the goal and the addressee. The study lasts over a period of 17 months and 60 hours of interaction are collected. During the analyses, the requests are divided into three parts as address term, head act, and support move or reiteration.

At the beginning of the study, formulaic and routinised forms are used by Yao. Then, in the course of time more differentiated structures come out with the recognition of potential for imposition on the addressee or the obstacle to her getting compliance. Thus, towards the end of the study, she is better able to alternate between more or less direct request strategies in an appropriate way. She gains an insight both for pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects of the target language. Since she realizes not only the existence of different forms of request strategies but also how they should be used appropriately in different situations.

Apart from these points, how the language use is varied in accordance with goal and addressee is underlined in the study and as to goal it is found that the direct strategy is used a lot for the initiation of action and for the cessation of action.

However, conventionally indirect strategies are used with the requests for goods and for joint activities. Besides, it is found that the perspective used in request strategies are changed in accordance with the goal. Apart from the goal, concerning the relationship between addressee and request realization, it is found that Yao changes her request strategies and some of their components in accordance with the addressee. However, the distinction is subtle. Since interlocutors, mostly the playmates are treated as the one specific kind of addressee and face work is not required mostly in the supportive play setting that Yao takes part most of the time. However, it is found that the request realization and the modifications vary substantially between Yao's mother and the rest of the addresses in the study.

2.5.4. Request Studies Related to the Development

The following studies by Takahashi and Dufon (1989), Trosborg (1995), Hill (1997), and Hassal (2003) have an attempt to investigate the request strategies of the learners from different levels, so by some means developmental aspects are underlined in these studies.

In their study, Takahashi and Dufon(1989) examine the difference in indirectness in Japanese L1 and English L2 directives to find out how Japanese learners of English deviate from English norms while requesting and what effects the language transfer has in this process. The participants in this study are 9 female Japanese students who are divided into three groups based on their proficiency level: three advanced, three intermediate, three beginning level subjects. Apart from the data obtained from this experimental group, the baseline data which have been collected for the previous studies of the researchers are also made use of in this study. These data have been collected from native speakers of Japanese and native speakers of American English. A method of two-party role play is used for this study. Immediately following the role play activities, one of the Japanese investigators interviews the subjects in Japanese by using an on the spot playback

technique. Like the role plays, the interviews are also audio taped. Then the data are identified by taking into consideration three directness levels of the requests and they are compared with the ones gained from the Japanese language as L1 and English as the target language.

The results of the study show that Japanese people use more indirect strategies in their language compared to the American native speakers. In the same way the beginner level Japanese learners of English use more indirect strategies in this level compared to the American native speakers, intermediate and advanced level learners. Thus, it is concluded that there is the effect of transfer at this point. This result is compared with the child native speaker acquisition findings of the previous studies which show that children first acquire the direct strategies and then use the indirect ones. Then it is concluded that there is stronger support for the transfer hypothesis than for the universal development sequence hypothesis. However, the fact that advanced students exceed the American controls in degree of directness can not be explained by the transfer from L1, so it is concluded that there may be some other factors besides transfer to influence the directive choice.

With the aim of examining the requests, complaints, and apologies of the Danish learners, Trosborg (1995) uses five groups of learners. The first three groups consist of secondary group grade nine participants, high school and commercial school participants and university students. Despite no proficiency test is given to these groups, their proficiency levels are assumed as intermediate, upper intermediate and advanced level respectively. Apart from these groups, two native speaker groups are also used in the study. The first group consists of the native speakers of Danish who are university students and people with middle class occupations. The second group consists of the native speakers of British English who study at a Danish university or who are the visitors to Denmark for a short term. As the instrument role play is used and the performances of the participants are videotaped in face to face conversations lasting approximately five minutes. The background information of the role play situations are varied along two aspects namely, dominance and social distance. Besides, the role play situations are

structured to include a high degree of imposition. As a result, the situations demand both complex interactions with negotiation skills and a high degree of face work.

The results of this study reveal that there is a correspondence between the proficiency level of the learners and the usages of native like request strategies.Apart from the realization of request strategies the appropriate usages of internal and external modifiers also increase in accordance with the proficiency level. However, learners still underuse them compare to the native speaker control group. Apart from these points, the results of this study also show that upper intermediate and advanced level learners use the same request strategies again and again and as a result, mechanical sounding requests appear. This makes the learners sound unresponsive to the development of the conversations in role plays and they produce inappropriate responding moves.

Hill (1997) investigates the pragmatic development of Japanese learners of English in an EFL context and considers the directness level of request strategies as well as the amount and type of internal and external modification. In addition, the assessments of the language learners as to a number of social variables are investigated by the researcher with the aim of finding out how these assessments vary with increasing language proficiency. For these aims, three groups of learners representing low, intermediate and advanced levels take part in the study. Apart from these groups, there are also one group of British native speaker subjects and one group of Japanese native speaker subjects. As an instrument, a DCT including eight situations and three questions which are based on sociopragmatic variables is used, so the instrument of the study is designed in a way to obtain data on both the learners' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence for each proficiency level.

As to directness, it is found that Japanese subjects prefer more direct strategies to both equal status and higher status interlocutors compared to the native speakers. However, as the proficiency level increase they show development. The learners also do not use as many conventionally indirect strategies as the native speakers to both equal status and higher status interlocutors, but in accordance with the raising proficiency level, development is seen. Moreover, regarding hints, the

learners use fewer hints than the native speakers and they show no development as proficiency level increase. Apart from the directness, as to the usage of internal modification, the results reveal that Japanese subjects use fewer internal modification strategies than the native speakers, but as proficiency level increase they approximate to the standards of the native speakers. As to the usage of external modification similar results are seen in the study, as well. Japanese learners of English do not use as many external modification strategies as the native speakers. However, as the proficiency level increases, the frequency of external modification usage increases, too. In addition to the results as to pragmalinguistics aspect of the requests mentioned above, the results as to sociopragmatics aspect of the study show that Japanese subjects do not assess the social parameters given to them as native speakers do.

The last study considering the levels of the learners, and so the developmental issues is done by Hassal (2003b). The study aims to contribute to our understanding as to how L2 learners perform requests. However, unlike most of the studies which prefer English as the target language, this study chooses Indonesian as L2. 20 Australian learners of Indonesian take part in the study. Among them, there are 3 low, 2 high level students and the rest of the subjects in this group are considered like intermediate level students. Role play is used as the instrument and it includes 24 request situations with changing power, distance and imposition variables.

The results of this study reveal that as the linguistic proficiency increases, the learners avoid transferring the pragmatic features from their L1. Besides, both the learners' and the native speakers' the most preferred request strategy appears to be the query preparatory. However, learners differ from the native speakers by using different modal verbs while performing their requests with query preparatory strategy. In addition, want statements and hints are used less by the high proficiency level learners while they are preferred a lot by the low level students. However, overall these two strategies are used more by the learners than the native speakers of Indonesian. Besides, in the acquisition of request strategies which have short forms such as elided imperatives, a U- shaped curve of development is followed. It means

that such request strategies are used a lot by low level students. Then in the higher levels, its usage decreases and in the highest level its usage increases again.

2.5.5. Request Studies Utilizing Different Data Gathering Methods

The research studies done by Rinnert and Kobayashi (1999), and Schauer (2004) are reviewed below regarding the fact that the instruments used in these studies are very different from the ones that are used in other studies in the literature of the requests.

The first study is done by Rinnert and Kobayashi (1999) to compare the perceived politeness degree of hints in two languages, Japanese and English to the other request strategies. The study also has the aim of finding out the actual usage of requestive hints across Japanese and English in a similar institutional setting. For the first aim of the study, 145 Japanese subjects take part in it and they are 92 university students, 14 teachers, and 39 university office workers or older students participating in a woman's community college course. Apart from that, there are 95 native English speaking subjects. They are 40 teachers teaching in Japan and 55 university students in the U.S. For the first part of the study, two judgment questionnaires are prepared in both languages, Japanese and English. Each of the questionnaires includes 10 requests varying in terms of formality and degrees of directness levels. The subjects are asked to rate each of these requests on a scale of 1 to 7 by considering the level of politeness. For the second aim, the study adopts an ethnographic approach which is used rarely by the researchers and focuses its observations on one social situation, an administrative office in a university. Over a period of six months, the Japanese data are collected from a Japanese national university and the same amount of English data are collected from two offices of a community college in the U.S. Requests occurring naturally in these social situations in interactions among department or

division heads, secretaries, teachers, students and service personnel are tape recorded and transcribed by observers. During this process, gender, relative status, social distance, difficulty of the request, response to the request and contextual information are taken into account.

For the first part of the study, the results related to judgment questionnaire show that the formality is very important for the Japanese subjects. Their perceptions on the politeness of the request are affected by formality level. Like the Japanese subjects, the English subjects are also affected by the formality level. However, this effect is not as much as it happens in Japanese. No matter how high the formality level in a request, the English subjects perceive the hints less polite than the conventionally indirect requests. In accordance with this situation; for instance, the English subjects still use more mitigating markers with hints. This situation brings out an important cross cultural difference in the study. While clarity is very important for the English people, for Japanese people the same clarity creates coerciveness.

Related to the second part of the study, the frequency of hints is compared with the other strategies and it is found that despite using different types, the frequency of hints in each group is higher than the other request strategies. Two reasons are thought for this situation. Firstly, there is the effect of context. The request data is collected from administrative offices and in these places the expectations are clear and known by the speaker and the hearer, so working out the hints is not as difficult as it happens in other contexts.

Schauer (2004) conducts a longitudinal study to see pragmatic development characteristics of German learners who try to learn English as the target language. There are two groups of participants in this study. The first group consists of 12 German learners of English studying at a British university and the control group consists of English native speakers in Great Britain. The instrument used in this study is developed by the researcher herself, so it is very different from the other typical instruments used in other studies. This instrument is called Multimedia Elicitation Task (MET). It is a 16 scenario multimedia production questionnaire

which focuses on requests as the speech act. Before each MET scenario, an introductory slide informs the subjects about what is expected from them. After ten seconds the participants are provided with audiovisual information in the form of a photographic image describing the situation and at the same time an audio description of the scenario is also given. The reason for developing such a different instrument is ensuring equal conditions for every participant by eliminating the interference of factors such as the professional interlocutor's mood or tone. It helps keep standardization during the role plays. The data are collected from the subjects at three different times, shortly after their arrival in England, in the middle of their stay and shortly before their return to Germany.

Internal and external modification strategies are considered in the study and the results show that there is an acquisitional sequence in accordance with the length of stay in target environment. However, there are also effects of the participants' individual preferences related to using modifiers. Overall, the learner groups use more external modification strategies than the native speakers in the study. Apart from these points it is also found that some alerters, head acts, and grounders are already used by the participants when they first arrive the target language environment and some others appear at later stages. Lastly, it appears that there is a close relationship between the length of stay and the usage of syntactic downgraders. Since more participants use them at later sessions.

2.5.6. Request Studies Underlining Rarely Used Languages in the Literature

The research studies reviewed below are important for focusing on the languages and subject groups that are rarely focused on in the literature. These studies are done by Eslamirasekh (1993), Byon (2004), Felix-Bradsefer (2005), Barron (2006), and Economidou-Kogetsidis (2008) respectively.

Unlike most of the studies which focus on Western languages in the literature, Eslamirakesh (1993) chooses the Persian language to show the similarities and

differences in the realization patterns of requests between Persian speaking students and American speakers of English. Thus, in this study, the focus is cross-cultural variation. The subjects in the study are 50 native Persian speaking university students and 52 native American English speaking students. The data are collected by an open questionnaire like the one in the CCSARP. However, in a different way the response parts are not included in this study. During the analyses process, the directness levels of the requests are analyzed by a t-test and also a chi-square analysis is performed where frequencies of different components of the requests are wanted to be compared.

The results of the study reveal that in terms of the request strategies used Persian is extremely more direct than the American English, so there is a cross-cultural difference in directness level. However, Persians compensate this directness by using more supportive moves, alerters, internal and external modifiers compared to the Americans.

The second study done by Byon (2004) is different from the other studies in the literature because it focuses on Korean language like the target language while most of the studies in the literature prefer English as L2. This study aims to figure out and describe the KFL (Korean as a foreign language) learners' sociopragmatic features in the Korean requests, so the study focuses on the interlanguage features of these learners. 150 female university students take part in the study. Korean data are collected from 50 Korean native speakers, native English data are collected from 50 American English native speakers and the non- native data are collected from 50 female American English native speakers who are KFL learners. To collect data, written questionnaire in the form of the DCT is used in the study. In this DCT, six possible combinations with changing power and distance and two situations for each combination are prepared, so totally twelve situations are used in the study. The Korean data is analyzed and as a framework, 17 Request supportive move (RSM) semantic formulae and 5 request head act (RHA) semantic formulae are developed by the researcher. The responses of the subjects are coded in accordance with them. Then the comparisons of the KFL learners' data and Korean native speakers' data are

made to see the difference. In addition, to see any indications of L1 transfer in the KFL learner data, the American English native speaker data is consulted.

Compared to the native speakers, advanced level learners appear to be more sensitive to the use of politeness strategies while requesting and the learners generally produce longer requests than the native speakers according to the results of the study. In addition, there are the signs of L1 transfer in the study because the semantic formulae usage patterns of the KFL learners are very similar to the semantic formulae usage patterns of the American native speakers. Besides, it is found that while KFL learners prefer grounder appearing before request G+R, Korean native speaker prefer grounder appearing after request R+G formula. In addition to these, the study shows that apology and self-introduction are used a lot by Korean native speakers. However, American native speakers and the KFL learners do not use them much as a result of cultural difference. Moreover, the results reveal that both groups are affected by the social variables, power and distance in the use of RSM and RHA. However, native speakers of Korean use more variation in the degrees and formulae compared to the KFL learners.

Another study done by Felix-Brasdefer (2005) chooses Mexican Spanish language as the focus to search the relationship between indirectness and politeness in the requests among the native speakers of Mexican Spanish in formal and informal situations. To reach this aim ten native speakers of Mexican Spanish who are university students participate in the study. To collect data open- ended role play is used as the instrument. All subjects participate in ten role play situations that include five experimental and five distracter items. Two native speakers of Spanish contribute in the role play activities. One of them participates in formal situations and the other one acts in the informal situations. Head acts are examined according to three degrees of directness, direct, conventionally indirect and non-conventionally indirect. In addition, external modification strategies are also taken into consideration during the analysis. Two statistical analyses are done in the study, repeated measures analysis of variance and paired samples *t*-tests.

The study shows that the less distant the relationship between the interlocutors, the more likely it is for these Mexican students to make a direct

request. The directness level especially increases when the power is low and the distance is high. In the same way query preparatory appears to be the favorite strategy type when the power and the distance are high. Besides, it is found that hints are the least preferred strategy type in the requests. In addition, the preparators and disarmers are not used a lot while the grounders are the most preferred means of external modification in the study.

The study by Barron (2006) takes the case of regional variation and focuses on another rarely studied language, Irish English. It compares it with English English and so appears to be an intralingual study in the literature. It investigates the realization of requests by native speakers of English in Ireland and England. The study focuses on the directness level of the requests as well as the internal and external modification strategies found in Irish English and English English requests. The data is collected from 27 Irish and 27 English students. Nine situations are given to the participants in a production questionnaire which includes both standard and non standard situations. In this study standard situations are considered to be the ones which require a high obligation to comply with a request and a relatively low degree of difficulty in performing the request. The opposite features are accompanied with the standard situations.

In both the Irish and English requests, the most frequently used strategy appears to be the query preparatory strategy. As to internal modification, the results show that the Irish participants use more syntactic downgraders in non standard situations, so they produce more indirect requests compared to the English English participants in the study. Besides, as to external modification it is found that the grounder is the most used type of external mitigator by Irish English and English English native speakers in the situations. Overall as to the usages of internal and external modification the results show that while Irish speakers modify their requests mostly internally, the English native speaker mostly mitigate their requests with external modification strategies.

Lastly, Economidou-Kogetsidis (2008) studies with Greek non-native speakers of English and British English native speakers. Her study also appears to be interesting in the literature due to including subjects from Greece and underlining the

issues related to situational variation. To what extent the learners' use of internal and external modifiers differs from the British English native speakers is the main aim of her study. Besides the effects of the social variables of power and distance on the use of internal and external modifiers in three power- asymmetrical social situations are underlined in the study. A total of 192 subjects take part. They are 100 Greek learners of English and 92 British English native speakers. As the instrument DCT is used and semi structured interviews are conducted.

As to the use of internal and external modification, the results of the study show that there are some deviations in learners' use of internal and external modification. Regarding the internal modifiers, the learners are found to underuse politeness marker, please, consultative devices and they employ more zero markings compared to the native speakers. Regarding the external modifiers, the Greek learners of English employ more modifiers than the British English native speakers. Especially the disarmers and preparators are used a lot. On the other hand, they underuse apologies. From a sociopragmatic point of view these differences between the Greek learners of English and the British native speakers are attributed to the positive politeness tendency in the Greek culture and negative politeness tendency in the British culture.

2.6. A Review of Turkish Studies on Request Strategies

Regarding the requests, as well as the researches reviewed above, there are also some other studies conducted in Turkey. These studies mostly appear to be the master's or doctoral dissertations and they touch on different aspects of requests by employing different subjects and instruments at different times. A close inspect of these studies show that the researchers mainly consider the *production* and the *recognition* of the requests as the starting points of their studies and some others include both of these aspects to explore different features of requests. Thus, in this

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section, the studies will be reviewed as the ones focusing on production and the others focusing on recognition, or both recognition and production.

The following two studies by Huls (1988) and Marti (2006) are the first two examples to be reviewed here as for the studies focusing on the production of the speakers. Besides, these two studies are important for focusing on the Turkish speakers who live or stayed abroad.

To begin with, Huls (1988) conducts a study which does not concern with the EFL learners although most of the studies in the literature do so. She focuses on the usage of directives in Turkish migrant families residing in the Netherlands and mainly she has the aim of testing the claims of Brown and Levinson (1987) about their universal theoretical framework. To serve for this aim, in this study, two families that represent two very different sociological types are chosen. While one of these families is very traditional and conservative, the other family is less traditional and more open. To collect data from these families, their daily verbal interactions are tape recorded. Following that, a questionnaire is given to 21 mothers from Turkish families in Netherlands. This questionnaire consists of three parts. In the first part, the subjects are asked to rate the politeness of requests given to them by a five point scale. In the second part, they do the same rating for the addressee/ situation categories in the questionnaire and in the last part the subjects are asked to think of an addressee/situation category and list the formulations that they would use towards each addressee/situation category.

The results of this study have a contradiction with Brown and Levinson's theory of universality. Since contrary to what is expected, in this study, bald on record appears to be the favorite strategy and positive and negative politeness strategies are used rarely by the family members. This result is a bit puzzling because the subjects are expected to take into consideration the power and distance factors and use different strategies in accordance with them. However, efficiency and intimacy factors seem to overrule politeness considerations in the families because subjects use only a small range of language strategies. They mostly use bald on record strategies.

Another study focusing on the production and migrant families is conducted by Marti (2006). In this study, the relationship between indirectness and politeness is chosen as the starting point by the researcher and the possibility that the pragmatic transfer from German may affect the pragmatic performance of Turkish-German bilingual returnees is investigated. Besides, the directness levels of the Turkish speakers are compared with directness levels of speakers from other cultures in the CCSARP to have an idea about how direct the Turkish speakers while requesting. For this aim, in this study, 199 participants take part. 107 of these subjects are Turkish- German bilingual returnees from the German Language Teaching Department and 92 of them are Turkish students from the Turkish Language and Literature Department. Firstly, a discourse completion test, DCT including ten different situations to elicit requests is administered to these subjects. Then to be able to see how politeness is perceived by these subjects and what the relationship is between indirectness and politeness, a politeness rating questionnaire is used in the study.

The results of the study reveal that the most indirect strategies such as mood derivables are rated as the most impolite strategies as expected. However, the most indirect strategies, strong and mild hints are sometimes rated as less polite than other more direct strategies despite the opposite of that is expected. These results indicate that there is no linear relation between indirectness and politeness. Besides, a cross cultural comparison with the languages in the CCSARP shows that Turkish speakers employ high level of directness while requesting for example as Spanish and Hebrew speakers do and they are more direct than the German speakers in the CCSARP project. However, despite this high directness level in requests, there is not a significant difference between the overall directness level of the Turkish monolinguals and Turkish- German bilingual returnees in their requestive acts. Besides, the results show that there are not traces of transfer in the requests of Turkish- German bilingual returnees from German except for two situations in which they prefer more indirect strategies compared to the Turkish monolinguals.

Apart from the studies reviewed above, there are also studies of the following researchers done on production of request strategies .These are the studies conducted

by researchers, Mızıkacı (1991), Otçu (2000), Otçu and Zeyrek(2008) respectively. As well as being the examples of the production studies, these studies will be reviewed here also for the fact that they emphasize and investigate some different aspects of requests that have not been touched on before as detailed as they do. For instance, Mızıkacı (1991) underlines the *transfer* aspect in a detailed way while Otçu and Zeyrek (2008) give emphasis to the *development* aspect of the requests. Besides, the study of Otçu (2000) is essential here to be reviewed because it uses the role play and the judgments of the native speaker as the instruments although they have been used rarely up to that time by Turkish researchers.

In her study, Mızıkacı (1991) has an attempt to figure out the differences between Turkish and English Speech act patterns, in particular requests and apologies and find the effects of Turkish as L1 on Turkish speakers' performance in English. 21 upper intermediate university students studying English as a foreign language at Gazi University participate in the study. Apart from these subjects, three native speakers of English also take part in the data collection process to provide baseline data. DCT including sixteen socially differentiated situations are given to the subjects. Eight of these situations are prepared to elicit requests and the other eight situations to elicit apologies. In the study, the concern is to determine the patterns used while addressing superiors and inferiors, so four of the eight request situations are prepared to be used from superior to the inferior and the other four request situations are prepared to be used from inferior to the superior. The same procedure is followed for the requests, as well. The Turkish and the English versions of the DCT are given to the Turkish and the English subjects to be responded in their native languages. Then for the L2 experimental data, the English version of the same DCT is given to the Turkish learners of English. The data is analyzed under three categories, pre- adjunct, head act, and post adjunct.

The results of the study show that both in Turkish and English data conventionally indirect strategies are preferred mostly by the speakers. However, direct strategies are also used in both languages even if their frequency is not as high as the conventionally indirect strategies. In English, direct strategies like explicit performatives are used more compared to Turkish. Non-conventionally indirect

strategies are not used by the English native speakers, but Turkish native speakers use these strategies at a very low level. Apart from these points the negative transfer effects appear in the L2 experimental data. First, it is seen that Turkish speakers make long explanations before they request and they do the same thing in their English performance. In the same way, Turkish speaker apology a lot in their native language and they use exaggerated apology request patterns in English, as well. Moreover, just like they do in Turkish, the learner subjects use post adjuncts less than pre-adjuncts and use more openers in their English performances. As stated above, compared to English, Turkish allows for more non-conventionally indirect strategies and the L2 learners do the same thing in their English requests. Apart from the negative transfer effects, there are also the traces of positive transfer in the study. First of all, it is seen that in sequencing the request utterances both Turkish and English native speakers use the same set of units. Besides, because of the fact that conventionally indirect strategies are the favorite strategies of both Turkish and English native speakers, the learners do not have difficulty in using these strategies in their English performance.

While Mızıkacı (1999) emphasizes the effect of transfer in her study, Otçu and Zeyrek (2008) highlight the developmental aspects of requests. Their study compares the realization of request strategies of the low and high proficiency learners to each other and to the native English speakers to figure out the developmental features in the learners' requesting abilities. Four sets of data are collected for this study from four different groups of people. The first and second groups consist of 19 low intermediate and 31 upper intermediate students respectively. In the English native speaker group 13 subjects take part and in the Turkish native speaker group 50 subjects participate. The data from learner groups are collected using interactive role –play which requires the students to act out in three different situations and the English native speaker data are collected by means of a DCT including the same situations of the role-play. Six different aspects of the requests are studied in this research. They are alerters, external modification, internal modification, request head act realizations, modal verbs and main verbs in request head acts.

The results of this research reveal that learners are able to use the alerters in their requests and a combination of various alerter types is the most frequent one used by them. A pragmatic development is observed in the use of external modifiers. However, the upper intermediate level learners still have lexical and grammatical difficulties. As to internal modification, the learners show a development by using pragmalinguistically appropriate patterns. Besides, regarding the request head acts, in all of the four groups, conventionally indirect strategies are the favorite ones, so this finding suggests a positive transfer from Turkish as L1. Additionally, concerning the modals, it is found that while most of the subjects in both of the learner groups use *can* most frequently, native speakers prefer *could* mostly. However, compared to the low level students, the upper intermediate students use it less frequently, so this suggests a development in the usage of the modals. Lastly, as to the main verb usage in the RHAs, the picture appeared is considered to be an ambiguous one and they are expected to disappear at a more advanced levels.

Another example to be reviewed here for the production researches is the study conducted by Otçu (2000). In this study, the researcher has the attempt to figure out the interlanguage characteristics of the learners. Thus, as a first step, the requests of the learners are analyzed in terms of the units and the politeness strategies Then the judgments of the native speakers as to the learners' requests are asked for their appropriateness. 31 Turkish EFL learners participate in the study. They are involved in three role play activities and the data obtained from these subjects are given to seven native speakers as transcripts in which the utterances of the students are underlined in accordance with the coding scheme used for data analysis.

As a result of this evaluation process, the native speakers conclude that in general the students seemed to use positive politeness strategies for the requests which require creativity. However, in other parts, they prefer using the negative politeness strategies which are the most taught and practiced in the classrooms. Besides, the native speaker judgments show that Turkish EFL learners exhibit pragmatic failures in some parts of requests in English. For instance, while using address terms, some lexical components and adjuncts they commit failures. Besides,

regarding the perspective of politeness strategies, they are found to prefer on-record strategies more than off-record and bald on - record strategies.

As stated above, there are some researchers who prefer examining the *production* abilities of the participants and as the starting point they choose this component. However, there are also some other researchers who analyze *recognition* or both *recognition* and *production* abilities of the participants. All these studies add a lot to our understanding regarding the requests, so in the first part, the studies focusing on recognition abilities of the participants and then the ones underlining both recognition and production will be reviewed.

To begin with, İrman (1996) conducts a study related to recognition to figure out whether the Turkish EFL learners are successful in their preferences of English request strategies. The data is collected from 50 Turkish EFL lower advanced level learners. To have baseline data 13 native speakers of English take part in the study, as well. The subjects are provided with 10 request situations. Under each of these request situations, four options are given. Each of the options represents a type of politeness strategy like positive politeness, negative politeness, bald-on record and off-record. The participants are asked to mark each of them in accordance with their appropriateness to the situations. The English version of this questionnaire is given to the native speakers of English and to Turkish EFL lower advanced level learners. Besides, the same learner group is provided with the Turkish version of this questionnaire to check the transfer effect.

The results of the study show that Turkish EFL learners have almost no problems regarding the preferences for positive and negative politeness strategies. However, in their preferences of bald- on-record and off-record politeness strategies they cannot be very successful.

Another study on recognition is done by Bayrak (2006). He has an attempt to investigate whether there is a pragmatic development in the acquisition of indirectness in a second language. The tendency to prefer non-conventionally indirect structures by the Turkish learners of English is also questioned in his study. To explore these aspects, requests, rejects of the offers and invitations are used as the speech acts. Three groups participate in the study. The first group consists of 23 prep

class students studying at a super high school. The second group includes 23 foreign language classroom students who are at the second year of super high school education after prep class and in the last group there are 23 first year students of an ELT Teacher Education Department. To collect data for this study, a multiple choice discourse completion test is used. 20 situations are given in this test. 10 of these situations are prepared to specify requests, 5 to reject offers, and 5 to reject invitations. As to social variables, imposition is taken into consideration in the study. In all of the situations, the degree of imposition is high, which is expected to lead the subjects to choose non-conventional indirect answers. In the options for each situation given to the subjects in multiple choice discourse completion test, there are direct, conventionally indirect and non-conventionally indirect options. The non-conventional indirect answers are accepted as true and 1 point is given for each correct answer.

The results of the study show that regarding indirectness in requests there is not a certain systematic pragmatic development. Nevertheless, in rejecting offers and invitations there seems to be a partial development. As to the preferences of the patterns, it is found that while the learners prefer conventionally indirect patterns in requests, they choose non- conventionally indirect items in rejecting offers and invitations.

Apart from the studies done on recognition as mentioned above, there are also some other studies which touch on both recognition and production. The studies of Karatepe (2001) and Gülten-Zıngır(2008) are examples for such studies. Both of these studies examine the recognition and production skills of the learners.

Karatepe (2001) investigates to what extent Turkish EFL teacher trainees in Turkey approximate their native speaker counterparts in recognizing and producing indirect requests in the English language. The data is collected from 110 teacher trainees and 76 native speakers. As the instrument first, multiple choice questions are used. The teacher trainees are given multiple choice questions to figure out their ability to recognize some features of pragmalinguistics. The same multiple choice questions are also given to the native speakers to be able to compare the results of

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both subjects groups. Following the multiple choice questions, the participants are also given two situations to produce appropriate utterances.

The results of this study show that the participants are successful at recognizing the correct request forms when they are given in multiple choice forms. However, they cannot be successful when they are asked to create their own requests in accordance with the situations given to them. Although they approximate their native speaker counterparts by using the same kind of modalised forms, they cannot use them appropriately.

Just like Karatepe (2001) Gülten-Zıngır (2008) also examines the recognition and production skills of the subjects. However, Gülten Zıngır studies with children namely, 8th grade students while Karatepe studies with adults, teacher trainees. The data is collected from two main groups. The first group consists of 8th grade Turkish EFL students attending private schools in Bursa and the second group includes 20 native speakers of English at the same age. The first group is also divided into two sub groups as the participants who do not have any experience in an English speaking country and the ones who have some experience in an English speaking country. Moreover, some L1 data is colleted from 48 8th grade Turkish children from primary schools in Bursa. Two kinds of instruments are used in the study. These instruments are developed from Cartoon Oral Production Task (COPT) of Rose (2000).The situations are prepared by taking into consideration social power, so the situations are classified in three groups like requester with more power than requestee, requester and requestee with equal power and requester with less power than requestee. During the data collection process, first multiple choice discourse completion test (MCDCT) is given to the participants who do not have any experience in an English speaking country and to the ones who have some experience in an English speaking country. Then as the second instrument, written discourse completion test (WDCT) is also given to these groups. To collect baseline data, the same WDCT is given to the native English children, as well. Apart from these, as the last data collection step, the Turkish version of the WDCT is given to the 48 8th grade Turkish children.

The results of the study reveal that participants use a high percentage of direct strategies when the situations are given in multiple choice forms. When they are provided with WDCTs they invariably use conventionally indirect strategies. Besides, the study shows a little evidence that 8th grade Turkish EFL learners are sensitive to the situational variation and social power relations in the situations. However, familiarity is found to have some influence on participants' use of request strategies in the MCDCT but not in WDCT. In short, the results of this study show that in these two different instruments, the performances of the participants differ.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

In this part of the study, firstly, the participants of the study will be presented. Secondly, data collection methods used in cross-cultural pragmatics studies will be introduced and the data collection tools used in the current study will be elaborated. Lastly with the explanation of data analysis and the detailed description of the categories used in the analysis of the study, the chapter will be finished.

3.2. Participants of the Study

The subjects used in this study were university students and instructors teaching preparatory classes. There were two learner groups and two native speaker groups. The learner groups had been divided into two levels of English proficiency by the Middle East Technical University English Proficiency Exam (METU-EPE). The first learner group consisted of 19 beginner level subjects and the other learner group included 19 upper intermediate subjects. On the other hand, the first group of native speaker subjects comprised of 15 American native speakers attending Columbia University Teachers College and the second native speaker group consisted of 21 instructors teaching preparatory classes at Atılım University. The distribution of participants with regard to their numbers is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Distribution of Participants

Participants	Number of Participants
Beginner Level Subjects	19
Upper Intermediate Level Subjects	19
American Native Speakers (American NSs)	15
Turkish Native Speakers(Turkish NSs)	21

3.3. Data Collection Methods Used in Cross-Cultural Pragmatics Studies

In this section, as a background to the data collection procedures in the current study, data gathering methods frequently used in pragmatic studies will be reviewed. The importance of data gathering methods in a study is implied by Yuan (2001) by revealing out the relationship between the aim of the study and the data gathering method: "It is suggested that the choice of a data gathering method for a particular study should be made based on the research questions and objectives of the researcher" (Yuan, 2001, 271). This definition suggests that to be able to manage the aim of a study the research methods should be in accordance with these aims. Otherwise, the failure will be the unavoidable result.

Before stating the research instrument of the current study, the pros and cons of the most used data gathering methods will be reviewed and then the explanation for choosing situation assessment scale and open role plays for the present study will be taken up.

3.3.1.Authentic Data

Authentic data is the data "recorded by participant observers during natural interactions" (Eslamirasekh, 1993). It is the most underrepresented study in IL

pragmatics (Kasper, & Dahl, 1991). It is accepted by most of the researchers that data coming from the natural condition is the ideal source to serve for the aims of many research studies (Eslamirasekh, 1993; Wolfson, Marmor, Jones, 1989; Yuan 2001).

There are two ways to collect authentic, naturally occurring data. They differ from one another in terms of the type of observation they apply to. The first one of them is done via note taking technique. In this method the researchers just observe the speech act events around and take notes related to the point that is examined in the study. On the other hand, in the second method, naturally occurring interactions are audio or video recorded to be analyzed later. Both of these techniques are not faultless. Both have drawbacks. For instance the first technique is criticized for forcing the researchers during the transcription process. As Kasper and Dahl (1991) indicate this technique exceeds the capacity of the researchers' motor skills and their short term memory. Yuan (2001) explains such a difficulty that she came across as:

> …no matter how hard I tried to memorise what I had heard, when it came to writing, I always found it difficult to recall the exact wording of the verbal exchange that had just happened a minute before. I felt I was often affected by the frequent, prototypical utterances and as a result, may have recorded certain unconventional utterances such as inverted word orders in a conventional way.(p.287)

In the same way the second technique in naturally occurring data is criticized for being time consuming. Rintell and Mitchell (1989) indicate that the researchers have to record long stretches of talk if they implement this technique in their research studies.

However, when naturally occurring data is considered as a whole, it is highly regarded by most of the researchers in the area because of advantages it brings out. It is argued by Wolfson, Marmor, Jones (1989) that the data has to be collected ethnographically if the researcher wants to get a more complete understanding as to the range of linguistic strategies and the situations requiring the performance of a given speech act. In other words, they believe the capacity of the naturally occurring

data to provide a large amount of pragmatic structure for the research studies. Apart from that such kind of data is also valued because of its advantage of being "authentic" and "close to life" (Yuan, 2001, 274).

Despite these positive qualities of naturally occurring data, it also poses some drawbacks that decrease its popularity among the researchers. First of all, it is clear that while collecting naturally occurring data the researchers lack the control over the variables, so there is always the risk that the point that they scrutinize in their study may not come out in the course of interaction. As a result, they may have to spend a great deal of time while waiting the related point they study to emerge in the conversations (Rintell and Mitchell, 1989). As another drawback Kasper and Dahl (1991) reveal that such kind of data lacks the comparability characteristic because comparative data is difficult to be acquired from it.

3.3.2. Elicited data:

It is clear that compared to the authentic data, elicited data lacks the quality of being natural. However, because of the fact that it can be easily organized to serve for the aim of the research studies and as a result for being more controlled, they are being preferred by the researchers a lot.

3.3.2.1. Role plays:

In role play activities the participants are asked to take a particular role and they act out in a way to produce the speech act under study (Sasaki, 1998). In this process, to elicit data, many different participants may take part like the puppets, the learners interacting with other learners or learners interacting with the researcher (Ellis, 2001). As an instrument, the role play is used while collecting data for

pragmatic studies as well as in language testing and they are divided into two categories in accordance with the freedom given to the participants to control the conversation (Sasaki, 1998). They are open role plays and closed role plays. As the names of these methods imply while in the open role plays more freedom is provided for the participants, in the closed role plays the freedom is constrained by the researcher (Sasaki, 1998).

Compared to the authentic conversation, role plays have the advantage over the previous one in that they are replicable and give the researchers the opportunity to choose the situations that they want to study, so the context is under the control of the researchers. Second compared to the DCTs the role plays give the opportunity of collecting much richer data source and they represent oral production (Kasper, Dahl, 1991). Third, they can be considered as being the more representative way of the real life compared to other unspoken data gathering instruments because as Rintell and Mitchell (1989) indicate they give the opportunity to say what and as much as the subjects would like to say just like it happens in real life situations and as a result the data elicited through role plays appears to be the "natural" way of speaking. However, there are some drawbacks related to this issue. The matter of how representative the data gathered through role-plays are of the authentic speech is in fact a highly debated topic. The fact that the participants are role-playing and they are not naturalistically engaged in the interactions brings out the questions about the extent of role plays' being representative of real life. Moreover, it is said that they may create an environment as if the subjects were having an exam, and thus the responses of the participants may be different from the ones that they would say if they encountered the same situation in the real life (Rintell and Mitchell, 1989). Besides, they are time consuming and this pose problems in transcription process of data gathering (Sasaki, 1998). To have an idea as to the difficulty of transcribing Kasper and Dahl (1991, 20) give the following example: " …our own experience and that of a number of expert transcribers we have consulted suggest that transcribing one hour of a reasonably audible tape in ordinary orthography and including temporal variables takes about ten hours." Apart from the drawbacks appear in the transcription step the coding process can also be problematic in the role play data.

Coding role play data is not as easy as the coding of tightly controlled tasks because determination of illocutionary force or precise function of conversational markers can be ambiguous (Kasper, Dahl, 1991).

3.3.2.2. Written Questionnaires:

There are three types of written questionnaires: rating scales, multiple choice questionnaires and Discourse Completion Tests which is a kind of production questionnaire. Just like the data gathering methods reviewed above these instruments also provide the researchers with different responses to be analyzed.

3.3.2.2.1. Rating Scales:

Rating scales are used to get metapragmatic assessment from the participant and they assist to gain mainly two types of assessment data. They are used to assess the contextual factors which are believed to affect the people's perception of a speech event. Besides, they are also employed to assess the linguistic realization modes. For example the linguistic structures can be assessed in terms of their directness, politeness and their appropriateness in a given context. They can be used in the research studies to collect the primary data or they may have a subsidiary function to collect supplementary data (Kasper, Dahl, 1991).

3.3.2.2.2. Multiple Choice Questionnaires:

Multiple choice questionnaire is a kind of data gathering method which specifies the situational context together with a prompt for an answer to be chosen and several response alternatives are given to choose one (Kasper, Rose,2002). Mainly three types of this data gathering method are specified by Kasper and Rose. They are multiple choice for pragmatic production, multiple choice item for testing pragmatic comprehension and multiple choice for speech act identification. This data gathering method is welcomed by the researcher and it is preferred a lot first of all because of

the ease it creates while collecting data. With the help of this method a large sample of data can be collected and assessed by the researchers in a very short time. Besides, its versatile format makes it an attractive choice for the researchers to be used in accordance with different aims of their studies. However, it is also an undeniable fact that this data gathering method constrained the data to the predetermined options prepared by the researchers. Thus it cannot be considered as a rich data source.

3.3.2.2.3. Discourse Completion Tests (DCTs):

A DCT item typically consists of a prompt that explains the situation and it is followed by a short dialogue. Subjects are asked to fill in the part given to them with a response which they think is the most suitable for the context given to them (Kasper, Dahl, 1991). This specified context is constrained to be able to elicit the specific communicative act (Kasper, Rose, 2002). There are mainly two types of DCTs. In the classic version the subjects are provided with the response of the hearer. However, in the open version the subjects are not provided with the response of the hearer.

There are obvious advantages in using DCTs and maybe this is the reason why they are the most widely used data collection method in cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics research studies. The most important reason related to the popularity of this method among the researchers is that it allows the elicitation of data from a large group of subjects easily and it gives the chance of controlling the variables that are important for the study (Rintell, Mitchell 1989). On the other hand, the validity of this method is questioned because of the reason that the response is produced in a test like rather than real life situation (Sasaki, 1998). Other potential problems are that the space provided to write the response of the subjects constraint the length of the response, so the subjects cannot produce as rich data as they do in their normal lives. Moreover, there is the possibility that the subjects conceive writing task as something more formal compared to the speaking and they may prefer more formal forms.

3.4. Data Collection Tools Used in the Current Study

It is suggested by Yuan (2001) that the choice of the data gathering method is a very important step in the research studies because the method is the thing which helps the researcher to answer the research questions in the study. Thus, if an inconvenient data collection tool is chosen, no matter how hard it is tried, an effective study cannot be managed. As Kasper and Dahl (1991) indicate the validity of the data collection tool relative to the research question under study is an important issue.

Considering this fact and the aim of the present study, time was expended on the choice of effective data collection tool. Regarding the aim of the study, the tool which can provide the most realistic data is considered to be the best one. As a result, naturally occurring data seemed to be the best choice. However, the fact that it does not give the chance to control the data owing to its nature caused the elimination of this choice. Then open role plays which require interactions that are close to the real life situations were decided on as the main tool of the present study. It is believed

that this oral tool which stands as being more representative of the real life compared to the other tools mentioned above will be the best choice to be able to realize the aim of the study.

Kasper and Dahl (1991) divide the tools for data collection into two parts: the first one is the tool which is used to collect the primary data and the other one used to develop the instrument for the primary data collection. In this study, as mentioned above to collect the primary data open role play was used and to ensure the effectiveness of this tool, as the subsidiary tool, situation assessment scale was employed in the present study. The aim of this tool was ensuring the standardization. The role play situations are prepared in a way that they differ from one another in terms of the changing social variables namely, power, distance and imposition. The situation assessment scale as the subsidiary tool in the study gave the opportunity to find out whether the same social situation was perceived and rated similarly by the Turkish and American subjects in terms of the degree of power, distance and imposition. In that way, the standardization was managed and the situations presented in the role plays appeared to be serving for the aim of the study both in Turkish and American groups.

In summary, two data collection tools were chosen to be utilized in the present study: open role play and situation assessment scale. In the following part, these instruments will be reviewed in a more elaborated way and the data collection processes will be explained.

3.4.1. Situation Assessment Scale

In the present study, situation assessment scale was used as the subsidiary tool to develop the instrument, more specifically role plays for the main data collection process (See Appendix A, B). The goal of the situational assessment questionnaire was to figure out whether two different cultural groups, more specifically Turkish and American Subjects perceived and rated the same social

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situations similarly in terms of the degree of power, distance and imposition. With this aim 15 American NSs and 21 Turkish NSs were provided with the description of the situations that were planning to be used in the role plays and they were asked to rate each of the variables (power, distance, imposition) on a scale of 7. For the analysis of the data gained by this situation assessment scale, an independent sample t- test was computed to compare the mean scores in relation to the variables of power, distance and imposition. As it can be seen in Table 2 the results showed that there was not a cross-cultural difference in the assessment of American and Turkish NSs. On account of this result, it was decided that the situations rated in relation to power, distance and imposition factors can be used in the role play activities.

Table 2. T-test results of the situation assessment scale.

	Familiarity	Power	Imposition
"Asking for a Book"	T: 2.67 A: 2.47 t(34)=0.411, p=0,684*	T: 6.48 A: 6.33 t(34)=0.605, p=0.549*	T: 4.48 A: 4.87 t(34)=-0.863, p=0,394*
"Asking for a Lift"	T: 5.14 A: 5.07 t(34)=0.199, p=0.843*	T: 5.24 A: 5.13 t(34)=0.238, p=0.813*	T: 6.19 A: 5.67 t(34)=1.455, p=0.155*
"Asking for Notes"	T: 6.48 A: 6.53 t(34)=-0.255, p=0.800*	T: 3.86 A: 3.93 t(33.8)=-0.141, p=0.889*	T: 2.38 A: 3.13 t(34)=-1.589, p=0.121*
"Asking for Menu"	T: 1.29 A: 1.27 t(34)=0.071,p=0.944*	T: 1.71 A: 2.33 t(34)=-1.899,p=0.066*	T: 1.67 A: 1.67 t(34)=0,p=1.000*
"Ordering"	T: 1.29 A: 1.27 t(34)=0.071,p=0.944*	T: 1.71 A: 2.33 t(34)=-1.899,p=0.066*	T: 1.81 A: 1.87 t(34)=-0.167, p=0.869*

*p>0.05 (not significant); T= Turkish Native Speakers/Mean Scores; A= American Native Speakers/Mean Scores.

3.4.2. Role Plays

In the role plays, the subjects were provided with five different situations changing in terms of the degree of power and distance (See Appendix C, D). In the first situation, the subjects were to ask for the book of the professor who does not know them closely. In the second one, they were to ask for a lift from their professor who knows them closely. In the third one they were to ask for the class notes from their close friends. The fourth and the fifth situations were connected to each other. In the fourth situation, the subjects were to ask for the menu from the waiter and in the fifth situation they were to order food. The level of familiarity and the power relationship between the interlocutors in the situations is shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Distribution of situations in relation to power, distance weight.

Situations	Power, Distance Relationship
Asking for the book from a professor	+ Power, + Distance
Asking for a lift from a professor	+ Power, - Distance
Asking for notes from a close friend	- Power, - Distance
Asking for the menu from a waiter	- Power, + Distance
Ordering food	- Power, +Distance

During the role play performances, the researcher and the NS interlocutor were in the classroom while the other subjects were waiting outside. Then the subjects were called into the classroom one by one. The prompts for the role play acts were given to the subjects one at a time. After they were provided with the first prompt for the first situation; for instance, they were given time to read the prompt. When they were ready, they started acting. While they were role playing, the subjects

were videotaped by the researcher to transcribe the data later. The data collection process for the learner groups and the Turkish NSs were the same. While the data was collected in English from the learner groups, it was collected in Turkish from the Turkish NSs group.

While the data collection procedure stated above was used for the learners and Turkish NSs, the American NSs data collection procedure had to be a bit different. In the data collection process from the American NSs, the subjects had to switch the roles during their role play performances. First a subject took part in a role play activity as the professor for instance, and the other one as the student. Then they switched the roles and performed the same act again.

3.5. Data Analysis

Following the role play activities, the videotaped interactions of the subject groups were transcribed according to the CHAT manual (Mac Whinney 2000) (See Appendix F). The data was analyzed using the CCSARP coding manual designed by Blum- Kulka, House and Kasper (1989) although not all of its subcategories were found in the data. The scheme had the following three main categories which were elaborated with subcategories, explanations and examples in part 3.5.1 of this chapter:

1- Directness Level
2- Internal modification
3- External modification

An example for the analysis of request patterns in the study is given below:

a) I missed the last bus, I was wondering if you could give me a lift.

As this example illustrates, the request sequence may include conventionally indirect request, preparatory (*I was wondering if you could give me a lift*). Moreover, it may be optionally elaborated with external modifier, grounder (*I missed the last bus*), syntactic downgrader, conditional clause (*if you could give me a lift*), aspect (I was wonder*ing*), tense (I *was* wondering) or lexical and phrasal downgrader, subjectivizer (*I* was *wonder*ing).

In the study such categories were analyzed by taking into account the following steps:

The analyses were first done related to overall directness use. Then the same analyses were done by considering the directness level in situations and through the situations. Three directness levels namely, direct strategies, conventionally indirect strategies and non-conventionally indirect strategies were considered in the analysis.

Following that the two subcategories of internal modification, more specifically syntactic downgraders, lexical and phrasal downgraders were analyzed. During the analyses, as it was done for the directness use, the overall use and use in situations and through the situations were taken into account. The same process was also followed for the external modifiers. Apart from all these points, in accordance with the research questions, transfer factors were also touched on within the results.

In the end, all the instances of the directness strategies, syntactic downgraders, lexical and phrasal downgraders and lastly external modifiers in the participants' request sequences were counted and the results were converted to percentages. Besides, the percentages in the internal and external modification are normalized. Normalizing these values eases the perception and comparison among the results of different groups, where a predefined norm is not defined. The highest scores calculated, which corresponding to the American Native Speakers, are assumed to be the best possible result, thus the results of other categories are normalized using them. In other words, the normalized values correspond to the relative percentages of correctness compared to the American Native Speakers. In this study, the one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine the significance differences between the groups statistically. According to Post-Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test, it is assigned as there

is statistically significant difference at the p<.05 level in the usage of directness level, internal and external modification for the learners and the American native speakers. For detailed information see Appendix G.

3.5.1. Detailed Description of the Categories Used in the Analysis of the Study

The data was analyzed using the CCSARP coding manual designed by Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989) as mentioned above and in this part of the study, detailed information will be given about this framework.

3.5.1.1. Directness Level

Blum Kulka et al.'s classification of directness levels include mainly three levels of directness. They are direct strategies, conventionally indirect strategies and non-conventionally indirect strategies. Of these strategies, direct strategies include five subcategories (mood derivable, explicit performative, hedged performative, locution derivable, want statement), conventionally indirect strategies include two subcategories (suggestory formula, preparatory) and non-conventionally indirect strategies include two subcategories (strong hint, mild hint). The explanations and examples are shown in Table 4:

Table 4. List of Directness Strategy Types

Mood derivable: The grammatical mood of the locution conventionally determines its illocutionary force as a request. The prototypical form is the imperative.	*Leave me alone.* *Clean up the kitchen.* *The menu please.*
Explicit performative: The illocutionary intent is explicitly named by the speaker by using a relevant illocutionary verb.	*I am asking you to move your car.*
Hedged performative: The illocutionary verb denoting the requestive intent is modified.	*I must ask you to clean the kitchen right now.*
Locution derivable: The illocutionary intent is directly derivable from the semantic meaning of the locution.	*Madam you will have to move your car.*
Want statement: The utterance expresses the speaker's desire that event denoted in the proposition come about.	*I'd like to borrow your notes for a while.*
Suggestory formula: The illocutionary intent is phrased as a suggestion by means of a framing routine formula.	*How about cleaning the kitchen?*
Preparatory: The utterance contains reference to a preparatory condition for the feasibility of the request. Very often but not necessarily so, the speaker questions rather than states the presence of the chosen preparatory condition (query preparatory).	*Can I borrow your notes?* *I was wondering if you would give me a lift.*
Strong hint: The illocutionary intent is not immediately derivable from the locution.	*Will you be going home now?* *I was not at the lecture yesterday.*
Mild hint: The locution contains no elements which are of immediate relevance to the intended illocution or proposition.	*You have been busy here haven't you?* *I didn't expect the meeting to end this late.*

(Source:Blum- Kulka, House and Kasper 1989, p. 278, 279, 280)

3.5.1.2. Internal Modification

As suggested by Brown and Levinson (1987) requests are face threatening acts and they require some ways to mitigate and reduce their imposition effect. Deciding on a particular directness level is a compulsory choice in performing requests. In addition to these, there are also optional ways to manipulate the degree of imposition. In accordance with this issue, as well as Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989) classification of requests regarding directness levels, requests were also examined according to internal and external modification strategies (Faerch & Kasper 1989).

These modifiers are used to decrease the face threatening effects of the requests and they mainly have two subcategories as *syntactic downgraders*, *lexical and phrasal downgraders*.

3.5.1.2.1. Syntactic Downgraders

As the other ways used to soften the imposition of the requests, the use of syntactic downgraders also reduces the impact of the request on the addressee by providing some freedom to the hearer. As Blum Kulka et al.'s (1989) indicate, they realize this effect by means of syntactic choices used in the structural properties of the utterances. The explanations and examples for syntactic downgraders are shown in Table 5:

Table 5. List of Syntactic Downgrader Types.

Interrogative: As questions, they are option with only a clear mitigating function.	Nehmen Sie mich mit? Vous m' amenez?
Negation: Preparatory conditions are here in the usual way. The two most common conditions on request compliance are that the addressee can comply and that he or she is willing to carry out the requested act.	You *couldn't* give me a lift, could you? *Shouldn't* you perhaps tidy up the kitchen?
Subjunctive: Only optional subjunctive forms are coded as downgraders.	Might be better if you *were to leave* now.
Conditional: It has to be replaceable by an indicative form.	I would suggest you to leave now
Aspect: The durative aspect marker counts as mitigating only if it can be substituted by a simple form.	I am wonder*ing* if I could get a lift home with you.
Tense: Past tense are coded as downgrading only if they are used with present time reference.	I *was* wondering whether you could give your presentation in a week's time.
Conditional clause:	It would fit in much better if you could give your paper a week earlier.

(Source:Blum- Kulka, House and Kasper 1989, p. 281, 282, 283)

3.5.1.2.2. Lexical and Phrasal Downgraders

As well as the syntactic downgraders, under the title of internal modification there are also lexical and phrasal downgraders. As Blum Kulka et al.'s (1989) indicate these are the ways which serve as optional additions to diminish the force of the requests. The explanations and examples for lexical and phrasal downgraders are shown in Table 6:

Table 6. List of Lexical and Phrasal Downgrader Types.

Politeness marker: An optional element added to a request to bid for cooperative behaviour.	Clean the kitchen, *please*
Understater: Adverbial modifiers by means of which the speaker underrepresents the state of affairs. denoted in the preposition.	Could you tidy up *a bit*?
Hedge: Adverbials used by a speaker when he or she wishes to avoid a precise propositional specification to avoid the potential provocation of such precision.	It would fit much better *somehow* if you did your paper next week.
Subjectivizer: Elements in which the speaker explicitly expresses his or her subjective opinion vis-a vis the state of affairs referred to in the proposition, thus lowering the assertive force of his request.	*I wonder* if you give me a lift *I think* you are going my way.
Downtoner: Sentential or propositional modifiers which are used by a speaker to modulate the impact his or her request is likely to have on the hearer.	Could you *possibly/ perhaps* lend me your notes?
Cajoler: Conventionalized speech items whose semantic content is of little transparent relevance to their discourse meaning.	*You know* I'd really like you to present your paper next week.
Appealer: Elements used by a speaker whenever he or she wishes to appeal to his or her hearer's benevolent understanding.	Clean up the kitchen dear, *will you*? We are going in the same direction, *aren't we?*

(Source: Blum- Kulka, House and Kasper 1989, p. 283, 284,285)

3.5.1.3. External Modification

As Brown and Levinson (1987) indicate to be able to have successful communication face must be saved. In the case of requests as mentioned before this can be managed via indirectness, internal and external modification. External modifiers include the supportive moves which can precede or follow the requests to mitigate the illocutionary force of the requests. The explanations and examples for external modifiers are shown in Table 7:

Table 7. List of External Modifier Types.

Preparator: The speaker prepares his or her hearer for the ensuing request by announcing that he or she will make a request by asking about the potential availability of the hearer for carrying out the request, or by asking for the hearer's permission to make the request.	*I'd like to ask you something.* *Don't you live on the same street as me?* *May I ask you a question?*
Getting a precommitment: In checking on a potential refusal before making his or her request.	*Could you do me a favor?*
Grounder: The speaker gives reasons, explanations, or justifications for his or her request.	*Judith, I missed the class yesterday. Could I borrow your notes?*
Disarmer: The speaker tries to remove any potential objections the hearer might raise upon being confronted with the request. I know you don't lie lending out your notes.	*I know you don't like lending out your notes,* but could you make an exception this time?
Promise of reward: To increase the likelihood of the hearer's compliance with the speaker's request, a reward due on fulfillment of the request is announced.	Could you give me a lift home? *I will pitch in on some gas.*
Imposition minimizer: The speaker tries to reduce the imposition placed on the hearer by his request.	Would you give me a lift, *but only if you are going my way?*

(Source:Blum- Kulka, House and Kasper 1989, p. 287, 288)

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the findings of the current research related to the directness of the request strategies, internal modification and external modification will be introduced and discussed. In accordance with the research questions, each of these topics will be dwelled on by an emphasis on the overall use, situational use and the development through the situations. Besides, with the issues on the transfer, the findings will be elaborated more.

4.2. Directness Use

As it was mentioned in the previous chapter, there are a lot of ways to manipulate the imposition that the requests create. In this part of the study, one of these ways namely, directness use will be on the focus. First of all, the findings on directness levels will be taken up in the overall and situational senses and then the development through the situations will be taken up.

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4.2.1. Overall Directness Level Use

The results related to overall use of directness of the request strategies without an emphasis on situational variation will be presented and discussed here. Mainly, uses of three directness levels namely, *direct request strategies, conventionally indirect request strategies* and *non-conventionally indirect request strategies* and the *micro-strategies* of these main categories will be considered, respectively. To ease the presentation of the results two tables (One for the main directness levels and one for their micro-strategies) will be used. Within each of the directness level, the results will be presented and the discussions on the noticeable points in these results will be underlined. Besides, in accordance with the research questions, the development and the transfer effects will be on the foreground of the discussions.

Direct strategies include the forms that express requestive force (Blum-Kulka, House, Kasper, 1989). In the present study, these direct strategies were used by the groups in different percentages. As it can be seen in Table 8, the results show that the percentage use of direct strategies falls from 39.0% (Turkish NSs) to 36.8% (Beginner) to 25.3% (Upper) and the difference among the groups is statistically significant [$F(3,70)=6.5$, p= .001]. The American NSs percentage is 17.3%. Within these results, the percentage use of this strategy by American NSs seems to be the least in all of the groups. On the other hand, these direct strategies are highly preferred by the beginner level learners. When the percentage use of direct strategies in the American NSs group is compared with the percentage use of beginner group, the difference can be seen and the statistical results showed that this difference is statistically significant (p<.05).

Table 8. Percentages for overall directness level use.

Groups	Direct	Con. Indirect	Non-Con. Indirect	Total %
Beginner	36.8	55.8	7.4	100
Upper Int.	25.3	73.7	1.1	100
Turkish NSs	39.0	52.4	8.6	100
American NSs	17.3	62.7	20.0	100

Table 9. Percentages for the use of micro-strategies in the main directness categories.

	Direct					Con. Indirect		Non-Con. Indirect		
Groups	Mood Der.	Exp. Per.	Hed. Per.	Loc. Der.	Want St.	Sug. For.	Prep.	St. Hint	Mid. Hint	Total %
Beginner	8.4	0	0	0	28.4	1.1	54.7	6.3	1.1	100
Upper Int.	5.3	1.1	0	0	18.9	0	73.7	1.1	0	100
Turkish NSs	9.5	0.9	10.5	0	18.1	2.9	49.5	8.6	0	100
American NSs	1.3	0	0	1.3	14.7	0	62.7	20	0	100

This tendency of the beginner level learners to use highly direct request strategies may be partly attributed to the noticeable high usage of direct strategies in Turkish NSs group. When the results of directness usage of Turkish subjects are compared with the directness usage of the American NSs group, it is seen that there is a difference and the statistical results showed that this difference is statistically significant (p<.05). Thus, compared to American English, Turkish seems to be a more direct language. This situation suggests that there may be an element of

negative L1 transfer in the beginner level learners' highly direct requests. Besides, as it can be seen in Table 9, if the high percentage of want statement by the beginner group and the Turkish NSs is considered, it may be suggested that the direct strategy transfer from Turkish in the beginner group is especially effective at the level of want statement.

In addition to that, another possible cause of the high use of direct strategies in the beginner group may be the lack of linguistic means of these low level learners to convey the desired level of politeness. Because of that reason, these beginner level learners might have relied on the simpler direct structures during the role play performances.

This is the case for the adult learners in the present study. However, a similar comment was also made by Achiba (2003) who conducted a research study with the help of her daughter as a child second language learner. She also suggested that the reason of the direct strategies used by her daughter at the beginning of their stay at the target language environment may be attributed to the deficiency of her daughter in terms of linguistic means to realize the request patterns in the target language. Although a deeper analysis and further researches are necessary, the existence of similar findings sets implies that adult learners follow a similar process going from direct to indirect just like child second language learners do as a consequence of not having enough linguistic means to realize more indirect request strategies.

As well as this child second language study, some other studies of the researchers like Hill (1997), Rose (2000), and Hassal (2003) bring out the same point about the low level adult learners' high use of direct strategies. In these studies, just like the present study, the low level groups have the tendency to use a significant number of direct strategies and as the reason of this high directness, the same probable reason, linguistic deficiency is suggested by these researchers. The fact that these studies focus on different languages and find the same result like the present study increases the possibility of low level language proficiency as the strong reason of high direct use in the beginner level learners. Examples from the beginner group's use of direct request strategies are given below:

1) *I want you to give me your useful book* (asking for the book of the professor)

2) *I want you to bring me to my home* (asking for a lift from a professor)

3) *I want to take your note.* (asking for notes from a friend)

4) *I want the menu please* (asking for the menu at the restaurant)

5) *I want a hamburger* (ordering food)

Similar to the results of beginner level group, when the results of the upper intermediate group regarding the usage of directness strategies are examined, the percentage of the direct strategies seems to be high. However, the Post-Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test showed that the difference between the direct strategies usage of upper intermediate and American NSs group is not significant ($p>.05$). This means that there is a development in the use of direct strategies of the upper intermediate group in the direction of the American NS norm. When the micro level patterns are scrutinized, this development patterns is especially noticeable at the level of want statement. As shown in Table 9, while the percentage use of want statement of the beginner group is 28.4%, this percentage is decreased to 18.9% in the upper intermediate data. Thus, compared to the beginner level subjects, upper intermediate group seems to be doing better as to the use of the directness strategies with a closer approach to the American NSs want statement usage of 14.7%. The following examples are from the upper intermediate group:

6) *I want to the book I need.* (asking for the book of the professor)

7) *I want to borrow your notes.* (asking for notes from a friend)

8) *I want the menu now.* (asking for the menu at the restaurant)

9) *I will take a hamburger.* (ordering food)

In addition to the direct strategies, the level of *conventionally indirect strategies* is another concern of the present study. Conventionally indirect strategies are indirect formulas that are conventionalized in the languages as requests (Blum-Kulka, House, Kasper, 1989). In most of the studies in the literature conventionally indirect strategies have been the most frequently used strategies of the requests and in this study the situation is not different. As can be seen in the Table 8, the percentage uses of conventionally indirect strategies are high in all of the four

groups. The percentage distribution of the conventionally indirect strategies in the groups of beginner, upper intermediate and American NSs is as follows 55.8%, 73.7%, and 62.7%, respectively. The one-way among groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine the significance of the usage of conventionally indirect strategies statistically. There is a statistically significant difference at the $p<.05$ level among the groups in the usage of conventionally indirect use$[F(3,70)=4.8, p= .011]$. The percentages are very close to each other and the Post-Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test revealed that there is not a significant difference between the American NSs' and the learner groups' percentage use of conventionally indirect strategies ($p>.05$).

As can be inferred from the results regarding conventionally indirect strategies, for American NSs, these strategies are very important. Since compared to direct strategies (17.3%), conventionally indirect strategies (62.7%) are used more by this group as it can be seen in Table 8. The learner groups seem to be aware of this tendency of the American NSs, regarding the frequent use of conventionally indirect strategies because the percentages of conventionally indirect strategies of the learner groups are very close to the one of the American NSs. This awareness of the learners and their effort to put into effect this awareness in their requests by using a high percentage of conventionally indirect strategies like American NSs can be considered as learning. The following examples are from the learner data:

Beginner level

   11) *Can I take this book?* (asking for the book of the professor)

   12) *Can you take me to my home?* (asking for a lift from a professor)

Upper Intermediate

   13) *Could you give me previous lesson's notes?* (asking for notes from a friend)

   14) *Could you bring me a menu?* (asking for the menu at the restaurant)

   15) *Can I take for start soup?* (ordering food)

Related to conventionally indirect strategies when the micro strategies are analyzed, as it can be seen in Table 9, preparatory strategy especially in the form of question appears to be the most frequently used sub- strategy. The percentage

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distribution of the preparatory in the groups of beginner, upper intermediate and American NSs is as follows 54.7%, 73.7%, and 62.7%, respectively. Within the results, the higher percentage use of this sub-strategy by upper intermediate learner group compared to the percentage use of it by American NSs is very noticeable. One possible reason for this learner group's exaggerated use of preparatory, especially in the form of question may be the nature of the input they are presented in their English lessons. Most of the course books present requests with Can you…? / Could you…..? May I…..? sort of patterns, and as a result they become the favorite strategy of the learner groups. On the other hand, the other conventionally indirect sub-strategy, suggestory formula was not preferred or rarely used by the groups. While upper intermediate and American NSs did not use this formula in their request patterns, the percentage use of suggestory formula is 1.1 % in the beginner level learners as it can be seen in Table 9.

In addition to the direct strategies and conventionally indirect strategies, the use of *non-conventionally indirect strategies* is also a concern of the current study. Non- conventionally indirect strategies are the forms that are not conventionalized in the languages as request patterns, so they require inference by the hearer to be able make out the intent of the speaker. They consist of hints as strong and mild ones. Compared to the other request strategies, such request strategies require a difficult process. Weizman (1989) points out this challenging process as follows:

> The interpretation of indirect meanings may require of the hearer an elaborate process, the major components of which are: computing an utterance meaning; detecting, in the context or in the co-text, some reason to believe that it diverges from the speaker's meaning; computing an alternative utterance meaning; and, if so, assigning the alternative speaker's meaning to the utterance. (p. 74)

Most probably as a result of this challenging nature of non-conventionally indirect strategies, they are not preferred much in languages. In the CCSARP which is the most comprehensive research study in the literature, the use of hint in Australian English, Canadian French, German, Hebrew, and Argentinian Spanish

was examined by Blum-Kulka and House (1989) and it was found that in all of these languages, the proportion of hints was lower compared to the other request strategies used by the subjects. The similar result is also found in the present study. The percentage uses of non- conventionally indirect strategies are the least in all request strategies. As it can be seen in Table 8, the percentage distribution of the non-conventionally indirect strategies in the groups of beginner, upper intermediate and American NSs is as follows 7.36%, 1.05%, and 20%, respectively. The statistical results showed that there is statistically significant difference among the groups [$F(3,70)=4.8$, $p= .011$] and within these results, the big difference between American NSs' percentage use and the learner groups' percentage use can be seen. The Post-Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test revealed that this difference is statistically significant ($p<.05$). What is more, the development is not the case within the learner groups because the percentage use of non-conventionally indirect strategies is less in the upper intermediate group compared to the beginner group. There is a regressive movement. Examples of the learners' non-conventionally indirect request strategy use are presented below:

Beginner level

    17) *I need some meal what do you have?* (asking for the menu at the restaurant)

Upper Intermediate

    18) *I am here for 15 minutes I could not take the menu.* (asking for the menu at the restaurant)

      As the reason of this failure in the learner groups, the learners' tendency to choose *clarity* over indirectness may be suggested. They bring out this result by preferring the most indirect category, non-conventionally indirect strategies less compared to the other strategies. As Faerch and Kasper (1989) point out, learners sometimes may want to ensure that they are making themselves understood by employing clearer linguistic activities, with the awareness that they have a restricted competence in comparison to native speakers of the target language. In the present study the learner groups may have had the same concern and by preferring the more

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direct strategies compared to the non-conventionally indirect strategies including strong and mild hints, they may have wanted to ensure the clearness of their requests, so their intentions in the conversations. Moreover, less use of non-conventionally indirect strategies in the learner groups can also be attributed to the instructional effect in EFL classrooms. In these classrooms, the conventionalized request strategies are emphasized. However, the non- conventional ones are generally neglected. As a result, when the request is the issue in any situation, conventionally indirect ones come to the mind of the learners and they use them while ignoring the non-conventional ones. However, it should be noted that to be certain, retrospective interview needs to be conducted at this point.

Apart from the points mentioned above related to non-conventionally indirect strategy use, some results related to the micro-strategies of that third directness level appears to be noticeable. The difference between the percentage uses of hints in the beginner level and upper intermediate groups are very different from each other. As it can be seen in Table 9 the results show that the beginner level learners use non-conventionally indirect strategies at the level of 7.36% where as upper intermediate level learners use them at the level of 1.05%. Thus, there is a regressive move regarding the use of non- conventionally indirect strategy usage. The similar result was also found in the study of Trosborg (1995) and Hassal (2003). In these studies, lower level learners produced more hints compared to the higher level learners, just like it happens in the present study and at this point the following possibility was discussed by these researchers. The difficulty that the lower level learners confront in phrasing the requests appropriately was underlined and it was suggested that due to low proficiency of the low level learners in the target language, they appear to be doubtful about how to phrase the actual request. During their preliminary efforts to request something from the addressees, the addressees interpret the low level learners' preliminary efforts as hints and eliminate their chance to make a real request. There is a possibility that beginner level learners in the present study also experienced the same process during their role play performances. There is the possibility that while these low level learners were trying to ask for something in the role play activities, the assistant native speaker who helped for the data collection

process in the role plays took these efforts as request and responded them. Thus, these parts were coded as non-conventionally indirect requests, more specifically, hints. However, it is clear that to be able to come to a certain conclusion, retrospective interviews and more studies are needed.

4.2.2. Directness Level Use in Situations

In this part of the study, the results regarding situational variation in the use of directness levels will be presented and discussed. In each of the situations, three main directness levels namely, *direct request strategies, conventionally indirect request strategies, non-conventionally indirect request* and their *micro-strategies* will be the central concern. The findings as to these main directness categories and their micro strategies will be given in two different tables one under the other in each situation to ease the presentation of the results. In line with the research questions, the transfer effects as to use of directness strategies in each of situations with differing social variables will be the center of the discussions. Besides, at the end of this part, by considering all of the situations together, directness development through the situations will be also taken up.

4.2.2.1. Situation 1 (Asking for a Book from a Professor)

The results of the first situation are presented below. In the first situation, as mentioned before, the subject is a university student in a very crowded geography class. S/he sees a book in the professor's office beforehand and s/he needs this book to be able to prepare the geography class's project on Globalization in Europe. Teaching a very crowded class, the professor does not know the student very well.

As can be made out, in this situation both the power of the addressee and the distance between the interlocutors are high (+Power, + Distance).

When the first situation is scrutinized regarding the *direct strategy use*, it is seen that there is a statistically significant difference among the groups $[F(3,70)=3.6, p= .018]$. As it can be seen in Table 10, the beginner level subjects used the most direct request patterns in this situation and the percentage use of direct request strategies in this group is 36.8% whereas American NSs did not use even a single direct strategy in this situation. It is clear that unlike beginner level subjects, American NSs thought that direct request strategies are not appropriate in such a situation that reflects high power and high distance. The statistical results showed that the difference between two groups namely, American NSs and the beginner level group is significant which means that beginner level subjects are not good at using direct strategies in this situation ($p<.05$). A possible cause of the high use of direct request strategies in the first situation for the beginner level subjects may be the fact that they are not proficient enough to use more indirect request strategies because of the incompetence in linguistic means.

Table 10. Percentages for the directness level use in the first situation.

Groups	Direct	Con. Indirect	Non-Con. Indirect	Total %
Beginner	36.8	63.2	0	100
Upper Int.	10.5	89.5	0	100
Turkish NSs	33.3	61.9	4.8	100
American NSs	0	93.3	6.7	100

Table 11. Percentages for the use of micro-strategies of directness levels in the first situation.

Groups	Direct					Con. Indirect		Non-Con. Indirect		Total %
	Mood Der.	Exp. Per.	Hed. Per.	Loc. Der.	Want St.	Sug. For.	Prep.	St. Hint	Mid. Hint	
Beginner	5.3	0	0	0	31.5	0	63.2	0	0	100
Upper Int.	0	5.3	0	0	5.3	0	89.5	0	0	100
Turkish NSs	0	4.8	23.8	0	4.8	4.8	57.1	4.8	0	100
American NSs	0	0	0	0	0	0	93.3	6.7	0	100

While the beginner level subjects failed as to the use of direct strategies, the results of the upper intermediate level subjects show that they are good at using them in this situation. As it can be seen Table 10, the percent use of direct strategies in the first situation by this group is 10.5% and the Post-Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test showed that the difference between the upper intermediate level learners and American NSs is not significant (p>.05). This means that the upper intermediate group is doing well as to using direct strategies in the first situation. Moreover, as it can be seen in Table 10, the decreasing percent use of direct strategies from 36.8% (in the beginner level data) to 10.5% (in the upper intermediate level data) showed that there is development in the direction of American NSs use of these direct strategies. Characteristic examples for direct request strategies in the first situation from the learners' data are given below:

Beginner Level

1) *I want you to give me your useful book.*
2) *I want a book from you.*

Upper Intermediate

   3) *I want this book.*

   4) *I want the book I need for my project.*

     In addition to the direct strategy use in the first situation, *the conventionally indirect strategy use* is also the concern of the current study in each situation and the learner groups did make progress regarding the use of conventionally indirect request strategies and there is no significant difference among the groups [$F(3,70)=2.9$, $p=.059$]. As it can be seen in Table 10, the learner groups' percentage uses of conventionally indirect strategies rise from 63.2% (beginner) to 89.5% (upper intermediate), in the direction of the American NSs norm of 93.33 % and the Post-Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test showed that the difference between the learner groups and the American NSs groups' use of conventionally indirect strategies is not statistically significant ($p>.05$). It means that they do not have a problem about their use. The fact that these strategies are emphasized a lot in the EFL classes may be a probable reason for the better learning of these strategies. Some examples from the learner data are:

  Beginner

   7) *Can you give your book to me?*

   8) *Can I take this book?*

Upper Intermediate

   9) *May I have it to do my homework?*

   10) *Could you please give me the book I need?*

     As the last concern of the first situation when the results of third directness level, *non-conventionally indirect request strategies* are examined, it is seen that while the learner groups did not use these strategies in the first situation, American NSs preferred these strategies. However, the percentage use of them is very low. As it can be seen in Table 10 the American NSs used them at the rate of 6.7% and all of these usages appeared to be in the form of strong hints as it can be seen in Table 11.

There is no significant difference among the groups [F(3,70)=0.7, p= .529]. When the results are evaluated, it cannot be said that the learner groups are not doing well as to the use of non-conventionally indirect request strategies because the percentage use of these strategies by the American NSs is very low. The statistical results also supported this claim because the difference between the learner groups and the American NSs is not statistically significant (p>.05). An example for the American NSs group is provided below:

American NSs

11) Maybe you had a book that can help me.

4.2.2.2. Situation 2 (Asking for a Lift from a Professor)

The results of the second situation are presented below. As mentioned before, in this situation the subject is a university student just like it is the case in the first situation and s/he is in a difficult situation. The subject has just finished the classes for the day, but s/he cannot go home. S/he does not have her or his car that day. The weather is rainy and s/he has just missed the last bus. S/he has to wait for fifty minutes for the taxi, so s/he asks for a lift to the professor that s/he knows very closely. In this situation, as can be seen, the power of the addressee is high and unlike the first situation the distance is low (+Power, - Distance).

In this situation statistical computations show that there is a significant difference among the groups [F(3,70)=1.1, p= .029] for direct strategy use.When this situation is examined as to the *direct strategy use*, it is seen that the beginner level subject group is the most direct group in this situation as it can be seen in Table 12 with the highest percentage use of direct strategies, 15.8%. On the other hand the percentage use of direct strategies in the upper intermediate group is 5.3% However, for the same situation the American NSs did not use direct strategies. The percentage use of direct strategies in this group is 0 %. Thus, it can be said that both of the learner groups are more direct than the American NSs. The statistical results showed

that the difference between the percentages of the American NSs and the beginner level learners' is statistically significant (p<.05). It means that the beginner level learners are considerably more direct than the American NSs. However, the fall of percentages from 15.8% (beginner) to 5.3% (upper intermediate) in the learner groups suggests that there is a development in the direction of American NSs' 0% use regarding these direct strategies. Some examples of the direct request strategies of the learner groups are provided below:

Beginner
    1) *Please you leave me home.*
    2) *I want you to bring me to my home.*

Upper Intermediate
    3) *Please take me into your car*

Table 12. Percentages for the directness level use in the second situation (asking for a lift from a professor).

Groups	Direct	Con. Indirect	Non-Con. Indirect	Total %
Beginner	15.8	84.2	0	100
Upper Int.	5.3	94.7	0	100
Turkish NSs	14.3	85.7	0	100
American NSs	0	80	20	100

Table 13. Percentages for the use of micro-strategies of directness levels in the second situation.

| Groups | Direct | | | | | Con. Indirect | | Non-Con. Indirect | | Total % |
	Mood Der.	Exp. Per.	Hed. Per.	Loc. Der.	Want St.	Sug. For.	Prep.	St. Hint	Mid. Hint	
Beginner	10.5	0	0	0	5.3	5.3	78.9	0	0	100
Upper Int.	5.3	0	0	0	0	0	94.7	0	0	100
Turkish NSs	0	0	9.5	0	4.8	4.8	81	0	0	100
American NSs	0	0	0	0	0	0	80	20	0	100

In addition to the direct request strategies, *conventionally indirect strategies* also reveal some important points in the second situation. It appears that, just like it happens in the first situation, conventionally indirect request strategies are the most frequently used ones in all directness level strategies in this situation and there is no significant difference among the groups [F(3,70)=0.4,p= .767]. As it can be seen in Table 12 the percentage use of these strategies for the beginner level group is 84.2% and this rate increases to 94.7% in the upper intermediate learner group. Both of the groups realized these conventionally indirect request strategies by using mostly preparatory. As it can be seen in Table 13, as the most noticeable micro- strategy, the percentage use of the preparatory for the beginner level group is 78.9% and for the upper intermediate group, 94.7%. The statistical results showed that the difference between the American NSs and the learner groups is not significant which means that they are good at using these strategies in this situation (p>.05). Besides, another positive issue is seen at the increasing percentages of the conventionally indirect strategies in the learner groups. The percentage use rose from 84.2% to 94.7% within the learner groups. It may be considered as development. However, when the results of the American NSs as to conventionally indirect request strategies, 80% is

compared to the upper intermediate learner group's result, 94.7%, it appears that upper intermediate group used these strategies slightly more than the American NSs. Some examples for the conventionally indirect strategy use from the learner data are given below:

Beginner
4) *Can I come with you?*
5) *May I go with you?*

Upper Intermediate
6) *Can you give me a lift?*
7) *Can you give me a ride?*

In addition to the direct and conventionally indirect request strategy usages, *non- conventionally indirect strategies* also brought out some interesting findings in the second situation. In all of the three groups, beginner, upper intermediate and Turkish NSs, these indirect strategies were not preferred and there is a significant difference among the groups. [$F(3,70)=4.7$, p= .005]. As it can be seen in Table 12 the percentage use of these strategies for these groups is 0%. However, American NSs percentage use of non- conventionally indirect strategies is 20%. As the statistical results showed, the difference between the American NSs and the learner groups is significant and so it means that they cannot manage to come closer to the American norms (p<.05). One possible cause for that situation may be the negative native language effect because as mentioned above the percentage use of these strategies in the Turkish NSs group is 0% just like the learner groups. The results as to the high use of these strategies in the American NSs suggest that this group had the fear of losing face in this situation and they preferred the most indirect request strategies in the directness scale, non- conventionally indirect ones. However, despite the similarities between the first and the second situation why did the American NSs increase the percentage use of these indirect strategies from 6.7% to 20% in the second situation? One possible answer comes from Byon (2004), "...in an American

college social setting, the students normally accept that it is their legitimate right to make a request to their professors, as long as the content of their request is related to their academic affairs"(1689). This explanation suggests that because of including a demand related to academic life, the request in the first situation (asking for a book from a professor) is acceptable to some extent and it does not require using hints. However, the second situation (asking for a lift from a professor) is not an academic matter and maybe this fact posed difficulty for the American NSs in requesting and made them use non-conventionally indirect request strategies, more specifically, hints a lot. Some examples from the American NSs data are given below:

8) *Will you be going home?*

9) *I was wondering whether you are going home.*

4.2.2.3. Situation 3 (Asking for Notes from a Friend)

The results of the third situation are presented below. As mentioned in the previous parts of the study, in this situation the subject is a university student and s/he misses the last class. Because of the exam that s/he will take the following week, s/he asks for the class notes of his or her close friend. As it can be worked out, in this situation both the power and the distance variables are low (- Power, - Distance).

As it can be seen in Table 14, the percentage distribution of the *direct request strategies* in the groups of beginner, upper intermediate, and American NSs is as follows 21.0%, 5.3%, and 0%, respectively and there is a significant difference among the groups [F(3,70)=4.3, p= .008].

Table 14. Percentages for the directness level use in the third situation.

Groups	Direct	Con. Indirect	Non-Con. Indirect	Total %
Beginner	21.0	68.4	10.5	100
Upper Int.	5.3	94.7	0	100
Turkish NSs	38.1	61.9	0	100
American NSs	0	73.3	26.7	100

Table 15. Percentages for use of micro-strategies of directness levels in the third situation.

	Direct					Con. Indirect		Non-Con. Indirect		
Groups	Mood Der.	Exp. Per.	Hed. Per.	Loc. Der.	Want St.	Sug. For.	Prep.	St. Hint	Mid. Hint	Total %
Beginner	10.5	0	0	0	10.5	0	68.4	5.3	5.3	100
Upper Int.	0	0	0	0	5.3	0	94.7	0	0	100
Turkish NSs	28.6	0	0	0	9.5	4.8	57.1	0	0	100
American NSs	0	0	0	0	0	0	73.3	26.7	0	100

The statistical results showed that the percentage difference between the beginner level learners and the American NSs is statistically significant ($p < .05$). It means that the beginner level learner used direct strategies considerably more than the American NSs. However, upper intermediate learner group used direct strategies only in 5.3% of their requests. When the results of two learner groups are taken into consideration, it can be said that the learner groups showed development in the direction of the American NSs norm with the falling percentage use of direct

strategies from 21.0% to 5.3%. Some examples from the learner data are presented below:

Beginner

    1) *I want to take your note.*

    2) *Please give me your notes.*

Upper Intermediate

    3) *I want to borrow your notes.*

       The same development can also be seen at the use of the *conventionally indirect strategies*. In this part of the study, statistical computations indicate that there is no significant difference among groups [F(3,70)=2.1,p= .104]. As it can be seen in Table 14, the percentage uses of these strategies within the groups are as follows, 68.4% for beginner levels, 94.7% for upper intermediate levels and 73.3% for American NSs. The statistical results showed that the difference between the American NSs and the learner groups is not significant (p>.05), so it can be suggested that these groups are doing well as to using conventionally indirect strategies in this situation.

       As well as the direct strategies and the conventionally indirect ones, *non-conventionally indirect strategy uses* also provide interesting results for the study to be discussed and the statistical computations revealed a significant difference among the groups [F(3,70)=3.9, p= .012]. Upper intermediate and Turkish NSs did not prefer these strategies while the percentage use is 26.7% in the American NSs group. The statistical results showed that the difference between the percentage use of the American NSs and the upper intermediate group is statistically significant (p<.05). Thus, they are away from the American NSs norm as to using non- conventionally indirect strategies in this situation. on the other hand, these strategies were used by the beginner level subjects in 10.5% of their requests and American NSs used them in 26.7% of their requests as stated. The Post-Hoc results showed that the difference between the beginner and the American NSs is not statistically significant (p>.05). When all these results were considered, first of all it is seen that the decreasing percentages from 10.5% to 0% in the beginner and upper intermediate learner groups

show a regressive movement. Thus, the development regarding the use of non-conventionally indirect strategies is not the case in this situation. Some examples of the beginner level learners' non-conventionally indirect request strategies are given below:

4) *I do not have the notes.*

5) *Do you have the notes?*

It is possible that there may be the effect of L1 at this point because these strategies were ignored in the Turkish NSs group as stated. Because of the fact that the upper intermediate group's language proficiency is high, the transfer possibility may be an issue in this situation for the upper intermediate group. Secondly, the high percentage use of these strategies by the American NSs seems to be an interesting result. Compared to the first and the second situations, the highest percentage use of non-conventionally indirect strategies was seen in this situation. This is an unexpected result. Because of the fact that the addressee in this situation is a close friend, contrary to the result in this situation, the percentage uses of direct strategies are expected to be high while the percentage uses of non-conventionally indirect strategies to be low. Differences in cultural norms are suggested by Hill (1997) as the reason of this situation. He thinks that in English speaking cultures in the university situations equal status interlocutors may find it easier than the higher status interlocutors to refuse a request. In this situation American NSs may have thought in the same way in this situation and as a precaution for not being refused they may have preferred the most indirect request strategies in the directness scale.

4.2.2.4. Situation 4 (Asking for the Menu at the Restaurant)

As it was mentioned before, in this situation, the subject is in a restaurant and s/he has been waiting for fifteen minutes, but the waiter has not brought a menu yet. S/he is very hungry and s/he asks for the menu. As it can be figured out in this situation, the power of the addressee is low and the distance between the interlocutors is high (-P, + D).

The statistical computations revealed that there is a significant difference among the groups. [$F_{(3,70)}=1.7$, $p= .048$]. As it can be seen in Table 16, as to *the use of direct strategies*, in this situation the percentage uses of the request strategies are as follows 26.3% for the beginner level subjects and 31.6% for the upper intermediate level subjects. On the other hand, American NSs obviously considered direct strategies inappropriate in this situation because they did not use these strategies in this situation and the Post-Hoc results showed that the percentage difference between the American NSs and the learner groups is statistically significant ($p<.05$).

Table 16. Percentages for the directness level use in the fourth situation.

Groups	Direct	Con. Indirect	Non-Con. Indirect	Total %
Beginner	26.3	52.6	21	100
Upper Int.	31.6	63.2	5.3	100
Turkish NSs	19.0	42.8	38	100
American NSs	0	33.3	46.7	100

Table 17. Percentages for the use of micro-strategies of directness levels in the fourth situation.

Groups	Direct					Con. Indirect		Non-Con. Indirect		Total %
	Mood Der.	Exp. Per.	Hed. Per.	Loc. Der.	Want St.	Sug. For.	Prep.	St. Hint	Mid. Hint	
Beginner	10.5	0	0	0	15.8	0	52.6	21	0	100
Upper Int.	5.3	0	0	0	26.3	0	63.2	5.3	0	100
Turkish NSs	4.8	0	14.3	0	0	0	42.8	38	0	100
American NSs	0	0	0	0	0	0	33.3	46.7	0	100

Apart from these points, the percentage uses of the beginner and upper intermediate groups for the direct request strategies did not show development because as the proficiency level increases learners increased their use of direct request strategies which is away from the norm of American NSs. Thus, there is a regressive movement at the use of direct strategy use in this situation. The following examples are from the learner data:

Beginner

1) *I want the menu.*
2) *Please give me a menu.*

Upper Intermediate

3) *I want to take the menu please.*
4) *Bring the menu please.*

In addition to the direct strategy use, when the uses of *conventionally indirect strategies* are examined, it is seen that all of the groups used higher percentages of conventionally indirect strategies in the previous situations. They decreased the

percentage uses of these strategies in this situation. As it can be seen in Table 16 the rates of the conventionally indirect strategies for the beginner, upper intermediate, and American NSs are as follows, 52.6%, 63.2%, 33.3%, respectively and as it can be seen in Table 17 they were all realized with preparatory in all of the groups and there is no significant difference among the groups [F(3,70)=1.6,p= .199].

Apart from that, when the percentages of the learner groups regarding these strategies are compared to the results of the American NSs, it is seen that the difference between this native group and the learner groups is not statistically significant (p>.05). Thus, the learner groups appear to be doing well regarding the use of conventionally indirect request strategies in this situation. However, there is not development. There is a regressive movement because the percentage use of conventionally indirect strategies in this situation increased from 52.6% in the beginner group to 63.2% in the upper intermediate group while the percentage use of these strategies is only 33.3% in the American NSs. Some examples from the learners' data are presented below:

Beginner

5) *Could you get me the menu please?*

6) *Can I take a menu?*

Upper Intermediate

7) *Could you bring me a menu?*

8) *May I take the menu please?*

As the last concern of this situation, the results related to the *non-conventionally indirect strategy uses* of the beginner, upper intermediate, Turkish NSs, American NSs are as follows, 21%, 5.3%, 38.0%, 46.7%, respectively as it can be seen in Table 16 and there is a significant difference among the groups. [F(3,70)=3.3, p= .026]. The Post-Hoc results showed that the difference between the American NSs and upper intermediate group as to the use of these strategies is statistically significant (p<.05). It means that their learning at this point is not sufficient. In deed, low percentage use of these strategies in this group is very noticeable when it is compared with the results of the other groups.

The possible cause of this situation may be the "insecure social status associated with the foreigner role" (House & Kasper, 1987: 1285). When the results of this situation as to the use of non-conventionally indirect request strategies, more specifically strong and mild hints are scrutinized, it is seen that because of waiting in the restaurant for a long time without taking the menu, the American NSs and the Turkish NSs started complaining about this situation and during this complaint process, the waiter understood the demand of the customer and without giving a chance to verbalize the request, he brought the menu. This complaint process was used heavily by both of the native speaker groups and their concealed intent in their complaints was coded as hints. Some examples from the American NSs data are presented below:

American NSs

9) *Sorry we've been waiting for a long time. I think we are ready to have the menu.*

10) *We have been waiting for a time and we haven't got the menu yet.*

Turkish NSs

11) *Bir menu vermeyi düşünüyor musunuz? Yoksa gitmemizi mi istiyorsunuz?*
'Are you planning to give a menu or do you want us to leave?'

12) *15 dakikadır bekliyorum. Fakat hala bir menum yok.*
'I have been waiting for 15 minutes, but I haven't got a menu yet.'

However, the upper intermediate group just avoided complaining. Maybe because of the shyness that results from being a foreigner as House and Kasper indicate, they mostly asked for the menu directly by using preparatory. They used the hints only once. The example for hint use in the upper intermediate learner data is given below:

Upper Intermediate

13) *I couldn't take the menu.*

On the other hand, the percentage of the beginner level group regarding non-conventionally use is very high and the difference between this group and the American NSs is not statistically significant (p>.05). This shows that this group is close to the American NSs norm in terms of using these strategies. However, as the native speakers did, they did not realize hints by complaining about the situation. They used some other ways to create hints as given in the examples below:

Beginner

    14) *What do you have for me?*

    15) *I need some meal. What do you have?*

On the other hand, the upper intermediate group could not manage to come closer to the norm of the American NSs and when the percentage uses of non-conventionally indirect strategies of the learner groups are compared, the falling rates showed that there is a regressive movement, so there is not a development as to the use of these strategies in the learner groups.

4.2.2.5. Situation 5 (Ordering Food)

This situation is like the second part of the fourth situation. After taking the menu in the previous situation, this time the subjects order food in the restaurant. Just like the fourth situation, in this situation the power of the addressee and the distance variables are low (-P,-D). The only difference between the fourth and this situation is that the imposition in the fourth situation is slightly less than the imposition in this situation because the customer in the fourth situation is a bit angry due to waiting for a long time for the menu.

According to ANOVA, there is no significant difference among the groups. [$F_{(3,70)}=1.1$, p= .343]. When the percentage uses of the *direct request strategies* are examined in this situation, it is seen that American NSs used direct strategies only in this situation while they did not prefer them in the previous ones. As it can be seen in

Table 18 the percentage use of this strategy is 66.7% in this group. Because of the nature of this situation, the percentages of direct strategies in other groups are also very high and as the statistical results showed the difference between the American NSs and the learner groups is not significant which means that they are good at using direct request strategies in this situation (p>.05). Beginner and upper intermediate, subject groups used these strategies in 84.2% and 73.7% of their requests. It can be considered as a development in the direction of American NSs percentage use of these strategies, 66.7%. Some examples from the learners' data are presented below:

Beginner
1) *Please give me spaghetti.*
2) *I want fried chicken and cola.*
Upper Intermediate
3) *I will take a hamburger I think.*
4) *I want to have a burger menu please.*

Table 18. Percentages for the directness level use in the fifth situation.

Groups	Direct	Con. Indirect	Non-Con. Indirect	Total %
Beginner	84.2	10.5	5.3	100
Upper Int.	73.7	26.3	0	100
Turkish NSs	90.5	9.5	0	100
American NSs	66.7	33.3	0	100

Table 19. Percentages for the use of micro-strategies of directness levels in the fifth situation.

Groups	Direct					Con. Indirect		Non-Con. Indirect		Total %
	Mood Der.	Exp. Per.	Hed. Per.	Loc. Der.	Want St.	Sug. For.	Prep.	St. Hint	Mid. Hint	
Beginner	5.3	0	0	0	78.9	0	10.5	5.3	0	100
Upper Int.	15.8	0	0	0	57.9	0	26.3	0	0	100
Turkish NSs	14.3	0	4.8	0	71.4	0	9.5	0	0	100
American NSs	0	0	0	0	66.7	0	33.3	0	0	100

The same development can also be seen in the use of *conventionally indirect request strategies* in the learner groups. When the beginner group used these strategies at the rate of 10.5%, the upper intermediate group increased this percentage to 26.3% which is very close to the percentage use of the American NSs, 33.3 %. The following examples are from the learner data:

Beginner

    5) *Can I have a hamburger?*

    6) *Can I take sushi?*

Upper Intermediate

    7) *Can I take for start soup?*

    8) *Could I please have some fish and chips?*

Because of the nature of this situation the use of *non-conventionally indirect strategies,* more specifically hints had not been accepted to occur and the expectations came true. Except for very low percentage use in the beginner group, the other groups do not use hints while ordering food as it can be seen in Table 19.

4.2.3. Directness Level Use Development of the Learner Groups through the Situations

When all of the situations are scrutinized closely regarding the use of *direct request strategies*, the results showed that the American NSs group did not prefer using direct request strategies in all of the situations except for the last situation (ordering food). While the direct strategy percent is 67 % in the last situation, in the other situations the percentage use is 0% in the American NSs group. On the other hand, the beginner group has a tendency to use very direct request strategies in all of the situations without taking into consideration the changing power and distance variables in the situations. Through the situations, a coherent increase or decrease in the direct request strategies' percentages cannot be seen in the beginner group.

For instance, when the direct strategy use of the beginner level subjects are checked in the first situation (asking for the book of the professor) which is very similar to the second situation (asking for a lift from a professor) except for the familiarity between the student and the professor, it is seen that the percentage use of direct strategies in the first situation is two times higher than the second situation in the beginner group. The percentage use is 36.76 % in the first situation and it is 15.78% in the second situation. Moreover, while asking for the book of the professor which is a high power situation, the beginner group used more direct request strategies compared to the low power situations in which they ask for the notes of their close friend and ask for the menu in a restaurant. The last situation (ordering food) is the only situation in which the beginner level learners show development by using the highest percentage (84.2%) direct request strategies in all of the situations like the American NSs did.

On the other hand, compared to the beginner level learners, upper intermediate group appeared to show more coherent use regarding direct request strategies through the situations. As mentioned above it was realized that American NSs did not use direct strategies in the situations except for the last situation (ordering food) and the upper intermediate group came closer to the norm of

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American NSs by using very low percentage uses of direct strategies in all of the situations excluding the last situation in which they order food in a restaurant. While the percentages are 10.52%, 5.26%, 5.26%, 31.56% from the first situation to the fourth situation, respectively, the percentage use increases to 73.67 % in the last situation. This stable low percentage uses of the upper intermediate subjects in all of the situations except for the ordering food situation just like the American NSs suggested that they did it with intent.

Apart from direct strategy use, regarding the *conventionally indirect request strategy use*, the close examination of all situations show that in nearly all of the situations both the beginner and the upper intermediate level learners are good at using conventionally indirect request strategies. It means that they come closer to the norm of American NSs. However, when the conventionally indirect request strategies' results are examined closely through the situations, it is seen that both of the learner groups could not manage to use these strategies in a coherent way in accordance with the changing social variables of power and distance.

From the first situation to the last situation a steady decrease of the conventionally indirect request strategies can be seen in the American NSs group. However, the beginner group's percentage use does not change in accordance with the changing weight of power and distance through the situations. For instance, as mentioned before although the first situation(asking for the book of the professor) and the second situation (asking for a lift from a professor) are very similar to each other, the percentage use of conventionally indirect request strategies increase from 63.15% in the first situation to 84.2% in the second situation in the beginner group. Moreover, the percentage use of the conventionally indirect request strategies in the first situation (asking for the book of the professor) which is a high power situation is nearly the same with the percentage use in the third situation (asking for the notes of a close friend) which is a low power situation. While the percentage use is 63.15% in the first situation, it is 68.42% in the third situation in the beginner group. However, if the sudden decrease in the percentage use of the conventionally indirect request strategies in the last two situations (asking for the menu at the restaurant and ordering food) is considered, it can be suggested that the beginner group did it

intentionally by considering the pre-existing rights and obligations in these situations. The percentage uses of the conventionally indirect request strategies are 52.63% and 10.52%, respectively.

Similar to the beginner level learner group, the upper intermediate group also has difficulty in using the conventionally indirect request strategies in accordance with the changing social variables of power and distance through the situations. As mentioned above, while the American NSs decrease their conventionally indirect request strategy percentage use from the first situation to the last one in accordance with the changing weight of power and distance, the conventionally indirect request strategy use is nearly the same in all of the situations in the upper intermediate group. For instance, in the first and the second high power situations (asking for the book of the professor and asking for a lift from a professor) the percentage uses are 89.47% and 94.74% in the upper intermediate group. Despite the fact that the power is low in the third situation (asking for the notes of close friend), the percentage use in this situation is very similar to the high power situations' percentages. It is 94.7%. In the third situation they decreased their percentage use a bit, 63.15%; however, this is not enough because they still appear to be using considerably more conventionally indirect request strategies in this situation than the American NSs with a percentage of 33.33%. Just like the beginner level learners, only in the last situation (ordering food) with a sudden decrease to the percentage of 26.31%, the upper intermediate learner group follows the same decreasing strategy as American NSs do in this situation.

In addition to the issues related to direct and conventionally indirect request strategies, the learner groups' *non-conventionally indirect request strategy use* through the situations also brought out some important points. As mentioned before, nearly in each situation the learner groups had difficulty regarding the use of non-conventionally indirect request strategies and while using these strategies through the situations they showed the same failure.

For instance, in the high power situations both of the learner groups did not use even a single non-conventionally indirect request strategy while the American NSs increase their percentage use from 6.67% in first situation(asking for the book of

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the professor) to 20% in the second situation(asking for a lift from a professor). Similarly, in the third and fourth low power situations(asking for the notes of a close friend and asking for the menu at the restaurant), the American NSs increased their percentage use from 26.67% in the third situation to 46.67% in the fourth situation and they did not use these strategies in the last situation (ordering food). However, the upper intermediate group did not use non-conventionally indirect request strategies in the third situation (asking for notes from a friend) while using them only in 5.26 % of their requests in the fourth situation (asking for the menu at the restaurant). On the other hand, like the American NSs by increasing their percentages from 10.52% in the notes situation to 21% in the menu situation the beginner group appears to be better compared to the upper intermediate group. However, it is clear that to reach a certain conclusion, retrospective interviews or more studies are needed.

4.3. Internal Modification Use

Being the components of internal modification, in this part of the study, the results related to syntactic downgraders as well as lexical and phrasal downgraders will be presented and discussed. The results as to external modification will be examined in the subsequent parts of the study.

4.3.1 Syntactic Downgraders

In this part of the study, to be able to comprehend the use of these structural components better, first their use will be scrutinized in the overall sense and then the situational factors will be in the center to elaborate the findings and accordingly make the issues related to the use of these mitigating choices more clear. In

accordance with the research questions, the development and transfer effects will be underlined, as well. Of the syntactic downgraders introduced at the methodology part of the present study, being the baseline data, the ones existing in American NSs group's data will be reflected on in the following parts.

4.3.1.1. Overall Syntactic Downgrader Use

The researches on cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics including the analysis of the syntactic downgraders are infrequent. However, when the ones taking in the use of these mitigating strategies are examined, it is seen that nearly in all of them, the learner groups underused these mitigating strategies at all proficiency levels. The studies of Woodfield (2006), Schauer (2004), Sasaki (1998), Hill (1997), Trosborg (1995), and House and Kasper (1987), Otçu and Zeyrek (2008) are some examples reflecting such findings. The results regarding the use of syntactic strategy use in the present study are not different from these studies' results. The learner groups used considerably fewer syntactic downgrader than the American NSs. There are some possible explanations for the low use of syntactic downgraders by the learners.

First of all, as Faerch and Kasper (1989) point out "...the mitigating function of syntactic downgraders is not inherent in the grammatical meaning of syntactic structures" (p.237). Thus, because of their implicit softening effect, they may not be preferred by the learner groups much. A similar point is also indicated by Woodfield (2006), "Learner may have acquired the mitigating function of syntactic structures, but remain uncertain as to the effects on pragmatic clarity" (p. 20). Secondly, as Takahashi (2001) indicates the learner groups may know the structures for syntactic downgraders, but they may not be aware of their mitigating effects. Moreover, taking into consideration the results of her study, Schauer (2004) indicates, "…syntactic downgraders appear to be more closely linked to the learners' length of stay in the target environment…" (p.265). Because the learner groups in the present study are

all EFL learners, the reason of their failure as to using syntactic downgraders may be understood to some extent. It is possible that with the effects of all these reasons or some of them in this study, the learners used fewer syntactic downgraders than the American NSs.

As it can be seen in Table 20, the percentage uses of syntactic downgrader use in the beginner, upper intermediate, Turkish NSs and American NSs are 1%, 8.1%, 11.6% and 43.6%, respectively. The one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted and showed that there is a significant difference among the groups [F(3,70)=32.0,p=.000]. Post-Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the difference between the American NSs and the learner groups is statistically significant (p<.05). It means that neither the beginner nor the upper intermediate level learners could come closer to the American NSs norm. As it can be seen in Table 20 the increase from 1% to 8.1% in the learner groups may be accepted as a development, but the big difference between the American NSs' percentage use of syntactic downgraders, 43.6% and the upper intermediate subjects', 8.1% showed that even the upper intermediate group had serious problems at using these mitigating strategies.

Table 20. Percentages for overall syntactic downgrader use.

Groups	Percentages
Beginner	1.0
Upper Int.	8.1
Turkish NSs	11.7
American NSs	43.6

In addition to the points discussed above, Table 21 below also gives the chance of underlining some other important points in the study. First of all, regarding *negation* and *conditional*, the low percentage uses of these strategies appear to be very noticeable within the results. Even in the American NSs data, the percentage

uses of these strategies are 1.8% for negation and 2.4% for conditional. On the other hand, learner groups did not use negation in their requests and only the upper intermediate group used the conditional as a syntactic downgrader at the rate of 2.9%. Some examples for negation and conditional from the American NSs data are provided below:

American NSs

1. I was wondering if it would*n't* be too much imposition and you would*n't* mind giving me a ride. (Negation use)

2. *Would you like to give your notes*? (conditional use)

Table 21. Percentages for types of overall syntactic downgrader use

Types	Beginner	Upper Int.	Turkish NSs	American NSs
NEGATION	0	0	0.4	1.8
CONDITIONAL	0	2.9	0.4	2.4
ASPECT	0	0	0	12.1
TENSE	0	1.0	1.3	11.5
CONDITIONAL CL.	1.0	4.3	9.5	15.8
TOTAL	1.0	8.1	11.6	43.6

The discussion above shows that the negation strategy was obviously not considered as an appropriate type by the groups because the percentage uses of negation is very low in the Table 21. The reason for the infrequent use of negation may be, as Faerch and Kasper (1989) point out that "the structure presupposes a negative response to the request and thus often carries a reproachful note, which makes the utterance ambiguous in force between a request and a complaint " (p.228). This being so, the subjects may avoid the risk of creating ambiguity in their requests. Some other studies also reflected the characteristic of the negation to be used rare. For instance, in the study of Schauer (2004) even at the last phase of the learner

groups' stay in the target language, the negation was not appeared in the learner data. Besides, similar to the present study's results, in the studies of Trosborg (1995) and Woodfield (2006), negation did not appear in the learner data.

In addition to that, the high percentage uses of the *aspect, tense* and *conditional clause* strategies appear to be noticeable in the American NSs' data. As can be seen in Table 21, the percentage uses of these strategies in this group are 12.1%, 11.5% and 15.8%, respectively. On the other hand, when the learner groups' results are examined, it is seen that aspect was used by neither of the groups. Tense was used only 1% by the upper intermediate group while it was not used by the beginner group and conditional clause was only used in the beginner and upper intermediate groups 1%, 4.3%, respectively. Thus, while the American NSs used these syntactic downgraders more frequently, learner groups did not use them or employed these strategies at very low rates as can be seen in the results stated. The main reason of the higher use of these three strategies by the American NSs and the low percentages of the same strategies for the learner groups may result from the fact that the learner groups did not know these pragmalinguistic strategies and their mitigating effects. Two examples from American NSs data are provided below. American NSs

3) I *was* wonder*ing if* you could give me a lift. (tense, aspect and conditional clause use)

4) I *was* just wonder*ing if* there was any chance I could borrow your book. (tense, aspect and conditional   clause use)

At this point, the effect of negative L1 transfer may also be a reason because as can be seen in Table 21 aspect was not used by the Turkish NSs and the percentage use of tense is only 1.3%. The percentage use of the conditional clause in the Turkish data is 9.5%. As it can be understood from these results the learners get different input from their native language. An example from Turkish NSs' data is given below.

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Turkish NSs

5) *Eğer* size uygunsa, kitabınızı rica edice*ktim.* (Conditional clause and tense use)

'If it's convenient for you, I would like to request your book.'

4.3.1.2. Syntactic Downgrader Use in Situations

In this part of the study, the results regarding situational variation in the use of syntactic downgraders will be presented and discussed. The remarkable issues will be emphasized within each situation. Moreover, in line with the research questions, the development of the learner groups and the transfer effects as to use of syntactic downgraders in the situations with differing social variables will be the center of the discussions. At the end of this part, syntactic downgrader use development of the learner groups through the situations will be also taken up by considering all of the situations as a whole.

4.3.1.2.1. Situation 1 (Asking for a Book from a Professor)

As it can be seen in Table 22, the group of the American NSs is the one which used the most syntactic downgraders, 100%. Upper intermediate group's percentage use is 19.2% in this situation. On the other hand, beginner level subjects did not use syntactic downgrader in their requests. Statistical computations show that there is a significant difference among the groups. $[F(3,70)=31.0, p= .000]$. When the percentage use of total syntactic downgraders in the American NSs' group is compared with the total of other groups, it is seen that there is a difference and the Post-Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test showed that this difference is statistically significant $(p<.05)$. This shows that the learner groups are not doing well

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as to using syntactic downgraders in this situation, but they still show development as the percentage use of syntactic downgraders increased from 0% in the beginner group to 19.2% in the upper intermediate group.

Table 22. Percentages for the types of syntactic downgrader use in the first situation.

Groups	Negation	Conditional	Aspect	Tense	Conditional Cl.	Total
Beginner	0	0	0	0	0	0
Upper Int.	0	2.4	0	4.8	12.0	19.2
Turkish NSs	0	0	0	4.3	17.3	21.6
American NSs	6.0	6.0	27.3	27.3	33.3	100.0

In addition to these points related to the total use of syntactic downgraders, when the specific types are scrutinized, the results showed that the range of syntactic downgrader use in the learner groups is very limited. As it can be seen in Table 22 while American native speakers utilized negation, conditional, aspect, tense and conditional clause, beginner level used none of them and upper intermediate group used only three of them namely, conditional, tense and conditional clause with very low percentages, 2.4%, 4.8%, and 12%, respectively. The following examples are from the upper intermediate data:

Upper Intermediate

1) *Would you like to give me this book*? (conditional use)
2) I *was* gonna ask for the book that I really need for my project. (tense use)
3) Can I take it [the book] *if* you want? (conditional clause use)

Another point that is worth being underlined here is the higher percentage uses of aspect, tense and conditional clause in the American NSs group compared to low uses of the negation and conditional. The probable reason for this situation is the tendency of the American native speakers to use the sentences like "I was wondering if..." a lot. In this situation, while asking for the book of the professor American NSs

used such sentences most of the time. As a result, these sentences increased the percentage use of aspect, tense and conditional clause that they include in the results of the syntactic downgrader use. Two examples from American NSs data are provided below.

American NSs

4) I *was* just wonder*ing if* there was any chance I could borrow your book. (tense, aspect, conditional clause use)

5) I *was* wonder*ing if* it was possible to borrow one of your books. (tense, aspect, conditional clause use)

4.3.1.2.2. Situation 2 (Asking for a Lift from a Professor)

The one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine the significance of the usage of syntactic downgrader statistically. There is a statistically significant difference at the p<.05 level in the usage of syntactic downgrader among the groups [F(3,70)=15.0, p= .000]. As it can be observed in Table 23, the total percentage use of syntactic downgraders in this situation for the American NSs is 81.7%. Like the first situation, the higher percentage uses of aspect, tense, and conditional clause compared to the other kinds of syntactic downgrader appear to be noticeable in this situation. While the percentage uses of aspect, tense and conditional clause are 24.2%, 22.2%, 30.3%, respectively, the percentage uses of negation and conditional is only 3.0% in the American NSs group. Such difference again results from the fact that American NSs frequently used the request strategies like "I was wondering if... ". Because of the fact that these sentences include aspect, tense, and conditional clause, the rates of aspect, tense and conditional clause became higher compared to the percentage uses of other kinds of syntactic downgraders.

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Table 23. Percentages for the types of syntactic downgrader use in the second situation.

Groups	Negation	Conditional	Aspect	Tense	Conditional Cl.	Total
Beginner	0	0	0	0	4.8	4.8
Upper Int.	0	4.8	0	0	4.8	9.6
Turkish NSs	2.2	0	0	2.2	19.5	23.9
American NSs	3.0	3.0	24.2	21.2	30.3	81.7

According to the Post-Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test, the gap between the percentage use of syntactic downgraders in the learner groups and in the American NSs group is statistically significant ($p<.05$). Thus, the learners cannot manage to reach the norm of the American NSs as to using syntactic downgraders in this situation. The percentage use of the syntactic downgrader in the beginner level group is only 4.8%. However, development appeared to be the case, despite the failure in reaching the American NSs norm. The percentage use of syntactic downgrader rose from 4.8% in the beginner group to 9.6% in the upper intermediate group in this situation. However, the range is limited in the learner groups when it is compared with the American NSs group. Of the syntactic downgrader types used by American NSs in their request strategies, the beginner subjects only used conditional clause in 4.8% and the upper intermediate subjects used conditional and conditional clause in 4.8% for each type. Some examples from the learners' data are presented below.

Beginner

1) *If* you are going to your neighborhood, could I come with you? (conditional clause use)

Upper Intermediate

2) Do you mind *if* I go with your car? (conditional clause use)

3) *Would you take me home with you*? (conditional use)

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4.3.1.2.3. Situation 3 (Asking for Notes from a Friend)

As it can be seen in Table 24, in the third situation American NSs decreased the total percentage use of syntactic downgraders. Statistical computations revealed that there is a significant difference among the groups. [$F(3,70)=4.1$, $p= .010$]. The upper intermediate group's percentage use is 9.6% while the beginner group did not use any syntactic downgrader in this situation. The Post-Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test results showed that the difference between the percentages of the beginner group and the American NSs' is statistically significant ($p<.05$).

Table 24. Percentages for the types of syntactic downgrader use in the third situation.

Groups	Negation	Conditional	Aspect	Tense	Conditional Cl.	Total
Beginner	0	0	0	0	0	0
Upper Int.	0	4.8	0	0	4.8	9.6
Turkish NSs	0	2.2	0	0	6.5	8.7
American NSs	0	3.0	9.1	9.1	12.1	33.3

Because of the increase of the percentage use of syntactic downgraders in upper intermediate group, it can be said that there is development. However, as it was the case in the previous situations the range of the syntactic downgrader types is very limited in the learner groups' data. The most important probable reason of such results is the fact that the learner groups did not use the request strategies like "I was wondering if... " while such request strategies were frequently used by the American NSs group. Because the beginner group did not use any syntactic downgraders in this situation the following examples are only from the upper intermediate group's data:
 Upper Intermediate

1) *Would you like to give your notebook*? (conditional use)
2) Do you mind *if* I want to take your notes? (conditional clause use)

4.3.1.2.4. Situation 4 (Asking for the Menu at the Restaurant)

In the fourth situation, as it can be seen in Table 25, the American NSs used the least syntactic downgrader in all of the situations. According to ANOVA, there is no significant difference among the groups [$F_{(3,70)}=0.6$, p= .623].The percentage use in this group is only 3.0%. Pre-existing rights and obligations seem to be more important for them in this situation compared to the others and it is possible that this issue led them to think that they have full right to request in this situation and, so there is no need to mitigate the requests with syntactic downgraders.

Table 25. Percentages for the types of syntactic downgrader use in the fourth situation.

Groups	Negation	Conditional	Aspect	Tense	Conditional Cl.	Total
Beginner	0	0	0	0	0	0
Upper Int.	0	2.4	0	0	0	2.4
Turkish NSs	0	0	0	0	4.3	4.3
American NSs	0	0	0	0	3.0	3.0

The same idea might have been shared by the upper intermediate group because the statistical results showed that although the percentage use of syntactic downgraders in the American NSs group and the upper intermediate group is

different, this difference is not statistically significant (p>.05) This means that the syntactic downgrader use in the upper intermediate group is similar to the American NSs', so upper intermediate group is good at using syntactic downgraders in this situation with the syntactic downgrader use in 2.4% of their requests. On the other hand the beginner level learners did not use any syntactic downgraders in this situation.

Upper Intermediate
Would you like to bring a menu? (conditional use)

4.3.1.2.5. Situation 5 (Ordering Food)

As it was stated in *directness use in situations part*, owing to the nature of the last situation, direct strategies are the most used strategy types the subjects used while ordering food and as it can be seen in Table 26, none of the groups used syntactic downgraders for these direct strategies in this situation.

Table 26. Percentages for the types of syntactic downgrader use in the fifth situation.

Groups	Negation	Conditional	Aspect	Tense	Conditional Cl.	Total
Beginner	0	0	0	0	0	0
Upper Int.	0	0	0	0	0	0
Turkish NSs	0	0	0	0	0	0
American NSs	0	0	0	0	0	0

4.3.1.3. Syntactic Downgrader Use Development of the Learner Groups through the Situations

As mentioned in *the syntactic downgrader use in situations part*, the beginner level learners had serious problems as to using syntactic downgrader in each of the situation. Except for the second situation (asking for a lift from a professor), they could not use any syntactic downgraders in the situations.

On the other hand, the upper intermediate group could manage to reach the norms of American NSs regarding the use of syntactic downgraders in the third situation (asking for the notes of the close friend) and the fourth situation (asking for the menu at the restaurant). However, they confronted failure in the first and the second high power situations with their considerably lower percentage uses than the American NSs'.

Apart from their performance in each of the situation, when the upper intermediate group's syntactic downgrader use is examined through the situations by considering the changing power and distance issues, a similar failure appeared again in this group. The results showed that this learner group could not manage to use syntactic downgraders in a coherent way, in accordance with the changing social variables of power and distance. For instance, although the second situation (asking for a lift from a professor) and third situation (asking for the notes of the close friend) are very different from each other in terms of the power issue, the upper intermediate group used the same percentage of syntactic downgrader in these situations. In both of these situations, the percentage use is 9.6%. This shows that they did not consider changing power weights in these two different situations.

However, the fact that their percentage use of syntactic downgrader in the fourth situation (asking for the menu at the restaurant) is less than the percentage use in the third situation (asking for the notes from a friend) like the American NSs did suggests that they decreased their percentage use intentionally by taking into account

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the pre-existing rights and obligations in the menu situation. While the percentage use is 9.6% in the third situation, they decreased it to nearly quarter of this percentage, 2.4%.

4.3.2. Lexical and Phrasal Downgraders

As well as the syntactic downgraders, under the title of internal modification there are also lexical and phrasal downgraders. As Blum Kulka et al.'s (1989) indicate, these are the ways which serve as optional additions to diminish the force of the requests. Similar to the previous parts, in this part of the study first, the findings related to lexical and phrasal downgraders will be presented and discussed in the overall sense. Then to be able to figure out the extent of the learner groups' understanding of the relationship between these forms and the context of situation, the issues related to situational variation will be taken up. In these parts, in accordance with the research questions, the development and transfer effects will be underlined, as well. Of the lexical and phrasal downgraders introduced at the methodology part of the present study, being the baseline data, the ones existing in American NSs group's data will be reflected on in the following parts.

4.3.2.1. Overall Lexical and Phrasal Downgrader Use

The one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine the significance of the usage of lexical and phrasal downgrader use statistically. There is a statistically significant difference at the p<.05 level in the usage of lexical and phrasal downgrader among the groups [F(3,70)=6.5, p= .001].As it can be seen in Table 27, the percentage use of lexical and phrasal downgraders for the American NSs is 48.4%. On the other hand, the percentage use in the beginner

group is 11.6% and as the statistical results showed the difference between the percentages of these groups is statistically significant (p<.05). This means that the beginner group has problems regarding the use of lexical and phrasal downgraders. There may be the effect of this group's low language proficiency level at this point. Because of their lack of knowledge regarding the types of lexical/ phrasal downgraders and their mitigating effects, they might have had difficulty.

Table 27. Percentages for overall lexical and phrasal downgraders use.

Groups	Percentages
Beginner	11.6
Upper Int.	37.4
Turkish NSs	21.8
American NSs	48.4

While failure is the issue in the beginner group, the upper intermediate learners does not seem to be affected by the problems that the beginner level learners confronted because the percentage use of lexical and phrasal downgraders in this group is 37.4%. As the statistical results proved, the percentage use of this group as to the use of lexical and phrasal downgrader is not statistically different from the percentage of the American NSs group (p>.05). It means that upper intermediate group came closer to the American NSs norm. In addition to these points, when the percentage uses of lexical and phrasal downgraders rising from 11.6% in the beginner group to 37.4% in the upper intermediate group is taken into account the development factor can be seen within these groups.

Table 28. Percentages for types of overall lexical and phrasal downgraders use

Types	Beginner	Upper Int.	Turkish NSs	American NSs
POLITENESS MARKER*(please)*	9.2	13.3	2.3	3.2
CONSULTATIVE DEVICE	0	1.7	0	10.5
UNDERSTATER	0	0	0.7	3.2
HEDGE	0	3.3	0.7	0
SUBJECTIVIZER	0	5.0	12.0	19.0
DOWNTONER	0.9	3.3	0	5.3
CAJOLER	1.7	9.2	1.5	6.3
APPEALER	0	1.7	4.5	1.0
TOTAL	11.6	37.4	21.8	48.4

In addition to the points discussed above, Table 28 also gives the chance of underlining some points related to specific lexical and phrasal downgrader types in the study. As to this point, in the overall sense, the results showed that while the percentage uses of the specific modifiers are less in the learner groups compared to the American NSs regarding the range, the learner groups, especially upper intermediate subjects are similar to the American NSs. The use of these specific modifiers will be elaborated now.

First of all, regarding the use of *politeness marker*, the high percentage uses of this marker by the learner groups and contrary to them, the less percentage use of this marker by the American NSs and Turkish NSs appear to be noticeable. While the percentage uses of the politeness marker, please is 9.2% and 13.3% in the beginner and upper intermediate groups, respectively, these percentages are decreased to 2.3% in Turkish NSs group and 3.2 % in the American NSs group. Some examples from the groups are provided below.

American NSs

   1. *Please*, bring the menu.(asking for the menu at the restaurant)

Turkish NSs

   2. Bir menu *lütfen*. (asking for the menu at the restaurant)

'A menu, *please*'

Beginner

3. Can you give it [your book] to me, *please*? (asking for the book of the professor)

Upper Intermediate

4. Can I borrow yours [your notes], *please*? (asking for the notes of the close friend)

The percentages stated above suggest that there is not the transfer effect from Turkish on the learner groups because the least percentage use of politeness marker, please belongs to the Turkish NSs group. Rare use of please in the Turkish NSs data can be attributed to the collectivist nature of the Turkish culture as pointed out by Bayraktaroğlu and Sifianou (2001) and Zeyrek (2001).On the same point, Mızıkacı (1991) also adds that in Turkish please implies the obligation of the hearer to do the act. Thus, infrequent use of please in the language of the Turkish culture which is closer to the positive politeness use, and accordingly solidarity is not something unexpected. However, Turkish subjects in the learner groups of English who are from this collectivist culture used the politeness marker, please a lot. As the reason of this result, the idea of Faerch and Kasper (1989) can be accepted. They suggest that the politeness marker, please is used a lot by the learner groups for the sake *clarity*. In their study, the Danish learners of English and German used please and bitte excessively and as a reason for this situation, the explicitness of these markers are suggested by these researchers. They claim that the explicit and highly transparent characteristics of the politeness markers make them popular in the learner groups to mark their utterances as requests easily in an unambiguous way.

On the other hand, when the results related to the *consultative device* are scrutinized, it can be seen that the percentage use of these strategy is 0 % in the beginner group while it is 1.7% in the upper intermediate group. Unlike the learner groups' data, the American NSs data include many instances of consultative device like "Do you mind...?" "Would you mind...?". The percentage use of this strategy by the American NSs group is 10.5%. It is possible that the learner groups had not

acquired the use of consultative device in the target language because only two students used this strategy in the upper intermediate group. Some examples for consultative device are presented below.

American NSs

5. *Do you think* I can borrow your notes for a week?(asking for notes from a friend)

Upper Intermediate

6. *Do you mind* if I go with your car? (asking for a lift from a professor)

Understater is another lexical and phrasal downgrader which was not used by the learner groups. This strategy was not also preferred much by the American NSs because the percentage use of this strategy is only 3.2% in this group. Some examples are provided below.

American NSs

7. Would it be possible if I could use your book on Globalization in Europe *just* till the end of the assignment? (asking for the book of the professor)

Besides, *hedge* is the only strategy type which was not used by the American NSs in this study. It was not preferred much by the other groups as well because while beginner level subjects did not use it, upper intermediate level learners used it only 3.3% of their requests. The following examples are from the Turkish and upper intermediate data.

Upper Intermediate

8. Can I take *some* soup?(ordering food)

In addition, according to the results *subjectivizer* is the most frequently used lexical and phrasal downgrader by the American NSs. The percentage use of this strategy is 19.0% in this group. This high percentage in the American NSs group may result from the fact that this group used the structures like "I was wondering if…" a lot. Thus, the phrases like *I wonder* increased the percentage use of these subjectivizers in this group. On the other hand, such request structures did not exist in the learner data and as a result as it can be seen from Table 28, the percentage use

of this strategy is only 5.0% in the upper intermediate group and it was not used by the beginner level subjects. Some examples are provided below.

American NSs

9. *I* was *wonder*ing if I could possibly borrow your copy. (asking for the book of the professor)

Upper Intermediate

10. *I wonder* if you have that book on Globalization in Europe and borrow me. (asking for the book of the professor)

Moreover, the percentage use of the *downtoners* is 5.3% in the American NSs group while it was not used in the Turkish NSs group. When the results of the learner groups are examined as to the use of this lexical and phrasal downgrader, it is seen that the percentage use of this strategy is 0.9% in the beginner group and it is 3.3 % in the upper intermediate group. Because this strategy type was not used by the Turkish NSs, 3.3% use of this strategy in the upper intermediate group compared to the 5.3% use in the American NSs group can be considered as learning. Some examples are presented below.

American NSs

11. I was wondering if I could *possibly* borrow your copy. (asking for the book of the professor)

Beginner

12. Can you *perhaps* give your notes to me? (asking for notes from a friend)

Upper Intermediate

13. Can you give me a lift *maybe* if you are going there? (asking for a lift from a professor)

Besides, the percentage use of *cajoler* which can be considered like a positive politeness strategy is 6.3% in the American NSs group. The learner groups' percentage uses of this strategy are 1.7% and 9.2% in the beginner and upper intermediate groups, respectively. The raise in the percentages of this strategy may appear to be a development but when the result of upper intermediate group is compared with American NSs', 6.3%, it can be seen that upper intermediate group

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used this lexical and phrasal downgrader type slightly more than the American NSs. Examples of the cajoler in the groups' data are given below.

American NSs

14. *You know* I wasn't here last week. (asking for notes from a friend)

Beginner

15. *You know* we are in the same neighbourhood. (asking for a lift from a professor)

Upper Intermediate

16. *You know* I couldn't come last week. (asking for notes from a friend)

Lastly, the percentage uses of the *appealer* in the study are not much in the groups. The percentage use of this strategy is 1.0% and 1.7% in American NSs group and upper intermediate group, respectively while it was not used by the beginner students.

American NSs

17. The weather is terrible, *isn't it?* (asking for a lift from a professor)

Upper Intermediate

18. You are going home. *Aren't you?* (asking for a lift from a professor)

4.3.2.2. Lexical and Phrasal Downgrader Use in Situations

In this part of the study, the results regarding situational variation in the use of lexical and phrasal downgraders will be presented and discussed in each situation. For unity, in each situation, first as the baseline data source, the results of the American NSs will be explained and then they will be associated with the results of

the other groups to discuss the important findings. Then the results in the learner groups that are different from the American NSs data will be taken up and discussed. Moreover, in line with the research questions, the development of the learner groups and the transfer effects as to use of lexical and phrasal downgraders in the situations with differing social variables will be the dwelled on. At the end of this part lexical and phrasal downgrader use development of the learner groups through the situations will be also taken up.

4.3.2.2.1. Situation 1 (Asking for a Book from a Professor)

The one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed that there is a significant difference among the groups. [$F(3,70)=6.4$, $p= .001$]. As it can be seen in Table 29, the percentage use of lexical and phrasal downgraders for the American NSs in this situation is 84.3%. On the other hand, despite the development resulting from the increasing percentages from 12.5% to 20.8% in beginner and upper intermediate groups, respectively, both of the learner groups could not manage to reach the American NSs norm regarding the use of lexical and phrasal downgraders in this situation. The Post-Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test showed that the differences between the percentages of the learner groups and the American NSs' are statistically significant ($p<.05$). It means that they could not come closer to American NSs norm.

Table 29. Percentages for the types of lexical phrasal downgrader use in the first situation.

Groups	Pl. M.	Cn. D.	Unds.	Hed.	Subj.	Down.	Cajoler	Appl.	TOTAL
Beginner	8.3	0	0	0	0	4.2	0	0	12.5
Upper	12.5	0	0	4.2	4.2	0	0	0	20.8
Turkish NSs	0	0	0	3.8	30.1	0	0	3.8	37.7
American NSs	0	21.1	5.3	0	42.1	15.8	0	0	84.3

In addition to these points when the specific types of the lexical and phrasal downgraders are regarded some other noticeable points appear within the results. For instance, in the American NSs data, the high percentage use of *subjectivizer* can be accepted as one of these noticeable issues. The percentage use of this downgrader is 42.1% in the American NSs data. Despite this high percentage, this downgrader was not used by the beginner learner group and it was used only in 4.2% of the requests of the upper intermediate learner group. It seems to be like development, but the very low percentage use in the upper intermediate group conceals the possibility that they learned this modifier. An example from the upper intermediate data is provided below.

Upper Intermediate
   1) *I wonder* if you have that book on Globalization in Europe and borrow me.

The reason of this big difference as to the use of this downgrader between the learner and American NSs results from a request structure type which was used frequently by the American NSs, but was not employed by the learner groups. As it was mentioned in the overall syntactic downgrader use part, American NSs used the

request strategies like "I wonder if…" most of the time in their requests. As a result, the percentage use of subjectivizer like *I wonder* which expresses the opinion of the speaker was increased in the American NSs data. Because the learner groups did not use such request strategies, the percentage use of subjectivizer is not high in these groups.

Similar to the subjectivizer, the *consultative device* was also highly preferred by the American NSs, 21.1%, but it was not used learner groups. In addition to these, *downtoner* is another frequently used lexical and phrasal downgrader type which was employed in 15.8% of the requests in the American NSs group. On the other hand, upper intermediate group did not use it and the beginner group used it in 4.2% of their requests. If these percentages of the beginner and upper intermediate groups are considered, the regressive movement in the learner groups regarding the use of this downgrader can be seen clearly. The following downtoner examples are from the learner data.

Beginner

2) Can you *maybe* give your book to me?

Moreover, *understater* is another grounder which was used by the American NSs in 5.3% of their request. However, neither of the learner groups used this grounder in their requests in this situation.

The lexical and phrasal grounders whose results were presented and discussed up to now are the ones used by the American NSs. Apart from these, there are also downgraders that were only used by the learner groups. Politeness marker please is one of them. While the learner groups used politeness marker *please* in this situation in asking for the book of the professor, the American NSs and the Turkish NSs did not employ this politeness marker in their requests. As it was suggested by Mızıkacı (1991) by considering the results of her study, in Turkish language, *please* is generally used to imply obligation of the hearer to do the act. Thus, it is possible that this idea prevented the Turkish NSs from using these markers for this situation in which the subjects ask for the book of the professor who has a higher social status than the subjects. Similarly, American NSs might have also though that politeness

marker is not an appropriate downgrader in this situation because just like the Turkish NSs, they did not also use please in this situation. At this point, the tendency of the learners groups of both levels to use please in their requests appear to be strange while it was not used by Turkish NSs and American NSs. As the probable explanation for this issue, the idea of Faerch and Kasper (1989) can be regarded here. The use of the beginner and upper intermediate groups' politeness marker please in 8.3%, 12.5%, respectively may result from the intention of these learners to ensure *clarity*. To ensure that their utterances appear to be like requests in an explicit way, they might have preferred the use of *please* despite the fact that the hearer is a professor with a higher social status than the subjects. Examples of the learners' use of please are presented below.

Beginner

   3) Can you give it [your book] to me, *please*?

Upper Intermediate

   4) Can I take your book, *please*?

4.3.2.2.2. Situation 2 (Asking for a Lift from a Professor)

As it can be seen in Table 30, the percentage use of the lexical and phrasal downgraders for the American NSs is 100% in this situation. While the beginner level group used these downgraders in 20.9% of their requests, the upper intermediate group employed these strategies in 25.0% of their requests. Despite such development resulting from the increasing percentage uses in the learner groups, the upper intermediate group still could not manage to use as many phrasal and lexical downgraders as the American NSs did in this situation. The statistical results showed that there is a significant difference among the groups [$F(3,70)=7.3$, $p= .000$] and Post-Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test showed that the difference between the learner groups and the American NSs as to the use of lexical and phrasal downgrader is statistically significant($p<.05$).

Table 30. Percentages for the types of lexical phrasal downgrader use in the second situation.

Groups	Pl. M.	Cn. D.	Unds.	Hed.	Subj.	Down.	Cajoler	Appl.	TOTAL
Beginner	16.7	0	0	0	0	0	4.2	0	20.9
Upper	8.3	4.2	0	0	0	8.3	0	4.2	25.0
Turkish NSs	0	0	3.8	0	30	0	3.8	3.8	41.4
American NSs	0	15.8	10.5	0	42.1	5.2	21.1	5.3	100

Apart from these results and discussions related to the total percentage use of the lexical and phrasal downgraders within the groups, the use of specific types of lexical and phrasal downgraders also presents some important issues in this situation. First of all, similar to the first situation, the high percentage use of *subjectivizer* appears to be noticeable within the results of the American NSs group. The percentage use of this strategy is 42.1% for this group. However, it was not used by the learner groups. As it was explained in the first situation, the request strategy type "*I wonder* if ..." was used a lot by the American NSs. However, it was not used by the learner groups. As a result the percentage use of the subjectivizer which was used in such requests, could not reach the norm of the American NSs in the learner groups.

In addition to these points, the high percentage use of the *cajoler* appears to be noticeable in the results of the American NSs. While the percentage use of this strategy is 21.1% in the American NSs group, the percentage use of this strategy in beginner group is 4.2% and it was not used by the upper intermediate group. An example from the beginner group data is presented below.

Beginner

1) *You know* I don't have a car.

A possible cause for the low percentage use of cajoler in the learner groups may result from the informal characteristic of it. The learner groups may have thought that such an informal use is not appropriate in this situation. However, the American NSs may not have shared the same idea with the learner groups because while they did not use cajoler in the first situation, they employed it in the second one. At this point the effect of different weight of the distance factor in the first and the second situation may be suggested as a reason. Because of the fact that unlike the first situation, in the second one the professor knows and is close to the subjects, the American NSs might have thought that cajoler is the appropriate downgrader in this situation. However, the same idea must not have shared by the learner groups because they did not use this strategy or keep its percentage very low.

As well as the subjectivizer and the cajoler, the *consultative device* is also a highly used downgrader in the American NSs' data. The percentage use of this phrase is 15.8% in this group. However, it was not used by the beginner subjects. The upper intermediate group used it, but the percentage use is only 4.2%. An example for consultative device from the upper intermediate data is:

Upper Intermediate

  2) *Do you mind* if I go with your car?

Understater is another downgrader which was used by American NSs, but was not employed by the learner groups. While the percentage use of this downgrader is 10.5% in this group, it was not used by the learner groups. Of the remaining downgraders, the percentage uses of *downtoner* and *appealer* are 5.3% in the American NSs group. The downtoner was not used by the beginner subjects. However, it was employed by the upper intermediate subjects more than the American NSs. The percentage use of this downgrader is 8.3% in the upper intermediate group. An example for downtoner from the upper intermediate data is given below.

Upper Intermediate

  3) Can you give me a lift *maybe* if you are going there?

On the other hand, as to the use of *appealer*, the upper intermediate group stands very close to the norm of the American NSs. While the percentage use of appealer is 4.2% in the upper intermediate group, it is 5.3% in the American NSs

group. An example from the upper intermediate data is provided below.

Upper Intermediate

4) You are going home. *Aren't you?*

In addition to all these results and discussions on the lexical and phrasal downgraders in the American NSs group as the baseline data source, there are also other noticeable results regarding the downgraders which were only used by the learner groups. For instance, similar to the first situation, the politeness marker please was used only by the learner groups in this situation while it was not employed by the American and Turkish NSs. However, unlike the case in the first situation this time, there is a development as to the use of please. While the percentage use of this politeness marker is 16.7% in the beginner group, it decreases to 8.3% in the upper intermediate group. Despite this decrease, as it was stated in the first situation, the learner groups still insisted on using please in their requests unlike American NSs. The reason for that as discussed before may be the concern of the learners to be clear by marking their utterances as requests with these politeness markers. The following examples are from the learner data.

Beginner

5) *Please*, you leave me home.

Upper Intermediate

6) *Please*, take me into your car

4.3.2.2.3. Situation 3 (Asking for Notes from a Friend)

The statistical results showed that there is no significant difference among the groups. [$F_{(3,70)}=2.5$, p= .065]. As it can be seen in Table 31, the percentage use of the lexical and phrasal downgrader in this situation is 42.1% for the American NSs. The percentage uses of lexical and phrasal downgraders for the beginner and upper intermediate groups are 12.6% and 45.7%, respectively. According to the Post-Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test, the learner groups came closer to the American NSs norm as to using lexical and phrasal downgraders in this situation because the difference between the American NSs and the other groups is not statistically significant (p>.05).

Table 31. Percentages for the types of lexical phrasal downgrader use in the third situation.

Groups	Pl. M.	Cn. D.	Unds.	Hed.	Subj.	Down.	Cajoler	Appl.	TOTAL
Beginner	4.2	0	0	0	0	4.2	4.2	0	12.6
Upper	12.5	4.2	0	0	4.2	4.2	20.8	0	45.7
Turkish NSs	0	0	0	0	0	0	3.8	15.0	18.2
American NSs	0	15.8	0	0	10.5	5.3	10.5	0	42.1

Apart from these points as to the specific use of the lexical and phrasal downgraders in the American NSs group, it can be said that the most frequently used downgrader is *consultative device*. The percentage use of this downgrader is 15.8% in the American NSs group. However, while it was not used by the beginner level subjects, the percentage use of this phrase is only 4.2% in the upper intermediate

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group. An example for consultative device from the upper intermediate data is provided below.

Upper Intermediate

1) *Do you mind* if I want to take your notes?

If the low percentages for consultative device in the previous situations for the learner groups are considered as well as this one, it may be said that learner groups could not acquire this phrase thoroughly or because they are not sure about where to use it, they avoid using it.

Another highly used downgrader is *cajoler* for the American NSs group in this situation. Because of asking note of the close friend, in other words a hearer with low power and low distance, it is possible that American NSs used this informal downgrader, cajoler a lot. There are many instances of phrases like *you know...* in the American NSs data. The percentage use of this phrase is 10.5% in the American NSs group. Upper intermediate group might be aware of this informal use of the cajoler because the percentage use of this phrase is even more than the American NSs'. Upper intermediate students used these phrases in 20.8% of their requests. On the other hand, the beginner group' percentage use is only 4.2%, so they do not seem to be aware of the appropriateness of this phrase in an informal speech like that with a close friend. The following examples are from the upper intermediate learner data.

Upper Intermediate

2) *You know* I wasn't here last week.

In addition to these points, *subjectivizer and downtoner* are the lexical and phrasal downgraders used by the American NSs in 10.5% of their requests. As to the use of subjectivizer, it can be suggested that the learner groups do not seem to learn these downgraders because while the percentage use is 4.2% in the upper intermediate group, the beginner subjects did not use subjectivizer in their requests. An example from the upper intermediate data is given below.

Upper Intermediate

3) *I suppose* you have the notes

On the other hand, as to the use of *downtoner* both of the learner groups can manage to approach very close to the American NSs norm. The percentage use of this lexical downgrader is 4.2% in each of the learner groups and 5.3% in the American NSs group. The following examples are taken from the learners' data.
Beginner

4) Can you *perhaps* give your notes to me?

Upper Intermediate

5) Can you *maybe* give me your notes?

Lastly, as it was the case in the previous situations, while please as the politeness marker was not used by the American, the percentage use of this marker is 4.2% in the beginner group and 12.5% in the upper intermediate group. Two examples are provided below.
Beginner

6) Please, give me your notes

Upper Intermediate

7) Can you give me your notes, please?

4.3.2.2.4. Situation 4 (Asking for the Menu at the Restaurant)

As it can be seen in the Table 32, American NSs used the less percentage use of lexical and phrasal downgraders in this situation than the ones discussed up to now. The percentage for this group is 10.5%. While beginner subjects used lexical and phrasal downgraders in 12.5% of their requests, the upper intermediate group's percentage use is 25.0%. According to ANOVA there is no significant difference among the groups [$F(3,70)=1.2$, p= .301] and Post-Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the difference between the percentage use of the American NSs and the learner groups' is not statistically significant (p<.05). It means that learner groups could manage to come closer to the American NSs norm regarding the use of lexical and phrasal downgrader use in this situation.

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Table 32. Percentages for the types of lexical phrasal downgrader use in the fourth situation.

Groups	Pl. M.	Cn. D.	Unds.	Hed.	Subj.	Down.	Cajoler	Appl.	TOTAL
Beginner	12.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	12.5
Upper	16.7	0	0	0	4.2	0	0	4.2	25.0
Turkish NSs	7.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7.5
American NSs	10.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10.5

In addition to these points, when the American NSs results are examined regarding the specific use of the lexical and phrasal downgrader types, it can be seen that the only phrasal and downgrader used by this group is *politeness marker*, please. The percentage use of this marker in this group is 10.5%. The percentage uses of the same marker in the beginner and upper intermediate groups are 12.5% and 16.7%, respectively. An interesting point related to these results is that while American NSs used the politeness marker please, for the first time while asking for the menu at the restaurant, learner groups used this marker in all of the situations up to now. Thus, overgeneralization can be the way that these learner groups applied. Examples of the use of please in the learners' data are presented below.

Beginner

I want the menu, *please.*

Upper Intermediate

I want to take the menu *please.*

4.3.2.2.5. Situation 5 (Ordering Food)

Table 33. Percentages for the types of lexical phrasal downgrader use in the fifth situation.

Groups	Pl. M.	Cn. D.	Unds.	Hed.	Subj.	Down.	Cajoler	Appl.	TOTAL
Beginner	4.2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4.2
Upper	16.7	0	0	12.5	8.3	0	0	0	37.4
Turkish NSs	3.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3.8
American NSs	5.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5.3

As it can be seen in the Table 33, while ordering food from the waiter, the American NSs used the least percentage use of lexical and phrasal downgraders. The percentage use of these downgraders in this group is 5.3%. The percentage uses of these downgraders the beginner group is 4.2%. On the other hand, upper intermediate group's percentage use for the lexical and phrasal downgrader is very high. It is 37.4%.

In addition to these points, when the specific types of the lexical and phrasal downgraders are examined in this situation, it can be seen that American NSs used only *politeness marker,* please as the lexical and phrasal downgrader and the percentage use of this lexical and phrasal downgrader is 5.3%. The percentage uses of the same marker for the beginner and upper intermediate groups are 4.2% and 16.7%, respectively. Some examples from the learner data are provided below.

Beginner

I want to order meat, *please*

Upper Intermediate

I want to have a burger, *please*.

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At this point, there is an issue which is worth being mentioned here. As it can be seen within the results, American NSs used please only in the last two situations in which the power of the hearer is low. Conversely, they did not employ please, in the other situations. However, the learner groups employed this politeness marker in all of the situations. Thus this shows that there is something related to the use of please that the American NSs know, but the learner groups do not. This important factor is pointed out by House and Kasper (1987). According to them, please has a dual function. While it signals politeness and thus serves as a mitigation device, at the same time it functions as an illocutionary force indicator which clearly signals the requestive force of the locution. Thus, it is possible that the American NSs took into account this dual function of please and used this politeness marker only in the last two situations in which the power of the hearer is low and by some means the speaker's request is a rightful demand in the context. Apart from this issue, the concern of the learners to be clear may also be accepted as a reason of the overuse of please in the learner group. These learner groups may have wanted to make use of the explicit function of please in marking the utterances as requests in an apparent way.

4.3.2.3. Lexical and Phrasal Downgrader Use Development of the Learner Groups through the Situations

As it was mentioned in the *Lexical and Phrasal Downgrader Use* in some situations the learner groups could manage to come closer to the norms of the American NSs, but sometimes possibly because of their incompetence as to the structure or the mitigating effects of the lexical and the phrasal downgraders, their percentage use of the lexical and phrasal downgraders seemed to be considerably low than the American NSs.

Apart from these points, while passing from one situation to another, if their lexical and phrasal downgrader use in accordance with the changing power and distance issues is considered, it can be seen that they had serious problems.

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When their results were scrutinized, it appeared that while passing from the high power situations (asking for a book from a professor, asking for a lift from a professor) to the low power situations (asking for the notes from a friend, asking for the menu at the restaurant and ordering food) the learner groups did not take into account the changing social variables of power and distance. For instance, the beginner learners' percentage uses of the lexical and phrasal downgraders while asking for the book of the professor and asking for the menu are the same. The percentage use is 12.5% in these situations. In the same way, while asking for the notes of their friends, they used nearly the same percentage lexical and phrasal downgrader as they used while asking for the book of the professor. While their percentage use is 12.6% in the note situation, the percentage is 12.5% in the book situation. They did not decrease or increase their percentage use while passing from one situation to another with different weight power or distance. Their percentage uses are very close to one another. This shows that the beginner level learners are not aware of the need to use lexical and phrasal downgraders in accordance with the changing weight of power and distance or maybe they know this fact, but they are not proficient enough to use the necessary amount and type of lexical and phrasal downgraders. On the other hand the fact that they used the least percentage use in the ordering food situation like the American NSs did can be considered as development.

In the same way, the upper intermediate learner group also did not consider the changing power and distance variables from one situation to another. Their percentage uses did not decrease or increase in a coherent way in accordance with the changing weights of power and distance. For instance, the lexical and phrasal percentage use of the third situation (asking for the notes from a friend) is nearly two times bigger than the percentage use in the high power situations (asking for a book of a professor and asking for a lift from a professor). While the percentage uses are 20.8% and 25.0% in the asking for the book of the professor and asking for a lift from the professor situations, respectively, the percentage increases to 45.7% in the asking for notes from a friend situation. Even the percentage use, 37.4% in the ordering food situation is higher than the percentage uses in the high power

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situations. This suggests that the upper intermediate group is not aware of the need to manipulate their percentage use in accordance with the changing power and distance variables through the situations.

4.4. External Modification Use

As Brown and Levinson (1987) indicate to be able to have successful communication face must be saved. In the case of requests as mentioned before this can be managed via indirectness, internal and external modification. The finding related to indirectness and internal modification have been dwelled on and at this part of the study, to elaborate the issues related to requests more now the findings as to external modification will be taken up. Of the external modifiers introduced at the methodology part of the present study, being the baseline data, the ones existing in American NSs group's data will be reflected on in the following parts.

4.4.1. Overall External Use

External modifiers are supportive moves which can precede or follow the request strategies. Compared to the other mitigating strategies, they are more independent mitigating items and as a result they are used a lot. For instance, while a speaker can use limitless grounders in a request situation to give reasons, explanations or justifications for his or her request, s/he cannot use so many syntactic downgraders like durative aspect marker –ing in his or her requests.

The statistical results showed that there is a significant difference among the groups [F(3,70)=19.5, p= .000] as to the use of external modification use. As it can be seen in Table 34, the percentage use of these mitigating strategies in the American NSs group is 42.5%. On the other hand, the percentage use of these strategies in the

beginner group is 13.3% and it is %20.6 in the upper intermediate group. This increasing percentages show that there is development in the learner groups regarding the use of external modification, but according to the Post-Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test, the difference between the American NSs and the learner groups is statistically significant ($p<.05$) It shows that although the learner groups came closer to the American NSs norm as to the use of external modification, their use of these strategies is not still sufficient.

Table 34. Percentages for overall external modification use.

Groups	Percentages
Beginner	13.3
Upper Int.	20.6
Turkish NSs	32.7
American NSs	42.5

The similar results were also seen in the studies of Trosborg (1995) and Hill (1997). In these studies just like the present study, the learner groups could not come closer to the percentage use of the external modifiers in the native speaker groups. There are also some other studies whose results showed the opposite. The studies of House and Kasper (1987) and Schauer (2004) are some examples for these studies. The results of these studies showed that the learner groups use internal modifiers excessively more than the native speakers.

At this point, an interesting issue appears. Although all of these studies searched the same thing, external modification, their findings are different. Sometimes the learner groups used external modifications more than the native speakers and at other times they could not reach their norms. A possible cause of the difference in the results of these studies can be explained by the tentative hypothesis

of House and Kasper (1987). They claimed that the learners confront with a tension between social difficulty and linguistic difficulty. If the social difficulty is higher, the learners employ the gush strategy. According to this strategy, the more the learners talk, the likelier it is that some of their talk will be effective. On the other hand, if the linguistic difficulty is higher, the reduction strategy is used by the learners. According to this strategy, the less the learners talk, the fewer mistakes they make. By following this way, they try to avoid the social embarrassment. Thus, it is possible that in the studies in which the learners used fewer external modifiers than the native speakers, the learner groups confronted with the heavy pressure of linguistic difficulty and in the other studies in which the learners used more external modifiers than the native speakers, the learner groups confronted the social difficulty and applied to verbosity. If the fewer external modifiers used by the learner groups compared to the American NSs are considered, it can be suggested that for the learner groups in this study the pressure of linguistic difficulty is bigger than the pressure of social difficulty.

In addition to the results presented and discussed above, the findings related to the specific types of external modification is also worth being stated here. The coding scheme revealed that the groups used preparators, grounders, getting a precommitment and imposition minimizers. Since the preparator and grounder micro strategies were almost always used in combinations, they were collapsed into a single group, namely preparator+ grounder (PG). Table 35 shows the results of the frequency of these strategies. The results showed that the specific types of external modifiers that the American NSs used were employed by the learner groups, as well. However, the percentages of these modifiers are less in the learner groups than the American NSs.

Table 35. Percentages for types of overall external modification use.

Types	Beginner	Upper Int.	Turkish NSs	American NSs
Preparator+ grounder (PG)	11.7	16.2	22.4	23.6
Imposition Minimizer	1.2	2.4	10.3	17.4
Getting a Precommitment	0.4	2.0	0	1.5
TOTAL	13.3	20.6	32.7	42.5

As it can be seen in Table 35, *preparator+grounder* (PG) combination is the most frequently selected means of all the external modifiers in the American NSs group. They used preparators to prepare the hearer for the following request and made use of grounders to give reasons, justifications for the requests. The percentage use of this combination in the American NSs group is 23.6%.

Like the American NSs, the learner groups also used PG more than the other external modifiers in the study. These high percentages show that the learner groups recognized the importance of these modifiers to gain compliance from the hearer. The percentage uses of PG are 16.2% and 11.7% in upper intermediate and beginner groups, respectively. Related to PG, it can be said that there is development in the learner groups' using these strategies because the percentage use of PG rise from 11.7% in the beginner group to 16.2% in the upper intermediate group. Some examples for PG are given below.

American NSs

1. *It' about the assignment we have to do for the class. I have been to the library already and it seems like all of the books about the paper have been checked out. I couldn't find anything relevant to use...* (asking for a book from a professor)

Beginner

2. *I want you to do something. I couldn't find any book.* (asking for a book from a professor)

Upper Intermediate

3. *I want to ask for something. I went to the library. I couldn't find something about that [the project on Globalization in Europe]* (asking for a book from a professor)

In addition to PG, *imposition minimizer* was also frequently used by the American NSs. This modifier is used to make the hearer less reluctant to comply with the request. The percentage use of this modifier is % 17.4 in this group. This modifier was used in 2.4% and 1.2 % of the requests in the upper intermediate and beginner learner groups, respectively. Although there seems to be development between the groups, compared to the percentage use in the American NSs group their percentages are very low. The following examples are provided for the use of imposition minimizer:

American NSs

4) *If you don't mind* may I borrow your notes? (asking for the notes of the close friend)

Beginner

5) *If you are going to your neighborhood*, could I come with you? (asking for a lift from a professor)

Upper Intermediate

6) Can I take it [the book] *if you want?* (asking for a book from a professor)

In addition to all these modifiers, there is also a last one, *getting a precommitment.* It is used to secure a commitment in advance that the request will be complied with. This modifier has the potential to be face threatening because there is always the possibility that the hearer may be reluctant to commit himself or herself before learning what the request is in detail. The groups may be aware of this fact because this external modifier was the least used strategy by the groups. The percentage use of getting a precommitment is 1.5% in the American NSs group. The percentage of this modifier is 0.4% in the beginner groups and it increases to 2.0% in

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the upper intermediate group. Although the percentages seem to be low, there is still development in the learner groups. Some examples for the use of getting a precommitment are presented below.

American NSs

7) I was wondering if *you could do me a favour today*. (asking for a lift from a professor)

Beginner

8) *Can you help me?* I need this book. (asking for a book from a professor)

Upper Intermediate

9) *Can you help me*? ... I can't find a taxi.

 (asking for a lift from a professor)

4.4.2. External Modification Use in Situations

In this part of the study the results as to the situational variation in the use of external modifiers will be presented and discussed in each situation. Moreover, in accordance with the research questions, the development of the learner groups and the transfer effects as to use of external modifiers in the situations with differing social variables will be the dwelled on. At the end of this part, external modification use development of the learner groups through the situations will be also taken up.

4.4.2.1. Situation 1 (Asking for a Book from a Professor)

In the first situation, as it can be seen in Table 36, possibly because of the high power and distance variables, the percentage use of the external modifiers is very high in the American NSs group. The percentage use of these modifiers in the American NSs group is 100%. On the other hand in the learner groups the

percentages are lower. The percentage use of the external modifiers is 28.3 % in the beginner level group and this rises to the 52.5 % in the upper intermediate group. The statistical results showed that there is a significant difference among the groups. $[F_{(3,70)}=12.1, p= .000]$ and Post-Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the difference between the American NSs and beginner group is statistically significant which means that this group could not come closer to the American NSs norm in this situation as to the use of external modifiers($p<.05$). However, the difference of this native group with the upper intermediate group is not statistically significant ($p>.05$). Thus, compared to the beginner group the upper intermediate group seems to be better at this point and there is development within the learner groups' use of external modifiers.

Table 36. Percentages for the types of external modification use in the first situation.

Groups	PG	Imp. Min.	Getting Pre.	TOTAL
Beginner	22.3	4.0	2.0	28.3
Upper Int.	40.4	8.1	4.0	52.5
Turkish NSs	49.3	33.0	0	82.3
American NSs	53.9	43.5	2.6	100.0

In addition to these points related to the total percentage uses of the external modifiers, the specific types of these modifiers also present important points. When the American NSs data is examined, it can be seen that *PG* is the most frequently used supportive move in this situation. When the context is considered, asking for the book of the professor who is more powerful than the subjects, preparing the

professor for the ensuing request and giving reasons and justifications frequently for the request is an expected result. The percentage use of PG is 53.9% in the American NSs group. Like this group, learner groups also used PG as the most frequent one in this situation. While the percentage use of it is 22.3% in the beginner group, it increases to 40.4% in the upper intermediate group. Thus there is development within the learner groups regarding the use of PG. Some examples from the learner data are:

Beginner
    1) *I want to ask you a question. I need a book and I didn't find it in the library...*
Upper Intermediate
    2) *I have a project, Globalization in Europe, but I couldn't find any useful books in the library. I saw a book in your office...*

In addition to PG, American NS also used *imposition minimizer*, to be able to reduce the imposition. The percentage use of this modifier is 43.5% in this group while the percentage use of imposition minimizer is 4.0 % in the beginner group and it increases to 8.1% in the upper intermediate group. Although there is development, when the percentage use, 43.5% in the American NSs group is taken into account, they do not seem to doing well regarding the use of this modifier. The following examples are from the learner data.
Beginner
    3) Can I take the book? *I will bring it 30 minutes later*.
Upper Intermediate
    4) *If you have the book*, can you give it to me?

Lastly, in a very low percentage, *getting precommitment* was also used by the American NSs. The percentage use of it is 2.6% in this group. The beginner and upper intermediate groups used getting precommitment, but the percentages are very low. The percentage uses are 2.0 % and 4.0% in the beginner and upper intermediate learner groups, respectively. The following examples are from the learner data.

Beginner

    5) *Can you help me?...* I need this book.

Upper Intermediate

    6) Can you help me? I have homework.

4.4.2.2. Situation 2 (Asking for a Lift from a Professor)

As it can be seen in Table 37, the percentage use of the external modifiers in this situation for the American NSs is 74.2% .On the other hand, the learner groups percentage uses are very low. While the beginner level subjects' percentage use of external modifier is 8.1%, it is 16.2% in upper intermediate group. the statistical results showed that there is significant difference among the groups [F(3,70)=21.6, p= .000] and although there seems to be development within the groups, the statistical results showed that both of the learner groups could not manage to come closer to the American NSs norm in this situation because the difference between the learner groups and the American NSs is statistically significant(p<.05).

Table 37. Percentages for the types of external modification use in the second situation.

Groups	PG	Imp. Min.	Getting Pre.	TOTAL
Beginner	6.1	2.0	0	8.1
Upper Int.	6.1	4.0	6.1	16.2
Turkish NSs	34.8	14.6	0.0	49.4
American NSs	43.5	28.1	2.6	74.2

In addition to all these results and discussion on the total percentage use of the external modifiers, the findings related to the specific types of these modifiers are also important. First, similar to the first situation, the most frequently used supportive move is *PG* in this situation. The percentage use of PG in the American NSs group is 43.5%. However, it was not used much by the learner groups. The percentage use of PG is 6.1% in both of the learner groups. As well as not showing development the learner groups also could not also come closer too the norm of the American NSs. The examples below illustrate how the preparator and the grounder were combined by the learner groups.

Beginner

1) *Are you going home?..I miss the last bus and I have to wait for 50 minutes here.*

Upper Intermermediate

2) *We live in the same neighbourhood and I missed the last bus.*

In addition to the PG use, *imposition minimizer* was also used by the American NSs to reduce the imposition of the request. The percentage use of this modifier in this group is 28.1%. It was also used by the learner groups, but the percentage use is very low. While the beginner level learner used imposition minimizer in 2.0% of their requests, upper intermediate group used them in 4.0% of their requests. It is a fact that there is development in the use of imposition minimizer within the learner groups, but their percentage uses are considerably less than the American NSs'. The following examples are from the learner data.

Beginner

3) *If you are going to your neighborhood*, could I come with you?

Upper Intermediate

4) Can you give me a lift maybe *if you are going there*?

As the last modifier, *getting precommitment* is seen in the American NSs' data. The percentage use of this modifier is 2.6% in this group while the percentage

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use is 6.1% in the upper intermediate group. An example from the upper intermediate data is given below.

Upper Intermediate

5) *Can you help me*? ... I can't find a taxi.

4.4.2.3. Situation 3 (Asking for Notes from a Friend)

As it can be seen in Table 38, the percentage use of external modifiers in this situation is 35.9% in the American NSs group. Regarding the learner groups, in the beginner group the percentage use is 30.4% and in the upper intermediate group the percentage use of external modifier is 26.2%. the statistical results showed that there is no significant difference among the groups [F(3,70)=1.4, p= .260] and Post-Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the difference between the percentage uses of the American NSs and the learner groups is not statistically significant (p>.05). It means that they could come closer to the norm of the American NSs.

Table 38. Percentages for the types of external modification use in the third situation.

Groups	PG	Imp. Min.	Getting Pre.	TOTAL
Beginner	30.4	0	0	30.4
Upper Int.	26.2	0	0	26.2
Turkish NSs	27.5	3.7	0	31.2
American NSs	20.5	12.8	2.6	35.9

As well as these points regarding the total percentage use of the external modifiers, the specific types of external modifiers are also worth being stated here. Similar to the results in the previous situations, *PG* is the most frequently employed type in the American NSs data. However, compared to the previous high power situations, its percentage is lower in this situation. The percentage use of PG in the American NSs group is 20.5%. The percentages for beginner group and upper intermediate group are as follows 30.4%, 26.2%, respectively. Examples of the learners' PG use are presented below.

Beginner

1) *I need you help. I couldn't come last week.*

Upper Intermediate

2) *I suppose you have the notes. I didn't come last week and I can't understand anything now.*

The results related to the remaining external modifiers namely, *imposition minimizer* and *getting a precommitment* are also noticeable. While these modifiers were used by the American NSs, the learner groups did not use them. The percentage uses of imposition minimizer and getting precommitment in the American NSs data are 12.8%, 2.6%, respectively. The following examples are from the American NSs data.

American NSs

3) *If you don't mind*, may I borrow them [your notes] (imposition minimizer use)

4) *Can I ask for a huge favour*? You know I wasn't here last week. (getting a precommitment use)

4.4.2.4. Situation 4 (Asking for the Menu at the Restaurant)

The statistical results showed that there is a significant difference among the groups. [$F_{(3,70)}=3.6$, p= .018]. As it can be seen in Table 39, the percentage uses decrease in all of the groups. The percentage use is 2.6% in the American NSs group. On the other hand the beginner level learners did not use any external modifiers in this situation while the percentage use is 8.1% in the upper intermediate group. The Post-Hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the difference between the American NSs and the upper intermediate group is not statistically significant (p>.05). It means that they came closer to the norms of the American NSs.

Table 39. Percentages for the types of external modification use in the fourth situation.

Groups	PG	Getting Pre.	Imp. Min.	TOTAL
Beginner	0	0	0	0
Upper Int.	8.1	0	0	8.1
Turkish NSs	0	0	0	0
American NSs	0	0	2.6	2.6

More specifically, when the results related to types of external modifier is examined, it can be seen that the American NS group only used imposition minimizer in 2.6% of their requests and the upper intermediate group employed PG as the external modifier in 8.1% of their requests. The following example is from the upper intermediate data.

Upper Intermediate

    1) *I don't have a menu and I'm really very hungry*. (PG use)

4.4.2.5 Situation 5 (Ordering Food)

Table 40. Percentages for the types of external modification use in the fifth situation.

Groups	PG	Getting Pre.	Imp. Min.	TOTAL
Beginner	0	0	0	0
Upper Int.	0	0	0	0
Turkish NSs	0	0	0	0
American NSs	0	0	0	0

As it can be seen in the Table 40, none of the groups employed external modification while ordering food in the restaurant. When the nature of this situation is considered, this result is not unexpected.

4.4.3. External Modification Use Development of the Learner Groups through the Situations

As it was mentioned in the *External Modification Use in Situations* part the results showed that in high power situations (asking for a book from a professor, asking for a lift from a professor) the learner groups had difficulty from time to time,

but in low power situations (asking for the notes from a friend, asking for the menu at the restaurant) they appeared to be more close to the norm of the American NSs. These are the results as to the pragmatic competence of the learner groups in each of the situation.

When their pragmatic development as to using external modifiers through the situations was examined the results showed that the learner groups from time to time could not manage to manipulate the percentage use of the external modifiers coherently in accordance with the changing power and distance weights through the situations.

For instance, when the learners' external modifier percentage uses in the high power situations were compared with the low power situations', it appeared that they could not decrease the percentage use of the external modifiers while passing from high power situations to the low power situations as American NSs did. For instance, while the percentage uses of the beginner and upper intermediate groups are 8.1% and 16.2% in the second high power situation(asking for a lift from a professor), these percentages increased in the third low power situation(asking for the notes from a friend). While the percentage use of the beginner group is 30.4% in asking for the notes of the close friend situation, the percentage use of the upper intermediate group is 26.2% for the same situation. Thus, the learner groups increased their external modifier use percentages while passing from high power situation to the low power situation without taking into account that in the third situation (asking for the notes from a friend) both the hearer and the speaker are of equal status and the relationship is close.

However, while passing from the third situation (asking for notes from a friend) to the fourth one (asking for the menu at the restaurant), it is possible that they considered the difference between these two situations as to the weight of power and distance because they considerably decreased their percentage use in the fourth situation. While the percentage use of the external modifiers in the beginner group is 30.4% in the third situation (asking for notes from a friend), in the fourth situation this percentage was decreased to 0% in the fourth situation (asking for the menu at

the restaurant). In the same way the percentage use of the upper intermediate group, 26.2% in the third situation (asking for notes from a friend) was decreased to 8.1% in the fourth situation (asking for the menu at the restaurant).

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

5.1 Presentation

This study has two main objectives. In the overall sense, it aims at contributing to the literature to widen the scope of the Interlanguage pragmatics research and at a specific level it aims at exploring the pragmatic development in an EFL context by focusing on Turkish learners of English. In this chapter, first the summary of the study will be given. Next the summary of the findings and the conclusions drawn from these findings will be presented with reference research questions.

5.2 Summary of the study

This study aimed to contribute to the growing need in pragmatics as to L2 request development by exploring requesting behaviors of the learners. For this purpose, the data were collected from four different subject groups. There were two learner groups and two control groups. The first learner group consisted of beginner level subjects and the second group comprised of upper intermediate level subjects. Of the control groups, the first one included American native speakers and the second one included Turkish native speakers. The data from all subjects were collected by means of interactive role play. Each subject was provided with five request situations differing in terms of the power and distance variables. In the first situation the subjects asked for the book of their professor and in the second one they asked for a lift from their professor. The difference between the first and second

situation is that while in the first situation there is distance between the professor and the subject in the second situation they know each other very well. Following these, in the third situation the subjects requested the class notes of their close friends and lastly in a restaurant they asked for the menu and order food. The videotaped interactions were transcribed according to the CHAT manual (Mac Whinney 2000). Following the data collection process, the performances of the subjects in five situations were studied in terms of the directness levels, internal and external modification. For the statistical calculations in the study, one way ANOVA and t-test were employed.

As a result of the study, ample data answering the research questions was collected. The following section will present the findings obtained through the study.

5.3 Findings

The study yielded the following major findings on the use of directness level, internal modification and external modification in the developing requesting behavior of the learners from two different proficiency levels.

5.3.1. Directness Use

The findings as to the use of directness level use will be introduced in two parts. In the first part, the findings will be presented in the overall sense. In the second part, the findings as to the situational variation will be underlined. In each of these parts, findings will be introduced with reference to the research questions, so directness use proficiency, more specifically the proficiency in using direct, conventionally indirect, non -conventionally indirect request strategies and in relation to these, development and transfer factors will be on the foreground. At the

end of this part findings related to directness level use development of the learner groups through the situations will also be taken up.

5.3.1.1 Findings Related to Overall Directness Level Use

The results showed that beginner level subjects are considerably more direct than the American NSs in the overall direct strategy use. The combined effect was suggested at this point. The overuse was partly explained by the L1 transfer and partly their incompetence related to linguistic means to realize more indirect strategies. Related to L1 transfer, it was found that Turkish NSs group is the most indirect one within all groups in the study, so this is accepted as a possible reason for the overuse of the direct strategies in the beginner group. The examination of the micro –strategies of the direct requests supported this possibility, as well. It was found that both in the Turkish NSs and the beginner group, the most frequently used micro-strategy is *want statement*. This finding appeared to be a strong evidence for the transfer from L1 especially in the level of want statement. Besides, the low language proficiency level of the beginner level subjects was also considered as a possible reason for the overuse of the direct strategies in this group. It was suggested that because they are not proficient enough to use more complicated indirect strategies, they had to limit their requests with simple direct request strategies. On the other hand, the data more revealed that there is development within the learner groups as to the use of direct strategies because compared to the beginner level subjects, upper intermediate subjects used fewer direct strategies. This development was identified especially at the level of want statement use.

Regarding conventionally indirect strategies, it was found that these strategies are the most frequently used ones in all of the groups. As the statistical results proved, both of the learner groups came closer to the American NSs norm regarding the use of these strategies. Besides, as to the development factor, it was found that the learner groups seemed to show development by increasing their use as

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proficiency level increased. However, slightly more use of the conventionally indirect strategies especially at the level of preparatory in the upper intermediate group was also noticed. This issue was attributed to the excessive focus on the conventionally indirect strategy uses in the EFL classes.

As to the use of non- conventionally indirect strategies, more specifically hints in the micro- strategy level, the results showed that the learner groups underused these strategies. This underuse was attributed to some reasons like learners' tendency for clarity and instructional effects. It was suggested that the learners may have considered their restricted competence in comparison to native speakers and to ensure that they are making themselves understood, they may have preferred employing clearer linguistic activities. Besides, the EFL classes were dwelled on and the excessive focus on the conventionally indirect strategies and accordingly ignorance of the non-conventionally indirect ones was also considered as a reason. Apart from these points related to the development factor, it was found that compared to the upper intermediate group, the beginner level subjects used more hints and as a result they came closer to the American NSs' norm regarding the use of non-conventionally indirect strategies. At this point as the possible reason of this higher use of hints in the beginner group, the following idea of Trosborg (1995) and Hassal (2003) was suggested: Because of the incompetence of low level learners in the target language, they do not know how to phrase the actual request. During their preliminary efforts to request something from the addressees, the addressees interpret the low level learners' preliminary efforts as hints and eliminate their chance to make a real request. It was suggested that the beginner level learners in the present study may have also experienced the same process during their role play performances. While these low level learners were trying to ask for something in the role play activities, the assistant native speaker who helped for the data collection process in the role plays may have taken these efforts as request and responded them. Thus, these parts were coded as non-conventionally indirect requests, more specifically, hints. However, it is clear that to be able to come to a certain conclusion, retrospective interviews and more studies are needed.

5.3.1.2 Findings Related to Directness Level Use in Situations

In the study, the first and the second situations are both high power situations and they are very similar to each other except for the distance factor. In the first situation (asking for the book of the professor) the power and distance variables are high (+Power, + Distance) and in the second one (asking for a lift from the professor) while the power is high, the distance is low (+Power, - Distance). In both of these situations, the upper intermediate subjects managed to be successful in using the direct request strategies by coming closer to the American NSs' norm. Besides, with the percentages differing from the beginners', they showed development, as well. On the other hand, the beginner level group could not manage come closer to the norm of the American NSs and they appeared to be considerably more direct than the American NSs.

Despite this failure of the beginner level subjects in the use of direct strategies in the high power situations, regarding the use of the conventionally indirect strategies, both of the learner groups appeared to be successful. Besides, they showed development by increasing their use, in the direction of the American NSs norm, as proficiency level increased. This success of the learner groups was explained by the instructional effect which mainly underlines the use of these strategies in the classes.

In addition to the direct and conventionally indirect strategy use in the high power situations of the study, the non-conventionally indirect strategies also presented interesting findings. In the first and second high power situations, the learner groups got behind the American NSs. Ignorance of non-conventionally indirect strategies in learner groups' L1 in the same situations was thought to be a possible reason of their failure.

Different to the first and second situations, in the third situation (asking for notes of friend) the interlocutors are of equal social status (- Power). In this situation, the subject and the hearer are close friends, so they have a close relationship (- Distance). As to the use of direct strategies, the upper intermediate subjects managed to come closer to the American NSs norm. Besides, they showed development by

decreasing their use. However, beginner level subjects used considerably more direct strategies than the American NSs and as a result they ended in failure in use of the direct strategies in this situation.

As to the use of conventionally indirect request strategies, both of the learner groups managed to come closer to the American NSs norm and showed development by increasing their percentage use.

As the last directness level in this situation, it was found that while the beginner group could manage to reach the American NSs norms, the upper intermediate group did not use any non-conventionally indirect strategies, so the learner groups showed no development as proficiency level increased. The failure of the upper intermediate group was partly attributed to the negative L1 effect because Turkish NSs group did not also use these strategies. It was suggested that because of the fact that the upper intermediate group's language proficiency is high, the transfer possibility is possible for this group.

In the last two situations the subjects asked for the menu and ordered food, so the power and distance variables are as follow (- Power, + Distance) in these situations. While asking the menu from the waiter, as to the direct strategy use both of the learner groups appeared to be away from the American NSs norm. However, while ordering food, the learner groups managed to come closer to the norm of the American NSs.

Besides, the learner groups also managed to come closer to the norms of the American NSs while using conventionally indirect strategies in the last two situations. However, while the learner groups showed development in the last situation, the same development could not be seen in the menu situation because of the higher percentage use of the upper intermediate group.

Lastly, as to the use of non-conventionally indirect request strategies, the results showed that due to the nature of the ordering situation, these strategies were not used by any of the groups sufficiently and in the menu situation, the upper intermediate group appeared to show considerably lower percentage than the American NSs'.

5.3.1.3. Findings related to Directness Level Use Development of the Learner Groups through the Situations

Through the situations, a coherent increase or decrease in the direct request strategies' percentages cannot be seen in the beginner group. They have the tendency to use considerably more direct request strategies in high power situations in an inappropriate way. The last situation (ordering food) is the only situation in which the beginner level learners show development by using the highest percentage direct request strategies in all of the situations like the American NSs did.

On the other hand, compared to the beginner level learners, upper intermediate group appeared to show more coherent use regarding direct request strategies through the situations. American NSs did not use direct strategies in the situations except for the last situation (ordering food) and the upper intermediate group came closer to the norm of American NSs by using very low percentage uses of direct strategies in all of the situations excluding the last situation in which they ordered food in a restaurant.

Regarding the use of conventionally indirect request strategies, it appeared that both of the learner groups could not use these strategies in a coherent way in accordance with the changing social variables of power and distance. A consistent decrease from high power situations towards low power situations cannot be seen in the learners groups. Beginner level learners' percentages for the high and low power situations were very close to each other from time to time and sometimes they had the tendency to use more conventionally indirect request strategies in the low power situations compared to the high power situations. However, if the sudden decrease in the percentage use of the conventionally indirect request strategies in the last two low power situations in the restaurant is considered, it can be suggested that the beginner group did it intentionally by considering the pre-existing rights and obligations in these situations.

Similar to the beginner level learner group, the upper intermediate group also had difficulty in using the conventionally indirect request strategies in accordance

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with the changing social variables of power and distance through the situations. Nearly in all of the situations without taking into account the changing power and distance variables, the conventionally indirect request strategy use was almost the same in this group. Only in the last low power situation in a restaurant with a sudden decrease in the percentage, the upper intermediate learner group follows the same decreasing strategy of American NSs'.

Lastly as to the use of non-conventionally indirect request strategy use, both of the learner groups confronted failure. As well as keeping the percentage use very low, they cannot also manipulate these percentages coherently in accordance with the changing power and distance variables through the situations.

5.3.2. Internal Modification Use

In this part, two sub-strategies of internal modification namely, syntactic downgraders as well as lexical and phrasal downgraders will be elaborated with the emphasis on overall use and the use in situations. The development and transfer factors will be underlined as well in accordance with the research questions.

5.3.2.1. Findings Related to Overall Syntactic Downgrader Use

The results showed that although there is a development between the learner groups as to using syntactic downgraders, they still used significantly fewer mitigating structures than the American NSs. The suggestions of some researchers on the reasons of low percentage use of syntactic downgrader in learner groups were considered as the possible reason of failure in the present study. For instance, as Faerch and Kasper (1989) indicate the implicit softening effects of the syntactic downgraders and as a result the concerns of the learners related to clarity or

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explicitness as Woodfield (2006) indicates were thought as the possible reasons of learners' failure in the present study. Moreover, as Takahashi (2001) points out the

learners' lack of knowledge as to the structure of the syntactic downgraders was considered, too. Besides, the fact that the learners are limited to EFL classes was also considered as a reason with a support from the result of Schauer's (2004) study which shows that the development of syntactic downgrader use is highly connected to the learners' length of stay in the target environment.

5.3.2.2. Findings Related to Syntactic Downgrader Use in Situations

In the first two high power situations, despite showing development, the learner groups could not reach the norms of the American NSs. Besides, their range of syntactic downgrader use appeared to be considerably more limited than the American NSs'. Moreover, the examination of the specific syntactic downgrader types showed that the problem is especially noticeable in the use of aspect, tense and conditional clauses because of the frequent use of the request structures like "I was wondering if..." in the American NSs group and contrary to that their absence in the learner groups.

In the third situation, the upper intermediate group seemed to be closer to the norms of the American NS, but the beginner level learners didn't. Moreover, because of the higher percentage use compared to the failed beginner level subjects', the learner groups reflected development.

The learner groups did not use any downgraders in the ordering situation and they rarely used them in the menu situation. The results showed that while asking for the menu, the upper intermediate group managed to come closer to the norm of the American NSs and because of having more percentage use of syntactic downgraders than the failed beginners they reflected development.

5.3.2.3. Findings related to Syntactic Downgrader Use Development of the Learner Groups through the Situations

Except for one situation the beginner level learners could not use any syntactic downgraders in the situations. Thus, their development through the situations cannot be considered.

On the other hand, the upper intermediate group employed the syntactic downgraders, but they could not manipulate them through the situations coherently, in accordance with the changing social variables of power and distance.

Sometimes in low and high power situations, they used very similar percentages without changing the weight of syntactic downgraders. Only in one occasion, they decreased their percentage use while passing from one situation to another in accordance with the changing weight of power and distance issues. However, when their frequent failure is considered, it can be said that to be certain more studies are needed.

5.3.2.4. Findings Related to Overall Lexical and Phrasal Downgrader Use

The results of the study showed that regarding the use of lexical and phrasal downgraders, the beginner level learners used considerably fewer downgraders than the American NSs. On the other hand, the upper intermediate group appeared to be better at this point and reflected development with the higher percentage of lexical and phrasal downgrader use than the beginner group. The failure in the beginner group was attributed to this group's lack of proficiency on the types and the mitigating effects of the lexical and phrasal downgraders.

In addition to these points as to the general use of the lexical and phrasal downgraders, their specific types also brought out some important results. First of all,

it was realized that the range of lexical and phrasal downgraders employed by learner groups, especially by the upper intermediate group is similar to the American NSs'. However, the percentage uses of these modifiers changed a lot between the groups.

The most noticeable differentiation in the percentages of specific types was seen in the use of politeness marker please and the subjectivizer. For instance, the results showed that while the politeness marker, please was rarely used by the American NSs and the Turkish NSs, these markers were frequently employed by the learner groups. This overuse was attributed to the clarity factor which was suggested by Faerch and Kasper (1989). These researchers pointed out that those explicit and highly transparent characteristics of the politeness markers help learners mark their utterances as requests easily in an unambiguous way.

While the politeness marker, please was frequently used by the learner groups and ignored by the American NSs, the subjectivizer was frequently used by the American NSs, but it was not preferred much by the learner groups. The highly employed structures by the American NSs like "I was wondering if..." appeared to be the reason of this different use in the groups. The learner groups did not use such structures which include the subjectivizer "I wonder" unlike American NSs and as a result while the percentage use of this modifiers appeared to be considerably high in the American NSs, it was very low in the learner groups.

5.3.2.5. Findings Related to Lexical and Phrasal Downgrader Use in Situations

The results regarding the use of lexical and phrasal downgraders in the first two high power situations showed that the learner groups used considerably fewer downgraders than the American NSs and although there is development as proficiency level increased. The close examination of the specific types of the lexical and phrasal downgraders also revealed the failure of the learner groups especially at some specific modifier uses. Subjectivizer is one of them. In these high power situations, the American NSs preferred the structures like "I was wondering if..."

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which they thought appropriate for the high status hearers a lot. As a result of this frequent use of these structures which include the subjectivizer "I wonder", the percentage use of these modifiers increased in the American NSs group. On the other hand, possibly because the learner groups had not been exposed to these structures, they could not acquire them and as a result, they got behind the American NSs.

In the same way, consultative device appeared to be a problem for the learner groups. The phrases like "Do you think ...?" were possibly thought to be appropriate for these high power situations by the American NSs because they used them a lot. On the other hand, the request strategies starting with the consultative device, "Do you think ...?" were not used by the beginner level subjects and they were rarely employed by the upper intermediate group, so they got behind the American NSs as to using this modifier. Apart from the use of subjectivizer and consultative device, the use of cajoler also posed some difficulties for the learner groups. In the second situation, possibly because of the less distance between the interlocutors, the American NSs used cajoler like "You know..." a lot. However, the learner groups probably did not consider these informal phrases as appropriate to be used for the professor because of higher power issue and they used them almost never.

In the third situation, both the beginner and the upper intermediate groups could come closer to the norms of American NSs regarding the use of lexical and phrasal downgraders as well as reflecting development as the proficiency level increased. In addition to these points when the specific types of the lexical and phrasal downgraders in this situation were examined, it was seen that consultative device, subjectivizer and cajoler, respectively are the most frequently used downgraders in the American NSs data and they were also used by the learner groups. Within these results the overuse of the cajoler in the upper intermediate group seemed to be noticeable. Possibly because of requesting the notes of the close friends, the upper intermediate learners thought that cajoler which is an informal, positive politeness phrase is the appropriate modifier in this situation.

In addition to these points, when the results of the last two situations were examined, it was seen that both of the learner groups managed to come closer to the norms of the American NSs in these situations. Apart from that, the use of the

politeness marker, please was underlined in this part and the fact that these markers were used in all of the situations by the learner groups, but in only the menu and order situations by the American NSs was attributed to the learners' lack of knowledge on the dual function of the politeness marker, please. As House and Kasper (1987) indicate as well as emphasizing politeness and softening the requests, please also implies requestive force. Thus, it is clear why American NSs used this marker only in the menu and order situations while ignoring it in the others. In addition to this possible reason for the overuse of please in the learner groups, it was also suggested that the learners may prefer these markers just for the sake of clarity resulting from their transparent form and explicit function in marking utterances as requests in a clear way.

5.3.2.6 Findings related to Lexical and Phrasal Downgrader Use Development of the Learner Groups through the Situations

The close examination of the learners' percentage uses through the situations with different power and distance variables showed that both of the learner groups had difficulty in manipulating their lexical and phrasal downgrader use from one situation to another.

For instance, the beginner group did not decrease or increase their percentage use while passing from one situation to another despite the different power or distance weights in these situations. Their percentage uses are very close to one another. This shows that the beginner level learners are not aware of the need to use lexical and phrasal downgraders in accordance with the changing weight of power and distance or maybe they know this fact, but they are not proficient enough to use the necessary amount and types of lexical and phrasal downgraders.

The same failure is also the case in the upper intermediate group. There are many occasions in which unlike the American NSs they considerably used more

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lexical and phrasal downgraders in the low power and low distance situations compared to the high power and distance situations. This suggests that the upper intermediate group is not also aware of the need to manipulate their percentage use in accordance with the changing power and distance variables through the situations.

5.3.3. External Modification Use

Following the findings on directness level use and internal modification, with an emphasis on overall use and the use in situations, the findings as to external modification will be presented in this part of the study. The development and transfer factors will be underlined as well in accordance with the research questions.

5.3.3.1. Findings Related to Overall External Modification Use

The results showed that learner groups used considerably fewer external modifiers than the American NSs, but they reflected development by increasing their percentage use in the direction of the American NSs norm as proficiency level increased. This result was compared with other studies' results in the literature and the following issues came out: in some of the studies the learner groups overused the external modifiers and the verbosity emerged, but in some other studies just like the present one, the learner groups appeared to be unsuccessful by using considerably fewer external modifiers than the native speakers. As the reason of this issue, the tentative hypothesis of House and Kasper (1987) was considered. According to this hypothesis, the learners confront with a tension between social difficulty and linguistic difficulty. If the pressure of linguistic difficulty is more than the pressure of social difficulty the learners prefer talking less to avoid the possibility of making

mistakes. On the other hand, if the pressure of social difficulty is bigger, they apply to verbosity and talk more than the native speakers. In that way, they try to ensure that some of their talk will be effective. Using fewer external modifiers than the American NSs, it was suggested that for the learner groups in the present study, the pressure of linguistic difficulty is bigger than the pressure of the social difficulty.

In addition to these points, the results related to the specific types of external modifiers showed that the learner groups used fewer external modifiers than the American NSs. However, regarding range they reflected success because all of the external modifier types that were used by the American NSs were also used by the learner groups. The learner groups just kept the percentage of these types less than the American NSs'.

5.3.3.2. Findings Related to External Modification Use in Situations

The first and the second high power situations are the ones that the learner groups had difficulty in using external modifiers. In the first situation, while asking for the book of the professor although the upper intermediate group appeared to be close to the American NSs norm, the beginner group could not manage that and in the second situation while asking for a lift from a professor both of the learner groups had problems. They used considerably fewer external modifiers than the American NSs although there seemed to be development as the proficiency level increased. On the other hand while the specific types of the external modifiers were examined, the results revealed that the learner groups did not have serious problems about using different types of external modifiers like American NSs. The types of the modifiers used by the groups are nearly the same. The problem seemed to result from the lower percentage uses for these types in the learner groups compared to the American NSs. Sometimes they could not use these strategies as frequent as the American NSs.

In the third situation, while asking notes from a friend, the learner groups appeared to come closer to the American NSs norm and they showed development as the proficiency level increased. On the other hand, it was seen that unlike the first and second situations, in this situation the learner groups did not use some specific modifier types which were used by the American NSs.

As the last point, the results related to menu and order situation showed that in the order situation due to the nature of the request behaviour, none of the groups used external modifiers. On the other hand, in the menu situation the learner groups came closer to the American NSs norm.

5.3.3.3. Findings related to External Modification Use Development of the Learner Groups through the Situations

When the learners' pragmatic development as to using external modifiers through the situations was examined, the results showed that they could not manipulate the percentage use of the external modifiers from time to time coherently in accordance with the changing power and distance weights through the situations.

For instance, when the learners' external modifier percentage uses in the high power situations were compared with the low power situations', it appeared that they could not decrease the percentage use of the external modifiers while passing from high power situations to the low power situations. There is only one occasion in which they could control the use by decreasing the percentage while passing from the one situation to another in which the pre-existing right and obligation is the issue. However, it is clear that to be certain more studies are needed.

When the results of the study are considered as a whole, it can be said that mostly there is development in the learner groups in accordance with the proficiency level. Despite some little problems, like the other high level learners in the other request studies, the upper intermediate group in the present study most of the time did better than the beginner group in terms of using the requests in the overall sense

and in the situations. However, the results of the study showed that while passing from one situation to another, both of the learner groups failed. They could not manipulate their request behaviour coherently in accordance with the changing power and distance variables through the situations. They ignored the different weights of the social variables in the situations, and most of the time they did not change their request strategies in accordance with them. The present study is the only one in the literature in that it touched on the development of request use through the situations. Thus, to be certain about the failure of the learner groups at this point more studies are needed.

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5.4. Implications for the Improvement of Pragmatic Competence

The present study showed that the learner groups have serious problems as to pragmatics and the fact that not only beginner level learners but also the upper intermediate students have pragmatic problems is a serious issue. This shows that even the upper level linguistic competence is not sufficient for the acquisition of pragmatic competence, so it can be said that pragmatic development cannot be developed in line with the linguistic development. Moreover, if the idea of Thomas (1983) is considered the pragmatic incompetence problem in the upper level learners seems to be more serious than the problem of the lower level learners. Thomas points out that while the pragmatic errors of the beginner level learners are ignored by the foreigners, the same errors by the upper level learners are taken personally by considering their linguistic proficiency. They are expected to have pragmatic competence in accordance with their linguistic knowledge. The issue that their pragmatic competence lags behind their linguistic competence is not considered by the foreigners and they are offended.

Because of the fact that the learners are mainly exposed to grammatical or vocabulary studies in their EFL classes, they cannot have a chance to develop their pragmatic competence much. Mostly, pragmatic aspects are left to be picked up by

the learners themselves. The effect of this teaching style can be clearly seen within the results of this study. As it can be seen in the findings of this study the learners tried to achieve something by using some typical request behaviour that is underlined in their classes. Especially as to the use of conventionally indirect strategies which is emphasized a lot in the EFL classes, they do not have serious problems. However, regarding the use of syntactic downgraders, they confront a failure even in the higher level. Even if they know these syntactic structures due to the focus on grammar in their language classes, the low percentages in the study show that they are not aware of their mitigating effects much. On the other hand, the closer approach of the upper intermediate level learners to the American NSs norm as to the use of lexical and phrasal downgraders suggests that they make use of the vocabulary studies in their language classes a bit and this helps their pragmatic development somehow at least in the high level. However, their incompetence as to using request patterns in accordance with the changing social variables of power and distance is also a fact.

As a result, it is clear that the learners have problems regarding the pragmatics and the solution of this situation requires a new glance at the teaching of pragmatic structures both by teachers and by textbooks. For instance, in accordance with the findings of the study, it can be suggested that the teaching of requests should not be limited only by classic query preparatory request structures. As well as the conventionalized ones, some other mitigating structures like internal and external modifiers should be taught. Moreover, not only the structures but also their mitigating effects should be emphasized both by the teachers and the textbooks. Besides, to improve the pragmatic proficiency of the learners they should be exposed to many different request situations each of which requires different levels of mitigating effects in accordance with their shifting social variables. In addition to these issues, some teaching materials should be developed by the teachers on the basis of the results of pragmatic studies. In these materials, teachers may underline the weak sides of the learners, and they may enable the students to develop their pragmatic skills.

5.5. Implications for Further Research

In the present study, while choosing the situations for the role play activities only power, distance and indirectly imposition were considered as the variables. In the future studies, some other variables like age, gender difference, seniority or formality can also be taken into account.

Moreover, by using some other research methods, the results of this study may be compared with the findings of other studies which will use other research methods. It would increase the validity and reliability issues in the findings.

Besides, throughout the study, some deductions were made and some conclusions were drawn by taking into account the results of the study. With the retrospective interviews that may be used in the future studies, these deductions can be changed into more certain issues.

In addition to these points, the findings of the present study may be used to determine the impact of formal pragmatic instruction on the performance of the learners. The learner groups of the present study may be used as the control groups which did not receive any formal pragmatic instruction and their performance may be compared with the performance of other learner groups receiving pragmatic instruction.

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APPENDIX A

Situation Assessment Scale

SITUATION 1

You are a final-year university student. You have been assigned to write an assignment of 1500-2000 words on 'Globalization in Europe' and you have been given two weeks to prepare. You have visited the library to find books and journals but most of the relevant material has been taken out by other students. You know, however, that the Geography professor who teaches the course has a copy of a very useful book for the assignment in his/her office. You saw it last time you went to his/her office. That book is primarily what you need for the assignment. The professor does not know you very well. There are 150 students in the course and you have only spoken to him/her once (a month ago) when you went to his/her office to ask some questions about the course. The meeting lasted for about 15 minutes and was rather formal.

However, you now decide to go and ask him/her to lend you the book. You know he/she will be in because you go during his/advising hours.

SITUATION 2

You are a university student. You normally drive to university but today your car has broken down so you had to get a taxi to get to class. It is a cold, rainy, winter afternoon and you have just finished your classes for the day. You were hoping to take the last bus home but unfortunately it is gone. You rang a taxi again but you were told that they are very busy and you will have to wait for about 50 minutes before the taxi gets to you.

As you are thinking what to do, you see Professor Smith walking towards his/her car. Professor Smith is in his/her early 60s and has been teaching you for two years now. You know each other pretty well as he/she has also given you guidance on some of your projects. You know that Dr Smith lives in the same area as you, so you decide to ask him/her for a lift home.

SITUATION 3

You are in the lecture room sitting next to your closest friend. Your professor has just announced that he/she will soon be giving you a test on what you have covered so far. You missed his/her lecture last week so you need to catch up. The lecture is now finished so you want to ask your friend for the lecture notes.

SITUATION 4

You and your friend are at 'TGI Friday's' for dinner. It is a Saturday night so it is extremely busy. You have been sat down but nobody has given you the menus yet. Fifteen minutes have gone by and you are still waiting for the menus. You are really hungry by now and you can't wait to order.

The waiter, a man/woman of your own age, has just finished taking an order from the next table. Now it is a good chance to get his/her attention before he/she rushes off. You do not know the waiter personally.

SITUATION 5

You and your friend are at 'TGI Friday's' for dinner. You are now ready to place your order. The waiter approaches you and asks what you would like to order.

Your name: ………………………………………………………………

In regards to the situations you have just role-played, I would very much appreciate your co-operation in the evaluation of the following social dimensions:

- Degree of **Familiarity** between the two participants (i.e. How well you know each other).
- Degree of **Power** of each participant (i.e. Who has more control on the behaviour of the other).
- Degree of **Imposition** of the request (i.e. How big your request is).

Please assess the following features on a **scale from 1-7** where **1 is the lowest** and **7 is the highest**:

Please circle the number that best represents your opinion.

☺ *Thank you for your help in this study!*

SITUATION 1 (Asking professor to borrow book)

	The Lowest	The Highest
Degree of *Familiarity* between you and the professor	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
Degree of *Power* that the professor has over you	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
Degree of *Imposition* of your request	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	

SITUATION 2 (Asking professor for a lift home)

          The Lowest   The Highest

Degree of *Familiarity* between you and the professor   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Degree of *Power* that the professor has over you   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Degree of *Imposition* of your request   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

SITUATION 3 (Asking a friend for lecture notes)

          The Lowest   The Highest

Degree of *Familiarity* between you and your friend   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Degree of *Power* that your friend has over you
(in specific situation).   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Degree of *Imposition* of your request.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

SITUATIONS 4 (Asking for menus – at the restaurant)

          The Lowest   The Highest

Degree of *Familiarity* between you and the waiter   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Degree of *Power* that the waiter has over you
(in specific situation).   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Degree of *Imposition* of your request .   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

SITUATIONS (ordering in a restaurant)

          The Lowest   The Highest

Degree of *Familiarity* between you and the waiter   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Degree of *Power* that the waiter has over you
(in specific situation).   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Degree of *Imposition* of your request .   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

APPENDIX B

The Situation Assessment Scale Given to the Turkish NSs

DURUM 1

Son sınıf üniversite öğrencisisiniz.Avrupa'daki küreselleşme üzerine 1500 -2000 kelimelik bir ödev hazırlayacaksınız ve hazırlamak için 2 hafta süreniz var.Kitap ve dergi bulmak için kütüphaneyi ziyaret ettiniz. Fakat ilgili kaynakların çoğu diğer öğrenciler tarafından alınmış.Bu arada dersi veren coğrafya profesörünüzün ofisinde ödevinizle ilgili çok yararlı bir kitabının olduğunu biliyorsunuz.Kitabı en son onun ofisine gittiğinizde görmüştünüz.Bu kitap tam sizin ödev için aradığınız kitap.Profesör sizi pek iyi tanımıyor.Dersi alan 150 öğrenci var ve siz yalnızca ders hakkında bir kaç soru sormak için bir ay önce ofisine gittiğinizde kendisiyle konuştunuz. Görüşmeniz yalnızca on beş dakika sürdü ve oldukça resmi bir görüşmeydi.

Fakat şimdi profesörünüzün ofisine gidip ondan kitabı rica etmeye karar verdiniz. Ofisinde olacağını biliyorsunuz. Çünkü onun görüşme saatinde gidiyorsunuz.

DURUM 2

Siz bir üniversite öğrencisisiniz. Normalde üniversiteye arabanızla gidersiniz. Fakat bugün arabanız bozulduğu için derse gitmek için taksiye bindiniz.Soğuk, yağmurlu bir kış öğleden sonrası ve dersiniz daha yeni bitti.Eve gitmek için son otobüse binmeyi umut ediyordunuz.Fakat ne yazık ki otobüsü kaçırdınız.Taksi çağırmayı denediniz. Fakat çok meşgul olduklarını ve taksi için 50 dakika beklemeniz gerektiğini söylediler.

Ne yapacağınızı düşünürken arabasına doğru yürümekte olan Profesor Ayşe Arslan'ı gördünüz.Profesör Ayşe Arslan 60 yaşlarında ve sizin dersinize iki yıldır giriyor. Size bazı projelerinizde yardımcı olduğu için birbirinizi oldukça iyi tanıyorsunuz.Dr Smith' in sizinle aynı yerde yaşadığını biliyorsunuz. Bu yüzden sizi eve bırakması için ricada bulunmaya karar verdiniz.

.DURUM 3

Sınıfta en yakın arkadaşınızın yanında oturuyorsunuz. Profesörünüz o ana kadar öğrendiklerinizle ilgili kısa bir süre sonra bir test vereceğini söylüyor. Geçen hafta dersi kaçırdınız. Bu yüzden arayı kapamanız gerekiyor.Ders şimdi

bitti.Arkadaşınızdan ders notlarını isteyeceksiniz.

DURUM 4

Siz ve bir arkadaşınız akşam yemeği için Kebap 49 dasınız.Bir Cumartesi akşamı ve çok kalabalık. Oturmanız için yeriniz gösterildi. Fakat henüz kimse mönüyü getirmedi.On beş dakika geçti ve hala mönüler için bekliyorsunuz. Gerçekten çok açsınız ve sipariş vermek için bekleyemiyorsunuz.

Sizin yaşlarınızdaki bir garson yan masadan sipariş almayı tam şimdi bitirdi. Gitmeden önce onun dikkatini çekmek için iyi bir fırsat.Garsonu şahsen tanımıyorsunuz.

DURUM 5

Siz ve bir arkadaşınız akşam yemeği için Kebap 49 dasınız. Sipariş vermek için hazırsınız. Garson size yaklaşıyor ve ne sipariş vermek istediğinizi soruyor.

Adınız:...

Az önce canlandırdığınız durumları göz önünde bulundurarak, lütfen aşağıdaki sosyal durumları değerlendiriniz.

- İki katılımcı arasındaki **aşinalık, tanışıklık** (Birbirlerini ne kadar iyi tanıdıkları)
- Katılımcıların her birinin **gücü** (Kim diğerinin davranışı üzerinde daha fazla kontrole sahip)
- Ricanın yarattığı **yük, zahmet**(Ricanın ne kadar büyük olduğu)

Lütfen aşağıdaki **1 ve 7** arası derecelendirilmiş ölçeği değerlendiriniz.**1 en düşük 7 en yüksek** değerdir.

BİRİNCİ DURUM **(**Profesörden kitabını ödünç alma)

	En düşük						En yüksek
Siz ve profesör arasındaki aşinalık, tanışıklık derecesi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Profesörün sizin üzerinizde sahip olduğu güç derecesi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ricanızın yarattığı yük, zahmet derecesi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

İKİNCİ DURUM **(**Profesörden sizi eve bırakmasını rica etme)

	En düşük						En yüksek
Siz ve profesör arasındaki aşinalık, tanışıklık derecesi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Profesörün sizin üzerinizde sahip olduğu güç derecesi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ricanızın yarattığı yük, zahmet derecesi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ÜÇÜNCÜ DURUM (Arkadaştan ders notlarını isteme)

	En düşük						En yüksek
Siz ve arkadaşınız arasındaki aşinalık, tanışıklık derecesi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Arkadaşınızın sizin üzerinizde sahip olduğu güç derecesi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ricanızın yarattığı yük, zahmet derecesi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

DÖRDÜNCÜ DURUM (Restoranda mönüyü rica etme)

	En düşük						En yüksek
Siz ve garson arasındaki aşinalık, tanışıklık derecesi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Garsonun sizin üzerinizde sahip olduğu güç derecesi (Sadece bu durum için geçerli)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ricanızın yarattığı yük, zahmet derecesi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

BEŞİNCİ DURUM(Restoranda yemek siparişi verme)

	En düşük						En yüksek
Siz ve garson arasındaki aşinalık, tanışıklık derecesi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Garsonun sizin üzerinizde sahip olduğu güç derecesi (Sadece bu durum için geçerli)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ricanızın yarattığı yük, zahmet derecesi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX C

Prompts Given to the American NSs

Situation 1

You are a final-year university student. You have been assigned to write an assignment of 1500-2000 words on 'Globalization in Europe' and you have been given two weeks to prepare. You have visited the library to find books and journals but most of the relevant material has been taken out by other students. You know, however, that the Geography professor who teaches the course has a copy of a very useful book for the assignment in his/her office. You saw it last time you went to his/her office. That book is primarily what you need for the assignment. The professor does not know you very well. There are 150 students in the course and you have only spoken to him/her once (a month ago) when you went to his/her office to ask some questions about the course. The meeting lasted for about 15 minutes and was rather formal.

However, you now decide to go and ask him/her to lend you the book. You know he/she will be in because you go during his/advising hours.

Situation 2

You are a university student. You normally drive to university but today your car has broken down so you had to get a taxi to get to class. It is a cold, rainy, winter afternoon and you have just finished your classes for the day. You were hoping to take the last bus home but unfortunately it is gone. You rang a taxi again but you were told that they are very busy and you will have to wait for about 50 minutes before the taxi gets to you.

As you are thinking what to do, you see Professor Smith walking towards his/her car. Professor Smith is in his/her early 60s and has been teaching you for two years now. You know each other pretty well as he/she has also given you guidance on some of your projects. You know that Dr Smith lives in the same area as you, so you decide to ask him/her for a lift home.

Situation 3

You are in the lecture room sitting next to your closest friend. Your professor has just announced that he/she will soon be giving you a test on what you have covered so far. You missed his/her lecture last week so you need to catch up. The lecture is now finished so you want to ask your friend for the lecture notes.

Situation 4

You and your friend are at 'TGI Friday's' for dinner. It is a Saturday night so it is extremely busy. You have been sat down but nobody has given you the menus yet. Fifteen minutes have gone by and you are still waiting for the menus. You are really hungry by now and you can't wait to order.
The waiter, a man/woman of your own age, has just finished taking an order from the next table. Now it is a good chance to get his/her attention before he/she rushes off. You do not know the waiter personally.

Situation 5

You and your friend are at 'TGI Friday's' for dinner. You are now ready to place your order. The waiter approaches you and asks what you would like to order.

APPENDIX D

Prompts Given to the Turkish NSs

DURUM 1

Son sınıf üniversite öğrencisisiniz.Avrupa'daki küreselleşme üzerine 1500 -2000 kelimelik bir ödev hazırlayacaksınız ve hazırlamak için 2 hafta süreniz var.Kitap ve dergi bulmak için kütüphaneyi ziyaret ettiniz. Fakat ilgili kaynakların çoğu diğer öğrenciler tarafından alınmış.Bu arada dersi veren coğrafya profesörünüzün ofisinde ödevinizle ilgili çok yararlı bir kitabının olduğunu biliyorsunuz.Kitabı en son onun ofisine gittiğinizde görmüştünüz.Bu kitap tam sizin ödev için aradığınız kitap.Profesör sizi pek iyi tanımıyor.Dersi alan 150 öğrenci var ve siz yalnızca ders hakkında bir kaç soru sormak için bir ay önce ofisine gittiğinizde kendisiyle konuştunuz. Görüşmeniz yalnızca on beş dakika sürdü ve oldukça resmi bir görüşmeydi.

Fakat şimdi profesörünüzün ofisine gidip ondan kitabı rica etmeye karar verdiniz. Ofisinde olacağını biliyorsunuz. Çünkü onun görüşme saatinde gidiyorsunuz.

DURUM 2

Siz bir üniversite öğrencisisiniz. Normalde üniversiteye arabanızla gidersiniz. Fakat bugün arabanız bozulduğu için derse gitmek için taksiye bindiniz.Soğuk, yağmurlu bir kış öğleden sonrası ve dersiniz daha yeni bitti.Eve gitmek için son otobüse binmeyi umut ediyordunuz.Fakat ne yazık ki otobüsü kaçırdınız.Taksi çağırmayı denediniz. Fakat çok meşgul olduklarını ve taksi için 50 dakika beklemeniz gerektiğini söylediler.

Ne yapacağınızı düşünürken arabasına doğru yürümekte olan Prof Ayşe Arslan'ı gördünüz. Prof Ayşe Arslan 60 yaşlarında ve sizin dersinize iki yıldır giriyor. Size bazı projelerinizde yardımcı olduğu için birbirinizi oldukça iyi tanıyorsunuz.Dr Smith' in sizinle aynı yerde yaşadığını biliyorsunuz. Bu yüzden sizi eve bırakması için ricada bulunmaya karar verdiniz.

DURUM 3

Sınıfta en yakın arkadaşınızın yanında oturuyorsunuz. Profesörünüz o ana kadar öğrendiklerinizle ilgili kısa bir süre sonra bir test vereceğini söylüyor. Geçen hafta dersi kaçırdınız. Bu yüzden arayı kapamanız gerekiyor.Ders şimdi

bitti.Arkadaşınızdan ders notlarını isteyeceksiniz.

DURUM 4

Siz ve bir arkadaşınız akşam yemeği için Kebap 49 dasınız.Bir Cumartesi akşamı ve çok kalabalık. Oturmanız için yeriniz gösterildi. Fakat henüz kimse mönüyü getirmedi.On beş dakika geçti ve hala mönüler için bekliyorsunuz. Gerçekten çok açsınız ve sipariş vermek için bekleyemiyorsunuz.

Sizin yaşlarınızdaki bir garson yan masadan sipariş almayı tam şimdi bitirdi. Gitmeden önce onun dikkatini çekmek için iyi bir fırsat.Garsonu şahsen tanımıyorsunuz.

DURUM 5

Siz ve bir arkadaşınız akşam yemeği için Kebap 49 dasınız. Sipariş vermek için hazırsınız. Garson size yaklaşıyor ve ne sipariş vermek istediğinizi soruyor.

APPENDIX E

Prompts Given to the Learner Groups

SITUATION 1

You are a university student. You have to prepare a project on 'Globalization in Europe' for your geography course in two weeks. You visited the library but you could not find any important books for your project. You know that your geography professor has a very useful book in his office. You saw this book when you went to his office. You want this book very much because you really need it to prepare your project. There are 150 students in the course and the professor doesn't know you very well.

However, you decide to go to his office and ask him to give you the book.

SITUATION 2

You are a university student. It is a cold, rainy, winter afternoon. You finished your classes but you missed the last bus to go home. You phoned for a taxi but they are very busy. You have to wait 50 minutes for the taxi.

You are thinking about what to do. You see Prof. Smith. He is walking towards his car. He is in his early 60s. You know each other very well. You have a good relationship. He helped you for your project. You live in the same neighbourhood. You decide to ask him for a lift home.

SITUATION 3

You are in the classroom. You are sitting next to your best friend. Your professor told you that he would give you a test next week. You have got a problem .You could not come to the class last week. You don't have all of the notes. The lesson is finished now. You want to ask your friend for his notes.

SITUATION 4

You and your friend are at a restaurant in London -TGI Friday's- for dinner. It is a Saturday night and it is very crowded. You sat down fifteen minutes ago but they did not give you a menu. You are still waiting for the menu. You are really hungry and you can't wait to order.

The waiter of your own age just took order from the next table. You do not know the waiter personally. Take her attention before he goes away. Start the dialogue by saying: Excuse me….

SITUATION 5

You are now ready to order. The waiter comes closer to you and asks what you would like to order.

APPENDIX F

Role- play Samples Coded According to the CHAT Transcription Conventions (Mac Whinney 2000)

Transcription Conventions (MacWhinney 2000)

Hesitation. um

\# short pause

\#\# longer pause

↓ lower pitch

↑ higher pitch

< > text followed by explanation of action

< overlap starts

> overlap ends

[/] retracing without correction

[//] retracing with correction (of a word, grammatical

rule, etc.)

[///] reformulation (of an utterance)

: lengthening

= where one turn ends, the next onestarts immediately

Beginner Level

```
@Begin
@ Situation:( book)
*STU:          hi
*NS:           hello
*STU:          my name is Serkan.
*NS:           hello Serkan. You are in my geography class.
*STU:          can I take a this book?
*NS:           um  yes you weren't able to find one in the library↑?
```

*STU: um <can I >[/] can I #take um this book?

*NS: you're welcome to borrow it.
@End

Upper Intermediate Level

@Begin
@ Situation: (Book)
*STU: professor Smith as you know I'm <trying to> [/] trying to do my
               homework my # project and I looked in the library um but I couldn't
               find the books I   was looking for.

*NS: yes
*STU: could you please give me some books I need.
*NS: yes certainly no problem at all.
@End

APPENDIX G

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: General usage of directness
Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	,632	,279	,116	-,10	1,37
	Turkish	-,005	,272	1,000	-,72	,71
	American	1,081*	,297	,003	,30	1,86
Upper	Beginner	-,632	,279	,116	-1,37	,10
	Turkish	-,637	,272	,099	-1,35	,08
	American	,449	,297	,436	-,33	1,23
Turkish	Beginner	,005	,272	1,000	-,71	,72
	Upper	,637	,272	,099	-,08	1,35
	American	1,086*	,291	,002	,32	1,85
American	Beginner	-1,081*	,297	,003	-1,86	-,30
	Upper	-,449	,297	,436	-1,23	,33
	Turkish	-1,086*	,291	,002	-1,85	-,32

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: General usage of Con.Ind.Usage
Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bond	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bond
Beginner	Upper	-,947*	,325	,024	-,12	1,11
	Turkish	,170	,317	,950	-,52	,68
	American	-,411	,346	,637	,20	1,18
Upper	Beginner	-,947*	,325	,024	-1,13	,09
	Turkish	-1,118*	,317	,004	-1,12	,07
	American	,537	,346	,412	-,33	1,22
Turkish	Beginner	-,170	,317	,950	-,62	,85
	Upper	-1,118*	,317	,004	-,05	1,54
	American	-,581	,339	,323	,33	1,67
American	Beginner	,411	,346	,637	-1,54	-,21
	Upper	-,537	,346	,412	-1,12	,35
	Turkish	,581	,339	,323	-1,14	-,38

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: General usage of Non- con.Ind.Usage
Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bond	Upper Bond
Beginner	Upper	,316	,192	,361	-,23	,87
	Turkish	-,060	,187	,988	-,47	1,11
	American	-,632*	,204	,015	,28	,65
Upper	Beginner	-,316	,192	,361	-1,11	,14
	Turkish	-,376	,187	,195	-1,02	,63
	American	-,947*	,204	,000	-,57	1,17
Turkish	Beginner	,060	,187	,988	-,95	,48
	Upper	,376	,187	,195	-,14	1,32
	American	-,571*	,200	,028	,47	1,21
American	Beginner	,632*	,204	,015	-1,17	-,12
	Upper	,947*	,204	,000	-1,10	,56
	Turkish	,571*	,200	,028	-1,01	-,98

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [BOOK] Usage of Directness
Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	,263	,128	,177	-,07	,60
	Turkish	,035	,125	,992	-,29	,36
	American	,368*	,136	,042	,01	,73
Upper	Beginner	-,263	,128	,177	-,60	,07
	Turkish	-,228	,125	,269	-,56	,10
	American	,105	,136	,866	-,25	,46
Turkish	Beginner	-,035	,125	,992	-,36	,29
	Upper	,228	,125	,269	-,10	,56
	American	,333	,133	,068	-,02	,68
American	Beginner	-,368*	,136	,042	-,73	-,01
	Upper	-,105	,136	,866	-,46	,25
	Turkish	-,333	,133	,068	-,68	,02

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [BOOK] Usage of Con.Ind

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	-,263	,135	,217	-,62	,09
	Turkish	,013	,132	1,000	-,33	,36
	American	-,302	,144	,163	-,68	,08
Upper	Beginner	,263	,135	,217	-,09	,62
	Turkish	,276	,132	,165	-,07	,62
	American	-,039	,144	,993	-,42	,34
Turkish	Beginner	-,013	,132	1,000	-,36	,33
	Upper	-,276	,132	,165	-,62	,07
	American	-,314	,141	,124	-,68	,06
American	Beginner	,302	,144	,163	-,08	,68
	Upper	,039	,144	,993	-,34	,42
	Turkish	,314	,141	,124	-,06	,68

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [BOOK] Usage of Non-Con.Ind

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	,000	,053	1,000	-,14	,14
	Turkish	-,048	,052	,796	-,18	,09
	American	-,067	,057	,644	-,22	,08
Upper	Beginner	,000	,053	1,000	-,14	,14
	Turkish	-,048	,052	,796	-,18	,09
	American	-,067	,057	,644	-,22	,08
Turkish	Beginner	,048	,052	,796	-,09	,18
	Upper	,048	,052	,796	-,09	,18
	American	-,019	,055	,986	-,17	,13
American	Beginner	,067	,057	,644	-,08	,22
	Upper	,067	,057	,644	-,08	,22
	Turkish	,019	,055	,986	-,13	,17

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [LIFT] Usage of Direct

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	,105	,095	,688	-,15	,36
	Turkish	,015	,093	,998	-,23	,26
	American	,158	,102	,025	-,11	,43
Upper	Beginner	-,105	,095	,688	-,36	,15
	Turkish	-,090	,093	,767	-,34	,15
	American	,053	,102	,954	-,21	,32
Turkish	Beginner	-,015	,093	,998	-,26	,23
	Upper	,090	,093	,767	-,15	,34
	American	,143	,099	,480	-,12	,40
American	Beginner	-,158∗	,102	,025	-,43	,11
	Upper	-,053	,102	,954	-,32	,21
	Turkish	-,143	,099	,480	-,40	,12

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [LIFT] Usage of Con.Ind

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	-,105	,108	,765	-,39	,18
	Turkish	-,015	,106	,999	-,29	,26
	American	-,025	,115	,997	-,33	,28
Upper	Beginner	,105	,108	,765	-,18	,39
	Turkish	,090	,106	,828	-,19	,37
	American	,081	,115	,896	-,22	,38
Turkish	Beginner	,015	,106	,999	-,26	,29
	Upper	-,090	,106	,828	-,37	,19
	American	-,010	,113	1,000	-,31	,29
American	Beginner	,025	,115	,997	-,28	,33
	Upper	-,081	,115	,896	-,38	,22
	Turkish	,010	,113	1,000	-,29	,31

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [LIFT] Usage of Non-Con.Ind

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	,000	,060	1,000	-,16	,16
	Turkish	,000	,059	1,000	-,15	,15
	American	-,200*	,064	,013	-,37	-,03
Upper	Beginner	,000	,060	1,000	-,16	,16
	Turkish	,000	,059	1,000	-,15	,15
	American	-,200*	,064	,013	-,37	-,03
Turkish	Beginner	,000	,059	1,000	-,15	,15
	Upper	,000	,059	1,000	-,15	,15
	American	-,200*	,063	,011	-,36	-,04
American	Beginner	,200*	,064	,013	,03	,37
	Upper	,200*	,064	,013	,03	,37
	Turkish	,200*	,063	,011	,04	,36

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [NOTES] Usage of Direct

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	,158	,117	,533	-,15	,47
	Turkish	-,170	,114	,445	-,47	,13
	American	,211	,124	,334	-,12	,54
Upper	Beginner	-,158	,117	,533	-,47	,15
	Turkish	-,328*	,114	,026	-,63	-,03
	American	,053	,124	,974	-,27	,38
Turkish	Beginner	,170	,114	,445	-,13	,47
	Upper	,328*	,114	,026	,03	,63
	American	,381*	,122	,013	,06	,70
American	Beginner	-,211	,124	,334	-,54	,12
	Upper	-,053	,124	,974	-,38	,27
	Turkish	-,381*	,122	,013	-,70	-,06

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [NOTES] Usage of Con.Ind

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	-,263	,139	,243	-,63	,10
	Turkish	,065	,136	,964	-,29	,42
	American	-,049	,148	,987	-,44	,34
Upper	Beginner	,263	,139	,243	-,10	,63
	Turkish	,328	,136	,084	-,03	,69
	American	,214	,148	,478	-,18	,60
Turkish	Beginner	-,065	,136	,964	-,42	,29
	Upper	-,328	,136	,084	-,69	,03
	American	-,114	,145	,860	-,50	,27
American	Beginner	,049	,148	,987	-,34	,44
	Upper	-,214	,148	,478	-,60	,18
	Turkish	,114	,145	,860	-,27	,50

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [NOTES] Usage of Non-Con.Ind

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	,105	,084	,598	-,12	,33
	Turkish	,105	,082	,579	-,11	,32
	American	-,161	,090	,282	-,40	,07
Upper	Beginner	-,105	,084	,598	-,33	,12
	Turkish	,000	,082	1,000	-,22	,22
	American	-,267*	,090	,021	-,50	-,03
Turkish	Beginner	-,105	,082	,579	-,32	,11
	Upper	,000	,082	1,000	-,22	,22
	American	-,267*	,088	,017	-,50	-,04
American	Beginner	,161	,090	,282	-,07	,40
	Upper	,267*	,090	,021	,03	,50
	Turkish	,267*	,088	,017	,04	,50

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [MENU] Usage of Direct

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	,053	,146	,984	-,33	,44
	Turkish	,178	,142	,598	-,20	,55
	American	,168	,155	,034	-,24	,58
Upper	Beginner	-,053	,146	,984	-,44	,33
	Turkish	,125	,142	,815	-,25	,50
	American	,116	,155	,028	-,29	,52
Turkish	Beginner	-,178	,142	,598	-,55	,20
	Upper	-,125	,142	,815	-,50	,25
	American	-,010	,152	,020	-,41	,39
American	Beginner	-,168*	,155	,034	-,58	,24
	Upper	-,116*	,155	,028	-,52	,29
	Turkish	,010*	,152	,020	-,39	,41

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [MENU] Usage of Con-Ind

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	-,158	,161	,762	-,58	,27
	Turkish	,098	,157	,925	-,32	,51
	American	,193	,172	,676	-,26	,65
Upper	Beginner	,158	,161	,762	-,27	,58
	Turkish	,256	,157	,372	-,16	,67
	American	,351	,172	,183	-,10	,80
Turkish	Beginner	-,098	,157	,925	-,51	,32
	Upper	-,256	,157	,372	-,67	,16
	American	,095	,168	,942	-,35	,54
American	Beginner	-,193	,172	,676	-,65	,26
	Upper	-,351	,172	,183	-,80	,10
	Turkish	-,095	,168	,942	-,54	,35

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Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [MENU] Usage of Non-Con-Ind

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	,158	,139	,667	-,21	,52
	Turkish	-,170	,135	,592	-,53	,19
	American	-,256	,148	,314	-,64	,13
Upper	Beginner	-,158	,139	,667	-,52	,21
	Turkish	-,328	,135	,082	-,68	,03
	American	-,414*	,148	,032	-,80	-,03
Turkish	Beginner	,170	,135	,592	-,19	,53
	Upper	,328	,135	,082	-,03	,68
	American	-,086	,145	,934	-,47	,29
American	Beginner	,256	,148	,314	-,13	,64
	Upper	,414*	,148	,032	,03	,80
	Turkish	,086	,145	,934	-,29	,47

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [ORDER] Usage of Direct

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	,053	,128	,976	-,28	,39
	Turkish	-,063	,125	,958	-,39	,27
	American	,175	,136	,571	-,18	,53
Upper	Beginner	-,053	,128	,976	-,39	,28
	Turkish	-,115	,125	,791	-,44	,21
	American	,123	,136	,803	-,23	,48
Turkish	Beginner	,063	,125	,958	-,27	,39
	Upper	,115	,125	,791	-,21	,44
	American	,238	,133	,286	-,11	,59
American	Beginner	-,175	,136	,571	-,53	,18
	Upper	-,123	,136	,803	-,48	,23
	Turkish	-,238	,133	,286	-,59	,11

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [ORDER] Usage of Con-Ind

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	-,158	,126	,598	-,49	,17
	Turkish	,010	,123	1,000	-,31	,33
	American	-,228	,135	,334	-,58	,13
Upper	Beginner	,158	,126	,598	-,17	,49
	Turkish	,168	,123	,527	-,16	,49
	American	-,070	,135	,954	-,42	,28
Turkish	Beginner	-,010	,123	1,000	-,33	,31
	Upper	-,168	,123	,527	-,49	,16
	American	-,238	,132	,278	-,58	,11
American	Beginner	,228	,135	,334	-,13	,58
	Upper	,070	,135	,954	-,28	,42
	Turkish	,238	,132	,278	-,11	,58

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [ORDER] Usage of Non-Con-Ind

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	,053	,038	,507	-,05	,15
	Turkish	,053	,037	,486	-,04	,15
	American	,053	,040	,560	-,05	,16
Upper	Beginner	-,053	,038	,507	-,15	,05
	Turkish	,000	,037	1,000	-,10	,10
	American	,000	,040	1,000	-,11	,11
Turkish	Beginner	-,053	,037	,486	-,15	,04
	Upper	,000	,037	1,000	-,10	,10
	American	,000	,039	1,000	-,10	,10
American	Beginner	-,053	,040	,560	-,16	,05
	Upper	,000	,040	1,000	-,11	,11
	Turkish	,000	,039	1,000	-,10	,10

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Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [GENERAL] Usage of Syntactic

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	-,737	,472	,407	-1,98	,50
	Turkish	-1,033	,460	,122	-2,24	,18
	American	-4,642*	,502	,000	-5,96	-3,32
Upper	Beginner	,737	,472	,407	-,50	1,98
	Turkish	-,296	,460	,918	-1,51	,92
	American	-3,905*	,502	,000	-5,23	-2,58
Turkish	Beginner	1,033	,460	,122	-,18	2,24
	Upper	,296	,460	,918	-,92	1,51
	American	-3,610*	,491	,000	-4,90	-2,32
American	Beginner	4,642*	,502	,000	3,32	5,96
	Upper	3,905*	,502	,000	2,58	5,23
	Turkish	3,610*	,491	,000	2,32	4,90

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [BOOK] Usage of Syntactic

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	-,368	,223	,359	-,96	,22
	Turkish	-,424	,218	,220	-1,00	,15
	American	-2,147*	,238	,000	-2,77	-1,52
Upper	Beginner	,368	,223	,359	-,22	,96
	Turkish	-,055	,218	,994	-,63	,52
	American	-1,779*	,238	,000	-2,41	-1,15
Turkish	Beginner	,424	,218	,220	-,15	1,00
	Upper	,055	,218	,994	-,52	,63
	American	-1,724*	,233	,000	-2,34	-1,11
American	Beginner	2,147*	,238	,000	1,52	2,77
	Upper	1,779*	,238	,000	1,15	2,41
	Turkish	1,724*	,233	,000	1,11	2,34

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [LIFT] Usage of Syntactic

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	-,105	,259	,977	-,79	,58
	Turkish	-,419	,253	,354	-1,08	,25
	American	-1,695*	,276	,000	-2,42	-,97
Upper	Beginner	,105	,259	,977	-,58	,79
	Turkish	-,313	,253	,604	-,98	,35
	American	-1,589*	,276	,000	-2,31	-,86
Turkish	Beginner	,419	,253	,354	-,25	1,08
	Upper	,313	,253	,604	-,35	,98
	American	-1,276*	,270	,000	-1,99	-,57
American	Beginner	1,695*	,276	,000	,97	2,42
	Upper	1,589*	,276	,000	,86	2,31
	Turkish	1,276*	,270	,000	,57	1,99

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [NOTES] Usage of Syntactic

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	-,211	,203	,728	-,74	,32
	Turkish	-,190	,198	,771	-,71	,33
	American	-,733*	,216	,006	-1,30	-,17
Upper	Beginner	,211	,203	,728	-,32	,74
	Turkish	,020	,198	1,000	-,50	,54
	American	-,523	,216	,082	-1,09	,05
Turkish	Beginner	,190	,198	,771	-,33	,71
	Upper	-,020	,198	1,000	-,54	,50
	American	-,543	,211	,058	-1,10	,01
American	Beginner	,733*	,216	,006	,17	1,30
	Upper	,523	,216	,082	-,05	1,09
	Turkish	,543	,211	,058	-,01	1,10

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [MENU] Usage of Syntactic

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	-,053	,074	,894	-,25	,14
	Turkish	-,095	,073	,560	-,29	,10
	American	-,067	,079	,835	-,28	,14
Upper	Beginner	,053	,074	,894	-,14	,25
	Turkish	-,043	,073	,936	-,23	,15
	American	-,014	,079	,998	-,22	,19
Turkish	Beginner	,095	,073	,560	-,10	,29
	Upper	,043	,073	,936	-,15	,23
	American	,029	,078	,983	-,18	,23
American	Beginner	,067	,079	,835	-,14	,28
	Upper	,014	,079	,998	-,19	,22
	Turkish	-,029	,078	,983	-,23	,18

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [GENERAL] Usage of Lexical

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	-1,632*	,514	,012	-2,99	-,28
	Turkish	-,644	,502	,577	-1,97	,68
	American	-2,330*	,548	,000	-3,77	-,89
Upper	Beginner	1,632*	,514	,012	,28	2,99
	Turkish	,987	,502	,210	-,33	2,31
	American	-,698	,548	,582	-2,14	,74
Turkish	Beginner	,644	,502	,577	-,68	1,97
	Upper	-,987	,502	,210	-2,31	,33
	American	-1,686*	,536	,013	-3,10	-,27
American	Beginner	2,330*	,548	,000	,89	3,77
	Upper	,698	,548	,582	-,74	2,14
	Turkish	1,686*	,536	,013	,27	3,10

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

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Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [BOOK] Usage of Lexical

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	-,474	,207	,112	-1,02	,07
	Turkish	-,371	,202	,267	-,90	,16
	American	-,961*	,221	,000	-1,54	-,38
Upper	Beginner	,474	,207	,112	-,07	1,02
	Turkish	,103	,202	,957	-,43	,64
	American	-,488*	,221	,025	-1,07	,09
Turkish	Beginner	,371	,202	,267	-,16	,90
	Upper	-,103	,202	,957	-,64	,43
	American	-,590*	,216	,039	-1,16	-,02
American	Beginner	,961*	,221	,000	,38	1,54
	Upper	-,488*	,221	,025	-,09	1,07
	Turkish	,590*	,216	,039	,02	1,16

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [LIFT] Usage of Lexical

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	-,158	,214	,882	-,72	,41
	Turkish	-,261	,209	,599	-,81	,29
	American	-1,004*	,228	,000	-1,60	-,40
Upper	Beginner	,158	,214	,882	-,41	,72
	Turkish	-,103	,209	,961	-,65	,45
	American	-,846*	,228	,002	-1,45	-,25
Turkish	Beginner	,261	,209	,599	-,29	,81
	Upper	,103	,209	,961	-,45	,65
	American	-,743*	,223	,007	-1,33	-,16
American	Beginner	1,004*	,228	,000	,40	1,60
	Upper	,846*	,228	,002	,25	1,45
	Turkish	,743*	,223	,007	,16	1,33

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [NOTES] Usage of Lexical
Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	-,421	,185	,113	-,91	,07
	Turkish	-,080	,180	,970	-,55	,39
	American	-,375	,197	,234	-,89	,14
Upper	Beginner	,421	,185	,113	-,07	,91
	Turkish	,341	,180	,242	-,13	,82
	American	,046	,197	,996	-,47	,56
Turkish	Beginner	,080	,180	,970	-,39	,55
	Upper	-,341	,180	,242	-,82	,13
	American	-,295	,193	,423	-,80	,21
American	Beginner	,375	,197	,234	-,14	,89
	Upper	-,046	,197	,996	-,56	,47
	Turkish	,295	,193	,423	-,21	,80

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [MENU] Usage of Lexical
Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	-,158	,124	,581	-,48	,17
	Turkish	,063	,121	,954	-,26	,38
	American	,025	,132	,998	-,32	,37
Upper	Beginner	,158	,124	,581	-,17	,48
	Turkish	,221	,121	,269	-,10	,54
	American	,182	,132	,513	-,16	,53
Turkish	Beginner	-,063	,121	,954	-,38	,26
	Upper	-,221	,121	,269	-,54	,10
	American	-,038	,129	,991	-,38	,30
American	Beginner	-,025	,132	,998	-,37	,32
	Upper	-,182	,132	,513	-,53	,16
	Turkish	,038	,129	,991	-,30	,38

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [ORDER] Usage of Lexical

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	-,421	,163	,055	-,85	,01
	Turkish	,005	,159	1,000	-,41	,42
	American	-,014	,173	1,000	-,47	,44
Upper	Beginner	,421	,163	,055	-,01	,85
	Turkish	,426*	,159	,044	,01	,84
	American	,407	,173	,096	-,05	,86
Turkish	Beginner	-,005	,159	1,000	-,42	,41
	Upper	-,426*	,159	,044	-,84	-,01
	American	-,019	,169	,999	-,46	,43
American	Beginner	,014	,173	1,000	-,44	,47
	Upper	-,407	,173	,096	-,86	,05
	Turkish	,019	,169	,999	-,43	,46

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [GENEL] Usage of External

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	-5,000*	1,207	,001	-8,18	-1,82
	Turkish	-7,469*	1,178	,000	-10,57	-4,37
	American	-8,754*	1,285	,000	-12,14	-5,37
Upper	Beginner	5,000*	1,207	,001	1,82	8,18
	Turkish	-2,469	1,178	,165	-5,57	,63
	American	-3,754*	1,285	,024	-7,14	-,37
Turkish	Beginner	7,469*	1,178	,000	4,37	10,57
	Upper	2,469	1,178	,165	-,63	5,57
	American	-1,286	1,258	,737	-4,60	2,03
American	Beginner	8,754*	1,285	,000	5,37	12,14
	Upper	3,754*	1,285	,024	,37	7,14
	Turkish	1,286	1,258	,737	-2,03	4,60

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [BOOK] Usage of External

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	-2,000*	,667	,019	-3,76	-,24
	Turkish	-3,757*	,651	,000	-5,47	-2,04
	American	-3,014*	,710	,000	-4,88	-1,14
Upper	Beginner	2,000*	,667	,019	,24	3,76
	Turkish	-1,757*	,651	,042	-3,47	-,04
	American	-1,014	,710	,487	-2,88	,86
Turkish	Beginner	3,757*	,651	,000	2,04	5,47
	Upper	1,757*	,651	,042	,04	3,47
	American	,743	,695	,710	-1,09	2,57
American	Beginner	3,014*	,710	,000	1,14	4,88
	Upper	1,014	,710	,487	-,86	2,88
	Turkish	-,743	,695	,710	-2,57	1,09

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [LIFT] Usage of External

Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	-1,684*	,521	,010	-3,06	-,31
	Turkish	-2,431*	,509	,000	-3,77	-1,09
	American	-4,393*	,555	,000	-5,85	-2,93
Upper	Beginner	1,684*	,521	,010	,31	3,06
	Turkish	-,747	,509	,462	-2,09	,59
	American	-2,709*	,555	,000	-4,17	-1,25
Turkish	Beginner	2,431*	,509	,000	1,09	3,77
	Upper	,747	,509	,462	-,59	2,09
	American	-1,962*	,543	,003	-3,39	-,53
American	Beginner	4,393*	,555	,000	2,93	5,85
	Upper	2,709*	,555	,000	1,25	4,17
	Turkish	1,962*	,543	,003	,53	3,39

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [NOTES] Usage of External
Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	-,211	,346	,929	-1,12	,70
	Turkish	-,469	,338	,511	-1,36	,42
	American	-,688	,368	,252	-1,66	,28
Upper	Beginner	,211	,346	,929	-,70	1,12
	Turkish	-,258	,338	,870	-1,15	,63
	American	-,477	,368	,569	-1,45	,49
Turkish	Beginner	,469	,338	,511	-,42	1,36
	Upper	,258	,338	,870	-,63	1,15
	American	-,219	,361	,929	-1,17	,73
American	Beginner	,688	,368	,252	-,28	1,66
	Upper	,477	,368	,569	-,49	1,45
	Turkish	,219	,361	,929	-,73	1,17

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: [MENU] Usage of External
Tukey HSD

(I) Group membership	(J) Group membership	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
Beginner	Upper	-1,105*	,350	,012	-2,03	-,18
	Turkish	-,812	,341	,091	-1,71	,09
	American	-,660	,372	,296	-1,64	,32
Upper	Beginner	1,105*	,350	,012	,18	2,03
	Turkish	,293	,341	,826	-,61	1,19
	American	,446	,372	,631	-,53	1,43
Turkish	Beginner	,812	,341	,091	-,09	1,71
	Upper	-,293	,341	,826	-1,19	,61
	American	,152	,365	,975	-,81	1,11
American	Beginner	,660	,372	,296	-,32	1,64
	Upper	-,446	,372	,631	-1,43	,53
	Turkish	-,152	,365	,975	-1,11	,81

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

APPENDIX H

Research Permissions

Sayı : B.30.2.ODT.0.E1.00.00/2007/400- 1762 —12476

Konu : Elif Yumun hk.

14/11/2007

REKTÖRLÜK MAKAMI'NA,

İngiliz Dili Öğretimi Anabilim Dalı Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Elif Yumun'un, 2007-2008 öğretim yılı I. döneminde tezi ile ilgili "Development of Request Strategies in L2 English" başlıklı çalışmasına ilişkin olarak ODTÜ Hazırlık okulu ve Atılım Üniversitesi Hazırlık Okulu'nda uygulama yapması için görevlendirme başvurusu incelenmiş; ilgili Anabilim Dalı Başkanlığı'nın görüşüne dayanarak adı geçen öğrencinin isteği doğrultusunda görevlendirilmesi, Etik Komite onayı koşulu ile uygun görülmüştür.

Gereği için bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Y. Doç. Dr. Feyza Tantekin Erden
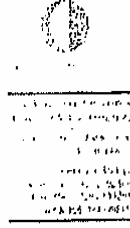Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdür Yardımcısı

Ekler: YKK
EABD görüşü
Öğrenciye ait ilgili evraklar

Etik Komite Onayı

Uygundur

..../...../2007

Prof.Dr.Canan ÖZGEN
Fen Bil. Enst.Müdürü

Sayı : B.30.2.ODT.0.94.00.00/211/08-
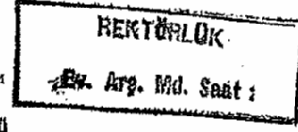Konu :

12.12.2007

Sn. Elif YUMUN

2007/2008 öğretim yılı I. döneminde Yabancı Diller Yüksek Okulu Temel İngilizce Bölümünde "Development of Request Strategies in L2 English" başlıklı uygulamalı çalışma yapmanız Müdürlüğümüzce uygun görülmüştür.

Saygılarımla.

Prof. Dr. Hüsnü Enginarlar
Yabancı Diller Yüksek Okulu Müdürü

T.C.

ATILIM ÜNİVERSİTESİ™

Hazırlık Okulu Müdürlüğü

1996

Sayı : B.30.2.ATL.00.07.16 / 08 - 113   17 / 3 / 2008

Konu : Elif Yumun'un Tez İle İlgili Uygulaması

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ

Sayın Prof. Dr. Mehmet Utku

Rektör Yardımcısı

İlgi : B.30.2.ODTÜ.70.72.00 / 400 - 9358 sayı ve 28.11.2007 tarihli yazınız.

İngiliz Dili Öğretim Anabilim Dalı Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrenciniz Elif Yumun'un 'Development of Request Stratigies in L2 English' konulu tez çalışması için Atılım Üniversitesi Hazırlık Okulunda uygulama yapması uygundur.

Bilgilerinize arz ederim.

Saygılarımla,

A. Kocabıyıkoğlu

Aytuna Kocabıyıkoğlu

Müdür

ÖİBB

Gereği lütfen

08.04.08 005834

Prof. Dr. Mehmet UTKU

Rektör Yardımcısı

8/4.

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