UNIVERSITY OF ÇUKUROVA
THE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING DEPARTMENT

A COMPARATIVE STUDY ON THE PERFORMANCE OF REQUESTS AND APOLOGIES BY TURKISH AND AMERICAN TEENAGERS: A PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE POINT OF VIEW

Berna BALCI

MASTER OF ARTS THESIS

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To the Directorship of the Institute of Social Sciences, Çukurova University.

We certify that this thesis is satisfactory for the award of the degree of Master of Arts in the Department of English Language Teaching.

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I certify that this thesis conforms to the formal standards of the Institute of Social Sciences.

…./…./….

Prof. Dr. Nihat KÜÇÜKSAVAŞ
Director of Institute

ÖZET

TÜRK VE AMERİKALI ERGENLERİN RİCA VE ÖZÜR ÜRETİMLERİ ÜZERİNE KARŞILAŞTIRMALI BİR ÇALIŞMA: KULLANIM EDİNCİ BAKIŞ AÇISI

Berna BALCI

Yüksek Lisans Tezi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı
Danışman: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Hatice ÇUBUKÇU
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İletişimin temel birimleri sayılan sözeylemlerin (Searle 1969, 1975) kullanımı, kişinin kullanım edincinin temel göstergelerinden birisidir. Sözeylemler arasından "rica etme" ve "özür dileme" eylemleri doğaları gereği karşıdaki kişi üzerinde olası bir yük oluşturma ya da zarar verme gibi sonuçlar yarattıklarından, alıcıyı tehdit edici sözeylemler olarak nitelendirilirler (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Bu bağlamda, bu çalışmanın temel amacı ergen Türk ve Amerikalı İngilizce konuşucularının rica ve özür üretim stratejlerini tanımlamak ve karşılaştırmaktır. Bu çalışmada kullanılan veriler 14-15 yaşlarındaki 20 Amerikalı ve 20 Türk ergenden Yazılı Söylem Tamamlama Testleri kullanılarak toplanmıştır. Veriler toplandıktan sonra CCSARP (Blum-Kulka ve diğerleri, 1989; Sözeylemlerin farklı kültürlerde yerine getiriliş biçimini incelemeye dönük proje) Tanımlama Kılavuzu temel alınarak, nicel ve nicel istatistik kullanılarak incelenmiştir. Amerikalı ve Türk katılımcıların sözeylem üretimlerinin karşılaştırılması sonucunda her iki grubun da CCSARP Tanımlama Kılavuzu'nda tanımlanan sözeylem stratejilerinden çoğunu kullandıkları gözlemlenmesine rağmen, bu stratejilerin iki grup arasındaki dağılımının farklılık gösterdiği saptanmıştır. Daha sonra, Amerikalı ve Türk katılımcıların "rica" ve "özür" üretimlerini "uygunluk" açısından karşılaştırmak için, katılımcıların sözeylem üretimleri iki ana dil konuşucusu değerlendirici tarafından 10 puanlık bir ölçekle değerlendirilmiştir. Ana dil konuşucusu değerlendiriciler tarafından Amerikalı ve Türk katılımcıların üretimlerine verilen notları karşılaştırmak için SPSS testleri uygulanmıştır. Bu karşılaştırmanın sonucunda Türk katılımcıların Amerikalı

katılımcılar kadar duruma uygun özür dileyebildikleri, ancak Türk katılımcıların rica yerine getirişlerinin Amerikalı katılımcılarinki kadar uygun olmadığı saptanmıştır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Kullanım edinci, sözeylemler, ricalar, özürler

ABSTRACT

A COMPARATIVE STUDY ON THE PERFORMANCE OF REQUESTS AND APOLOGIES BY TURKISH AND AMERICAN TEENAGERS: A PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE POINT OF VIEW

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Speech acts are considered to be one of the main components of *pragmatic competence*. *Requests* and *apologies* are two of the basic speech acts to be acquired by language learners, because they both have face-threatening features (Brown and Levinson, 1987), and failure in the production of them might result in miscommunication in the target language. In this respect, the main aim of this study is to identify and compare the *request* and *apology* productions of American and Turkish teenager speakers of English. The data of this study was collected from 20 American and 20 Turkish 14-15 year-old speakers of English by using Written Discourse Completion Tests (DCTs). It was analyzed based on Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project Coding Manual and by using descriptive statistics. As a result of the comparison of the native and nonnative speech act productions it was found that even though both groups use most of the speech act strategies proposed by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) in the Cross-cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) Coding Manual, the distribution of these strategies differ across the two groups. Next, in order to compare the *request* and *apology* productions of the American and Turkish participants in terms of appropriateness, the speech act productions of the participants were graded by two native raters based on a ten-point rating scale. Statistical analysis (SPSS) tests were conducted to compare the grades given by the two raters to the productions of the native and nonnative participants. As a result of this comparison, Turkish participants were found to use as appropriate *apologies* as Americans. However, the *request*

productions of the Turkish participants were found less appropriate than the *request* productions of the American participants.

Keywords: Pragmatic competence, speech acts, requests, apologies

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Berna BALCI, 2009

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

When humans use language to communicate, knowledge of language goes hand-in-hand with knowledge of the principles of successful communication. Branches of linguistics such as *syntax, morphology, phonology,* etc. focuses on humans' knowledge of various aspects of language. A branch of linguistics different from these fields is *Pragmatics*. It deals directly with the quality of human communication. Crystal (1985, 240) defines pragmatics as "the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication ".

To be a communicatively competent speaker of any language, a person must develop *pragmatic competence* in that language. Barron (2003, 10) defines *pragmatic competence* as " the knowledge of the linguistic resources available in a given language for realizing particular illocutions, knowledge of the sequential aspects of speech acts and finally, knowledge of the appropriate contextual use of the particular languages' linguistic resources". As defined here, *pragmatic competence* is directly related to the knowledge of speech acts, speech functions and their appropriate usage in certain contexts. In a sense, speech acts constitute the core of *pragmatic competence*. This feature of speech acts has made them the focus of a great deal of studies conducted in the *Applied Linguistics* field. So far many studies have been carried out on the realization and production of speech acts in various languages. Some of these studies focused on the speech act production and realization of native speakers of a language, some others focused on nonnative speaker productions, and a third group focused on the comparison of the speech act production of native and nonnative speakers of a particular language.

Kasper (1997, 2) claims that "in order to communicate successfully in a target language, *pragmatic competence* in L2 (second language) must be reasonably well developed." However, *pragmatic competence* is not easy to develop: EFL (English as a foreign language) learners usually have difficulty in developing *pragmatic competence*

in the target language. Therefore, *pragmatic competence* - which consists of the knowledge of speech act functions and sociolinguistic competence - should be taken into consideration in the EFL teaching/learning environments. *Cross-cultural* and *Interlanguage Pragmatics* fields were developed to investigate the speech act realizations of native and nonnative speakers in different languages. *Interlanguage Pragmatics* deals with how language learners use their target language to achieve certain pragmatic functions, and if their usage of the target language is significantly different from the native speakers of the target language, and the reasons behind these differences. (Blum-Kulka, 1991; Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993; Ellis, 1994; Kasper, 1998). *Cross-cultural Pragmatics*, on the other hand, deals with the linguistic realization of a particular speech act or pragmatic feature in different languages.

One of the goals of *Cross-cultural* and *Interlanguage Pragmatics* fields is to enhance the quality of language teaching/learning environment. So far, various languages are investigated in *Cross-cultural* and *Interlanguage Pragmatics* fields. English is the most commonly investigated target language in the *Interlanguage Pragmatics* field, and first languages of the nonnative participants in those studies show variety. Many studies focus on the development of *pragmatic competence* in a second or foreign language. Some of these studies dealt with the acquisition of speech acts in the target language investigated (Blum-Kulka, 1982; Blum-Kulka & Olshatin, 1986; House & Kasper, 1987; Olshtain & Weinbach, 1987; Takahashi & Beebe, 1987; Faerch & Kasper, 1989; Billmyer, 1990; Olshtain & Cohen, 1990; Takahashi & Beebe, 1993; Morrow, 1996). In most of these studies, while the native language of the learners were various (Hebrew, German, Japanese, Danish, etc.), the second or foreign language under investigation was English.

One of the most outstanding and extensive studies conducted in *Cross-cultural* and *Interlanguage Pragmatics* fields is the Cross-cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP), which was carried out by Blum-Kulka et. al (1989). In this research project *request* and *apology* production of native and nonnative speakers of eight different world languages were investigated, and a Coding Manual based on the common features of the speech act realization of the native and nonnative speakers of these languages was created by the researchers. According to this manual, while producing *requests* and *apologies*, language speakers follow some universal patterns. However, as the findings of the studies conducted as a part of the CCSARP project show, the order of these patterns and the politeness strategies used by the speakers with

these patterns show some varieties as a result of cultural factors and/or nonnative speakers' lack of pragmatic and/or linguistic competence in the target language.

Although many studies have focused on the *speech act* realization of nonnative speakers of English, so far no study has focused on the *request* and *apology* production of Turkish learners of English. This study focuses on the interlanguage as well as the cross-cultural aspects of speech act production of Turkish learners of English. With this purpose, *request* and *apology* productions of American and Turkish speakers of English coming from the same age group (14-15 year-olds) are compared. The study is based on the Discourse Completion Test answers of twenty American and twenty Turkish speakers of English. The native and nonnative *request* and *apology* productions are analyzed and the strategies used by these two groups are identified and compared qualitatively based on the Coding Manual created by Blum-Kulka et. al (1989) as an outcome of Cross-cultural Speech Act Realization Project. Next, the data was analyzed also by using Descriptive Statistics. In addition, the appropriateness of the speech act productions of the two groups are graded by native raters and the results are compared by using statistical analysis (SPSS).

In brief, this study is based on the comparison of *request* and *apology* productions of 14-15 year-old American and Turkish speakers of English. It involves the identification of the speech act production patterns of native and nonnative speakers based on the slightly modified CCSARP Coding Manual, comparison of the appropriateness levels of the speech act productions of native and nonnative speakers, and implications for the English Language Teaching field from the aspect of pragmatics instruction.

1.2. Background to the Study

In the early 1960s, based on his studies on human language, Chomsky (1965) claimed that the principles of grammar of human languages are qualitatively different from the principles governing language use. He put forward the term *idealized competence* to refer to the unconscious knowledge possessed by any native speaker of any language. According to Chomsky (1965), when someone "knows" a language, s/he has unconscious knowledge of a set of principles linguistic structure. Since all speakers of a given language share the same basic knowledge of the syntax and phonology of their language, Chomsky argued that theories of grammar should move away from

specific individuals in specific communicative situations. However, some other researchers have pointed out that the ability to use language to communicate also involves unconscious knowledge of systematic principles. For instance, Bouton (1988) looked at the correlation between proficiency and the ability to interpret implicature correctly. This study showed that proficiency in L2 morphosyntax does not automatically bring with it proficiency in L2 pragmatics-that is, knowledge of morphosyntax may be necessary for pragmatics, but it is certainly not sufficient (see Bardovi-Harlig, 2001, Chapter 5, for discussion). Language learners must have the knowledge of the appropriate language usage in the target language in addition to their knowledge of target grammar and vocabulary.

In the early 1970s Dell Hymes (1971) proposed the term *communicative competence* which refers to our ability to use language appropriately in different contexts. Hymes's "communicative competence" not only includes the *grammatical competence* – another term for Chomsky's "linguistic competence" - but it also includes the knowledge of the usage of language as a communication tool. Schiffrin (1995, 140) explained this in her book *Approaches to Discourse*: "Knowledge of abstract linguistic rules is included in *communicative competence.* But also included is the ability to use language in concrete situations of everyday life".

Hymes's "communicative competence" formed the base of the theory of language as communication, which became integral to the construction of Communicative Language Teaching. Particularly in the 1970s and 1980s a variety of studies on Communicative Language Teaching and its usage in classrooms and syllabuses were carried out (Candlin, 1976; Johnson, 1982; Littlewood, 1981; Munby, 1978; Sauvignon, 1983; Widdowson, 1972, 78, 79; Yalden, 1983). Widdowson (1978) proposed the existence of a relationship between linguistic systems and their communicative values in a particular discourse. That is, it would be wrong to isolate particular linguistic forms from discourse context. There is a relationship between form and function. Nunn (2006) claimed in his article that *communicative competence* shed light on work in the Communicative Approach to language teaching, reavealing the influence of this approach on language instruction. He proposed that *communicative competence* theory influenced the emphasis of what is taught from teaching language as a grammar system towards teaching language for usage in social contexts (Nunn, 2006).

In the early 1980s Canale and Swain (1980, later modified in Canale, 1983) worked on Hymes's *communicative competence* and proposed a model of

communicative competence consisting of four dimensions: *grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence* and *strategic competence*.

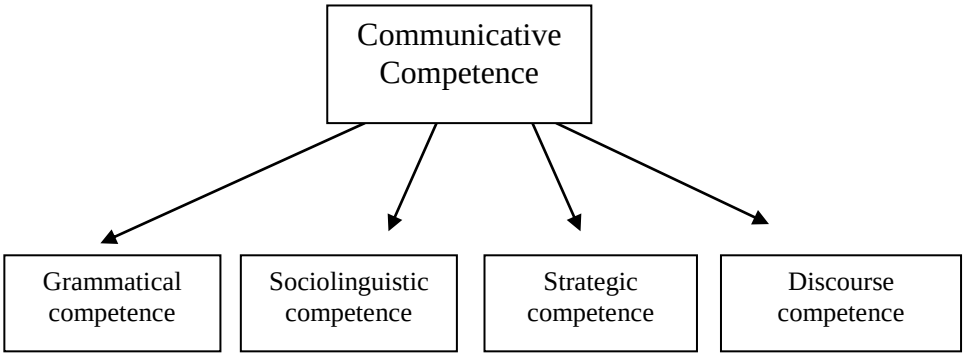

Figure 1. Canale & Swain (1980) and Canale's (1983) model of communicative competence (Safont, 2005, 52).

Grammatical competence, as defined by Alptekin (2002, 57), is directly related to Chomskyan view of *linguistic competence* and "it is the native speakers' knowledge of the syntactic, lexical, morphological and phonological features of the language, as well as the capacity to manipulate this features to produce well-formed words and sentences".

Sociolinguistic competence refers to the knowledge of the social roles of language usage, the knowledge of the context, role of the participants, the shared information and the communicative purposes.

Discourse competence can be thought of as the knowledge of language usage in an extended context. It includes the knowledge of combining sentences to form a meaningful discourse.

The final component of *communicative competence* according to Canale and Swain's model is *strategic competence,* which refers to the knowledge of the communication strategies that help speakers organize their speech and "keep the communication channel open" (Alptekin, 2002, 58).

Another linguist, Bachman (1990, 87), also worked on *communicative competence* and proposed a different model consisting of two components. Bachman divides *language competence* into two areas as *organizational competence* and *pragmatic competence*. In this model (1990) *organizational competence* includes the knowledge of linguistic units (*grammatical competence*) and the rules of joining them

together at the levels of sentence and discourse (*textual competence*). *Pragmatic competence* consists of *illocutionary competence*, which is the knowledge of speech acts and speech functions, and *sociolinguistic competence*. *Sociolinguistic competence* refers to the ability to use language appropriately according to the context, and includes the ability to select communicative acts and appropriate strategies to implement them depending on the contextual features of the situation.

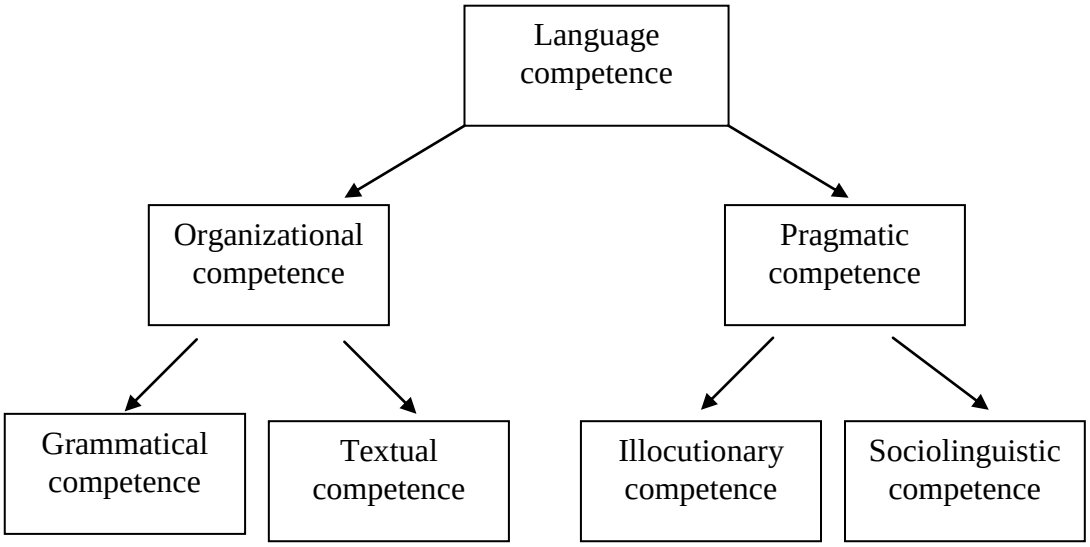

Figure 2. Bachman's model of communicative competence (Safont, 2005, 53).

The main focus of this study is on *pragmatic competence* regarding the knowledge of speech acts. As Bachman claimed in his model, *speech acts* (Searle, 1969) are one of the most important components of *pragmatic competence*. Searle (1969, 16) stated: "the production or issuance of a sentence token under certain conditions is a speech act, and speech acts are the basic or minimal units of linguistic communication". In this study, we will focus mainly on two speech acts: *requests* and *apologies*. As Blum-Kulka et.al state (1989) in *Cross-cultural Pragmatics: Requests and Apologies* "these two speech acts are particularly interesting as they both constitute *face-threatening acts*, in Brown and Levinson's terms (1987, 11), but affect the participants' *face* wants in markedly different ways". While *requests* threaten the *negative face* of the speaker, which involves the want of every competent adult member that his/her actions be unimpeded by others, *apologies* threaten the *positive face* of the hearer, which is the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others (Brown & Levinson, 1987, 62). In other words, by making a request, the speaker

restricts his/her interlocutor's freedom and therefore threatens his/her negative face; on the other hand, by making an apology, the speaker acknowledges his/her own guilt and therefore threatens his/her own positive face.

Since *requests* and *apologies* have *face-threatening* features, their effective production in the target language is crucially important. EFL learners have difficulties particularly in the production of speech acts, for it is directly related to the target culture. Wierzbicka (1991, 149) makes the following claim: "Every culture has its own repertoire of characteristic speech acts and speech genres". As a result of different spoken genres, language learners may sometimes have problems even in their first languages. For this reason, we cannot expect foreign language learners to be competent in the production of the target language speech acts without giving them the chance to be exposed to pragmatics-focused instruction. Such instruction should present students with the speech act usages in the target culture/society and the appropriate language usage in the target language.

To be able to communicate appropriately in different settings, learners must be aware of some cultural values and social role expectations. Hymes (1972) claims that linguistic competence is not sufficient for successful interactions: a person should also know culturally acceptable language usages in different contexts. Also, Kasper (1997) argues that the studies on *pragmatic competence* show that even though it raises students' metalinguistic awareness, if it does not focus on pragmatics, foreign language teaching does not contribute much to develop students' metalinguistic awareness. Also, as Trosborg (1995) proposes, even advanced language learners may have difficulty in the production of speech acts in the target language. Because of these reasons, foreign language learners should be taught culturally acceptable production of the speech acts in the target language.

Speech acts are one of the most investigated pragmatic units both in *Cross-cultural* and *Interlanguage Pragmatics* fields. There have been many studies comparing the *speech act* realizations and productions of native speakers of various languages. In addition to this, as a result of developments in the *Interlanguage Pragmatics* field, many studies have been conducted to uncover the features of nonnative *speech act* production in a foreign language. Some of these studies aimed to develop foreign language learners' *pragmatic competence*. Some others focused on the ways of teaching *pragmatics* to foreign language learners, and many others investigated the differences between native and nonnative language production. The studies investigating the speech

act realizations of language learners can be divided into two categories: studies focusing on cross-cultural perpectives and studies focusing on developmental perspectives.

1.2.1. Studies on Speech Act Production: Cross-cultural perspectives

One of the most important studies conducted from a cross-cultural perspective is Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989) Cross-cutural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP). This project focused on the cultural differences between native and nonnative speakers' production of *requests* and *apologies.* The findings of this project provided insights into the differences and similarities between the speech act productions of native and nonnative speakers who come from different cultural backgrounds.

In another study, Eisenstein & Bodman (1993) investigated expression of gratitude used by native and nonnative speakers of American English who come from various linguistic backgrounds. As a result of this study nonnative speakers were found to have certain difficulties in adjusting complex linguistic forms to certain contexts. That is, language learners' use of expressions of gratitude appeared to be culture-bound. A later study by Eisenstein et al. (1996) again focused on the use of expression of gratitude by native and nonnative speakers of American English and showed that there are some sociocultural effects on the learners' performance. It was found that the cultural backgrounds of the learners affected their speech act usage in a negative way.

Nelson et al.'s (1996) study also shows some evidence of cross-cultural effects in the language learners' compliment productions. The participants of this study were Americans and Egyptians and the data collection tool was interview. The findings of this study showed that the answers of the American participants were shorter, and that the Egyptian participants used more comparatives. Additionally, it was observed that there are limited patterns used by the both groups. However, these patterns were not equivalent.

Olshtain and Weinbach (1993) investigated and compared *apology* and complaint productions of intermediate and advanced learners of Hebrew. They compared the results of the analysis of the nonnative productions with the productions of the native speakers. The findings of this study showed that the productions of the nonnative learners were longer and they were affected by the social distance of the interlocutors. In parallel to the results of this study, in their study investigating *apologies* and complaints Eisenstein and Bodman (1993) found that the learners display

a high degree of variability in their responses, but the linguistic structures used by them are not appropriate. Results of the both studies show that learners do not have the necessary pragmatic conventions required for native-like *apology* and complaint productions, and in general learners' productions are longer than the native speakers'.

In another study, Murphy and Neu (1996) investigated complaints. Native speakers of American English evaluated the complaint productions of Korean learners. The data collection tool was oral discourse completion tests. This study found that as a result of the culture the speech acts used by language learners can have features totally distinct from the native speakers' expectations. For instance, in this study the Koreans' speech act productions were evaluated as criticisms rather than complaints by the native speaker raters.

All of the studies cited above show that the native culture of the language learners affects their target language speech act productions. In the following section some of the studies investigating speech act productions of language learners from a developmental perspective will be presented.

1.2.2. Studies on Speech Act Production: Developmental Perspectives

In *Interlanguage Pragmatics* literature, many studies focus on the *speech act* production of nonnative speakers or the role of pragmatic instruction in language teaching classrooms. Most of these studies are *cross-sectional* ones that examine learners' production of speech acts. The results of most of these studies show that language learners have access to the same range of speech act realization strategies as native speakers. On the other hand, the results of some of these studies showed that learners differ from native speakers in the way they implement strategies linguistically by choosing conventions of form (Clark, 1979), and by selecting conventions of means and form according to social and discourse context. The results of the studies focusing on the *apology* strategies of Danish EFL learners (Trosborg 1987, 1995), Japanese ESL learners (Maeshiba et al., 1996), and Cantonese-speaking EFL learners (Rose, 1998) showed that irrespective of proficiency level, language learners can use all of the apologizing strategies included in Blum-Kulka et al.'s taxonomy (1989) of apologizing strategies. In addition to this, the results of the speech act realization studies focusing on *request* productions of language learners also showed that most of the time language learners have access to the same range of *requesting* strategies as the native speakers

included in Blum-Kulka et al.'s taxonomy (1989). These studies focusing on the *request* realization of language learners include the ones with Japanese ESL and EFL learners (Hill, 1997; Takahashi, 1996; Takahashi and DuFon 1989), L2 learners of Norwegian with a variety of L1 backgrounds (Svanes, 1992), Danish learners of English (Trosborg, 1995), speakers of Australian English learning Bahasa Indonesia as a foreign language (Hassall, 1997), and Cantonese-speaking EFL students (Rose, 1998).

Some of the studies conducted to discover the strategies used by nonnative speakers in speech act productions used participants from different proficiency levels and compared their productions with those of native speakers. For instance, Trosborg (1987) used role-plays to compare the *apologies* of native speakers of English, native speakers of Danish, and three levels of Danish EFL learners. In this study, Trosborg found that the usage of modality markers (e.g. downtoners, hedges, intensifiers, etc.) increased with proficiency level coming closer to the results of the analysis of the native speaker *apology* productions. In another study, Trosborg (1995) examined *requests, apologies* and complaint productions of Danish learners of English from three different levels (secondary school grade nine, high school and commercial school, and university students) and found that as the proficiency level increases the strategies used by the learners become more native-like.

In a study using Discourse Completion Tests, Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986) noted that as the proficiency level of the learners increases, the use of supportive moves in *request* performance increases as a bell-shaped developmental curve, starting out with an underuse of supportive moves, then increasing in the middle with an overuse of them, and finally approximating a native-like distribution. The participants were native and nonnative speakers of Hebrew from three different levels. Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986) also found that utterance length varied with proficiency, the high intermediate learners using longer *request* productions than the NS (native speakers) and the low intermediate and advanced learners.

In another study investigating the *request* productions of Japanese EFL learners from three different levels, Hill (1997) found that learners at all three proficiency levels overused the direct *requests*, and underused the nonconventionally indirect *requests* (hints). On the other hand, it was found that as the proficiency level increased the usage of direct strategies decreased, and that there was little change in the hinting strategies. Also, the conventionally-indirect *requests* were found to be used with a frequency close to the native productions. Trosborg's (1995) study with Danish EFL learners of English

at different proficiency levels showed parallel results with Hill's study. That is, the learners with higher proficiency levels in Trosborg's study used more indirect *requests* than the learners with low proficiency levels.

In a study focusing on ESL (English as a second language) learners, Walters (1980) found that ESL-speaking children and adolescents between the ages of 7 and 15 addressed adults with appropriately polite *request* strategies with ungrammatical forms. As a result of this study, Walters (1980, 341) suggests that *requests* "rely heavily on context, both linguistic (previous utterances in the converstaion) and the sociocultural (the status and ability of the adressee to comply)".

Takahashi and Beebe (1987) conducted a study on speech act *refusals* by comparing refusal production of Japanese learners of English from two different proficiency levels. This study did not demonstrate the predicted proficiency effect. However, contrary to the results of this study, Kasper and Rose (2002) state that some other studies have found that learners' limited second language knowledge prevented them from transferring complex first language conventions of means and form, and that increasing proficiency in the target language can apparently facilitate *negative pragmatic transfer*, which is defined by Rizk (2003, 405) as "the form of translating some formulaic expressions/phrases functioning to express different speech acts in L1 to express the equivalent speech act in L2". In another study Takahashi (1996) focused on *request* realizations of Japanese learners of English. At the end of this study she noted that "Japanese learners of English could not identify the English *requests* that were the real functional equivalents of the Japanese *request* strategies" (209-210). In her study Takahashi found that no matter what their level of proficiency is, Japanese learners of English rely on their first language *request* conventions or strategies in second language *request* realization, thus concluding that both low and high level Japanese learners of English showed evidence of transfer from their first language to their second language.

Maeshiaba et al. (1996) also conducted a study that focused on the effect of proficiency level on speech act production of language learners. In their study on *apologies* with intermediate and advanced Japanese-speaking ESL learners in Hawaii, Maeshiba et al. predicted that transfer of *apology* strategies could be based on similarities and differences in assessment of contextual variables, with positive transfer occuring with similar assessments, and negative transfer where assessments differed. For the most part, these predictions were borne out. An important finding was that the

advanced learners outpaced the intermediate group in both types of transfer, showing more positive transfer and less negative transfer.

In addition to the studies investigating the role of the proficiency level on the speech act realization of language learners, a few studies comparing native and nonnative speech act realizations by using nonnative speakers only from one level of proficiency have also been conducted. For instance, Hassall (1997) conducted a study on the comparison of the *request* productions of the Australian English speakers of Bahasa Indonesia with the native speaker productions. The findings of this study showed that the learners use the same requesting strategies as native speakers, but the distribution of these strategies is different.

There have also been some studies focusing on the teachability of some particular speech acts. Most of the recent studies focusing on the teachability of any aspect of pragmatic competence have been set within a cognitive perspective (Martinez-Flor & Alcon, 2007 on suggestions; Olshtain & Cohen, 1990 on apologies; Rose & Ng Kwai-Fun, 2001 on compliments and compliment responses; Martinez-Flor, 2007; Safont, 2005, 2007; Salazar, 2007; Takahashi, 2001; and Uso-Juan, 2007 on requests).

Billmyer (1990) conducted a study on compliments and implicatures. This was an experimental study in which the researcher investigated the effect of instruction on speech act realization of high intermediate learners of English. The group of participants who received pragmatics-focused instruction were found to perform better in terms of speech act production than the ones who did not receive that type of instruction.

Morrow (1996) investigated the teachability of refusals and complaints to a group of intermediate ESL learners. This study followed a single-group pre-test post-test research design. Roleplays and holistic ratings were used as the assessment tools. The results of this study showed that after getting explicit instruction about the target speech acts the quality of the speech act production of the learners increased.

In another study investigating the teachability of a certain speech act, Olshtain and Cohen (1990) focused on *apologies*. The target language was again English and the research design used by the researchers was single group pre-test post-test. The participants were advanced Hebrew learners of English. After receiving pragmatics-focused instruction, the apology productions of the learners were found to be more similar to those of native speakers.

Billmyer (1990) conducted research on the usage of compliments with upper intermediates. The participants were divided into treatment and control groups. The

treatment group received pragmatic instruction whereas the control group did not. At the end of the study, members of the treatment group were found to have improved their knowledge of the usage of compliments in the target language-English.

Csizér and Edwards (2004) conducted an empirical study in which they focused on two speech acts-openings and closings. A four-week treatment which consisted of classroom activities especially concerning openings and closings was carried out. The participants in this study were 92 high school students in Hungary. They were divided into treatment and control groups. Then they were given pre- and post-tests. In those pre- and post-tests the researchers gave the students role-playing tasks. The students were audio-recorded while performing in the target language. Later the transcripts of those conversations were evaluated from the aspect of measures of openings and closings. At the end of the study Csizér and Edwards found that their treatment was successful in developing *pragmatic competence* in the EFL classroom.

Most of the findings on the teachability of pragmatics suggest that instruction is both necessary and effective (Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Olshtain & Cohen, 1990; Rose, 2005; Safont, 2005; Wildner-Bassett, 1984, 1986; Rose and Kasper, 2001) and that explicit and deductive instruction is more effective for pragmatic learning than implicit and inductive teaching (Alcon, 2005; House, 1996; Rose & Ng Kwai-Fun, 2001; Takahashi, 2001).

Apart from the cross-sectional studies that focus on the developmental perspective of speech act productions of language learners, in Interlanguage Pragmatics literature there are also a few longitudinal studies focusing on language learners' speech act productions from a developmental perspective. One of these studies on *pragmatic competence* development is Schmidt's study. Schmidt (1983) conducted a longitudinal study and observed his subject Wes, an adult English language learner, for three years. According to the results of this study Schmidt's subject Wes made little progress in his grammatical knowledge, whereas his pragmatic and discourse competence improved considerably. After three years, his *request* realizations were more native-like and the amount of the imperatives in his productions increased. However, as reported by Schmidt (1983), some non-native characteristics still remained. Data for this study was obtained by means of recordings and observations of authentic discourse.

Another longitudinal study focusing on the development of *request* production in a foreign language was conducted by Achiba. Achiba (2002) observed her daughter Yao's *request* production development as a beginner learner of English. After

investigating her pragmatic development for a few months, Achiba identified her daughter's stages of L2 *request* development. In a third longitudinal study Ellis (1992) worked with his beginner ESL students in a classroom setting. Based on their *request* production development he proposed a three-stage developmental sequence for *requests.*

In this study the main focus will be on two speech acts, the comparison of the *request* and *apology* productions of 14-15 year-old native and nonnative speakers of English. This comparison is based on data collected from American and Turkish participants by means of Discourse Completion Tests (DCT). These tests include different situations that require *request* and *apology* production, and are designed to control some sociolinguistic variables (power, distance, imposition). The strategies used by native and nonnative speakers of English while producing *requests* and *apologies* will be identified and compared based on the Cross-cultural Speech Act Realization Project (Blum-Kulka et. al, 1989) Coding Manual. As Blum-Kulka et. al state (1989, 5) "specific studies of speech acts from cross-cultural perspective show how clashes between different interactional styles can lead to intercultural miscommunication". Because of this reason, identifying the differences between the *request* and *apology* production of native and nonnative speakers of English is important for English Language Teaching field. Trosborg (1995) states that the studies conducted in *Interlanguage Pragmatics* (the study of nonnative speakers' use and acquisition of linguistic action patterns in a second language (Kasper, 1989)) are not adequate for the language teaching field, and more studies focusing on the speech act production differences of native and nonnative speakers should be carried out.

1.3. Statement of the Problem

Although there have been many studies conducted in *Cross-cultural* and *Interlanguage Pragmatics* fields, most of these studies have been carried out with adult language learners; and studies that use teenage language learners as participants are poorly represented in litrerature of the field. Secondly, though many studies have compared native and nonnative *request* and *apology* productions, no comparative study that deals with *request* and *apology* production of Turkish learners of English is represented in literature of the field. Moreover, no study has aimed to identify the

requesting and *apologizing* strategies used by 14-15 year-old learners of English and to compare these usages with native speaker productions in terms of appropriateness.

1.4. The Aim of the Study

This study aims to identify and compare the strategies used by 14-15 year-old American and Turkish speakers of English while issuing *requests* and *apologies*. Accordingly, this study also aims to identify the differences between the appropriateness levels of the American and Turkish *request* and *apology* productions in English.

1.5. Research Questions

1) What are the requesting head act strategies used by 14-15 year-old American speakers of English?

2) What are the requesting mitigating supportive moves used by 14-15 year-old American speakers of English?

3) What are the requesting head act strategies used by 14-15 year-old Turkish speakers of English?

4) What are the requesting mitigating supportive moves used by 14-15 year-old Turkish speakers of English?

5) What are the apologizing strategies used by 14-15 year-old American speakers of English?

6) What are the apologizing strategies used by 14-15 year-old Turkish speakers of English?

7) Does the choice of requesting head act and mitigating supportive move strategies differ across the two groups?

8) Does the choice of apologizing strategies differ across the two groups?

9) How different are the native and nonnative *request* productions in terms of appropriateness?

10) How different are the native and nonnative *apology* productions in terms of appropriateness?

1.6. Operational Definitions

Pragmatic competence: Knowledge of the linguistic resources available in a given language for realizing particular illocutions, knowledge of the sequential aspects of speech acts and finally, knowledge of the appropriate contextual use of the particular languages' linguistic resources (Barron, 2003, 10).

Speech act: 1- A speech act is the basic unit of language used to express meaning, an utterance that expresses an intention. 2- A speech act is an utterance that serves a function in communication.

Request: An act of asking politely or formally for something.

Apology: A regretful acknowledgement of an offense or failure.

1.7. Limitations of the Study

Since this study includes only 20 American and 20 Turkish speakers of English it would be misleading to generalize the requesting and apologizing patterns used by these native and nonnative speakers to all 14-15 year-old native and nonnative speakers of English. Also, as the L2 learners in this study are 8th graders attending a public secondary school in Turkey, it may be assumed that their proficiency of using the target language may have an impact on the performance of the speech acts in question. Finally, the nature of the data collected through DCT in this study may also create limitations regarding level of authenticity as the case in similar studies.

In the next chapter, the theoretical background behind this study and the review of literature regarding speech act production of native and nonnative language speakers will be discussed.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the theoretical framework of the study by defining *Pragmatics* and presenting background information about *Interlanguage Pragmatics*, *Cross-cultural Pragmatics*, *Speech Act Theory*, and *Politeness Theory*. The findings of some of the studies carried out in the *Interlanguage* and *Cross-cultural Pragmatics* fields are discussed. This chapter also provides information about the *Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project* (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989) which forms a base for this study.

2.2. Pragmatics

Kasper (1997, 1) defines *Pragmatics* as "the study of communicative action in its sociocultural context". In other words, rather than the structure or sounds of a language, *Pragmatics* deals with the usage of language in context. As Leech (1983) suggests, the field of pragmatics did not become the focus of some linguistical and philosophical research until the 60s and 70s (Lakoff, 1971; Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969; Grice, 1975; Hymes, 1966, 71, 72). In 1971 Lakoff argued that syntax could not be seperated from the study of language use; based on this idea, *Pragmatics*, which is simply "the study of language in use," was developed.

In the 80s *Pragmatics* became more popular among linguists. Leech (1983, 1) claims that "we cannot really understand the nature of language itself unless we understand pragmatics: how language is used in communication". Leech & Thomas (1983) proposed a model which subdivides *pragmatics* into *pragmalinguistics* and *sociopragmatics* components. In this model *pragmalinguistics* is defined as the resources for conveying communicative acts and relational or interpersonal meanings. These resources include pragmatic strategies like *directness* and *indirectness*, *routines*, and a large range of linguistic forms which can intensify or soften communicative acts. On the other hand, *sociopragmatics* was described as "the sociological interface of pragmatics" (Leech, 1983, 10), referring to the social perceptions underlying participants' interpretation and performance of communicative action. As a result of this

distinction, while dealing with pragmatics attention is paid to consider two perspectives. The first one is the *pragmalinguistic knowledge* which refers to the means to weaken or strengthen the force of an utterance. The second one is the *sociopragmatic knowledge*, which refers to the knowledge of the particular means that are likely to be the most successful for a given situation (Alcon & Martinez-Flor, 2008, 3).

Pragmatic ability is included in a language speaker's *communicative competence* (Hymes, 1966). As mentioned before, *communicative competence* consists of *illocutionary competence* and *sociolinguistic competence* (Bachman, 1990). According to Bachman's model, *illocutionary competence* refers to the knowledge of speech acts and speech functions, and *sociolinguistic competence* can be defined as the ability to use language appropriately according to the context.

Kasper and Rose (2002, 318) define becoming pragmatically competent as "the process of establishing sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competence and the increasing ability to understand and produce sociopragmatic meanings with pragmalinguistic conventions". Since *pragmatic competence* is one of the most important complements of language speakers' *communicative competence*, there is a need to help language learners develop their pragmatic competences in the target language. *Interlanguage Pragmatics* and *Cross-cultural Pragmatics* fields developed as a response to this need. Many studies focusing on different aspects of *pragmatic competence* of native and nonnative speakers have been conducted both in the *Cross-cultural* and the *Interlanguage Pragmatics* fields. The next two sections will focus on the Interlanguage and Cross-cultural Pragmatics fields.

2.2.1. Interlanguage Pragmatics

Interlanguage Pragmatics has been defined as the study of nonnative speakers' use and acquisition of linguistic action patterns in a second language (e.g.Kasper, 1989). Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993, 4) state that "Interlanguage Pragmatics (hereon IP), has derived its theoretical and empirical foundation from general and especially cross-cultural pragmatics (e.g. Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989)". In brief, IP is known as "the study of nonnative speaker's use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge" (Kasper & Rose, 1999).

Alcon and Martinez-Flor (2008) suggest that there are two main views of understanding pragmatic learning in the IP research field. These two views are the cognitive theoretical approach and the socially oriented activity approach. In the cognitive theoretical approach the development of pragmatic competence has been considered as an individual mental process, and data have been collected under experimental or quasiexperimental conditions by means of written and oral discourse completion and discourse evaluation tasks (Alcon and Martinez-Flor, 2008).

The socially oriented theoretical approach takes social interaction to the center. Sociocultural and language socialization are the two perspectives deriving from this approach. Both of these perpectives give importance to the social and the cultural context of learning, focus on the process of language acquisition, and, since they are inherently developmental, constitute adequate frameworks for conducting studies with a focus on developmental issues in pragmatics (Alcon and Martinez-Flor, 2008). However, the main focus of these two perspectives are different. While the sociocultural theory focuses on exploring the mediating role of language in the process of language learning, language socialization focuses on the integration of culture and language (Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986).

Alcon and Martinez-Flor (2008) state:

> IP research has focused on describing and explaining learners' use, perception, and acquisition of second language (L2) pragmatic ability both in L2 and FL contexts. Regarding learners' use, most of the studies have been comparative given its closeness to cross-cultural pragmatics, and their main focus of research has been speech acts. In those studies, as reported by Bardovi-Harlig (2001), it has been shown that native speakers (NSs) and non-native speakers (NNS) appear to differ in the production of speech acts (8).

As Rose (2005, 386) suggests, there are three main questions dealt in the IP field: "Is pragmatics teachable?, Does the instruction in pragmatics produce results that outpace exposure alone", and "Do the different instructional approaches yield different outcomes?" As suggested by Kasper and Rose (1999) the great majority of the IP studies have focused on L2 use rather than development. Most of the studies carried out in this field have been cross-sectional studies (Scarcella, 1979; Olshtain & Blum-Kulka, 1985; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1986; Takahashi & Beebe, 1987; Trosborg, 1987, 1995; Takahashi & DuFon, 1989; Omar, 1991; Svanes, 1992; Kerekes, 1992; Robinson, 1992;

Houck & Gass, 1996; Koike, 1996; Maeshiba et al., 1996; Takahashi, 1996; Hill, 1997; Hassall, 1997; Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Rose, 1998). The results of most of these cross-sectional studies show that learners use almost the same speech act realization strategies as the native speakers. On the other hand, learners differ from the native speakers in the way they implement strategies linguistically by selecting conventions of form and by selecting conventions of means and form according to social and discourse context (Kasper & Rose, 1999, 86). However, there are only a few longitudinal studies in the IP field (Schmidt, 1983; Schmidt & Frota, 1986; Bouton, 1992, 1994; Ellis, 1992, 1997; Sawyer, 1992; Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993; Siegal, 1994; Kanagy & Igarashi, 1997; Cohen, 1997). Since most of the longitudinal studies rely on data collected in authentic settings of language use, they shed light on the relationship between social and institutional contexts and pragmatic development (Kasper & Rose, 1999).

The main research topics in the IP field have been transfer and pragmatic development, and instructed teaching/learning of L2 pragmatics. Some other IP studies, which are closer to the Cross-cultural Pragmatics field, have been comparative studies that focus on language learners' speech act realizations. This study is an example of a comparative IP study which has similarities to Cross-cultural Pragmatics studies. In the next section some information about the *Cross-cultural Speech Act Realization Project* will be presented.

2.2.2. Cross-cultural Pragmatics

One of the main research fields in pragmatics is *Cross-cultural Pragmatics* (hereon CCP). This approach involves the comparison of speech acts used by native speakers of one language with those used by native speakers of other languages. According to Wierzbicka (1991) CCP developed as a reaction against the universalism in language, which puts the Anglo-Saxon culture and language to center. Wierzbicka (1991, 69) suggests that the CCP field emerged based on the following ideas:

> 1) In different societies, and different communities people speak differently. These differences in ways of speaking are profound and systematic.
>
> 2) These differences reflect different cultural values, or at least different hierarchies of values.

> 3) Different ways of speaking, different communicative styles can be explained and made sense of, in terms of independently established different cultural values and cultural priorities.

Boxer (2002, 150) states that "CCP takes the point of view that individuals from different societies or communities interact according to their own pragmatic norms, often resulting in a clash of expectations and, ultimately, misperceptions about the other group". Boxer (2002, 150) also focuses on the importance of CCP by stating, "in a world that grows ever smaller when peoples from different societies interact with greater and greater frequency, felicitious cross-cultural interaction is crucial".

Boxer (2002, 150) has contributed the second major research approach in the field of pragmatics by making a distinction between CCP and IP: "IP forms a part of the subfield of applied linguistics that focuses on second language acquisition; in contrast, cross-cultural pragmatics (CCP) is applied sociolinguistics. CCP does not assume that the nonnative speaker is progressing along an interlanguage continuum toward some target language norm". Boxer (2002, 151) also identifies the essential difference between these two fields by stating that while IP views cross-cultural communication from a one-way perspective, CCP views it from a two-way perspective".

Some researchers have focused on the importance of CCP in shedding light on questions regarding linguistic communication among people particularly coming from different cultures. Oleksy (1989) suggests:

> It is impossible to approach questions of linguistic communication adequately without paying attention to the socio-cultural, institutional and attitudinal restrictions that verbal interaction imposes upon the language users. Then there is a natural need to compare the results of the investigations arrived at on the basis of linguistic material derived from one group of speakers or individual language/cultures across the various languages and cultures spoken around the world (p. x).

According to Oleksy (1989) it is important to combine the generalizations that result from abstract theoretical frameworks with the richness of cross-linguistic and cross-cultural data that can be helpful in the discovery of universal patterns and categories. Boxer (2002, 152) also states the importance of cross-cultural research: "Because cross-cultural interactions have the potential to cause stereotypes, prejudice, and discrimination against entire groups of people, research in CCP has the potential to ameliorate these consequences".

In the growing field of CCP, recent research has been done in different contexts such as social life, education, work place, etc. One of the main research projects carried out in the history of the CCP field is the Cross-cultural Speech Act Realization Project (1989). In the following sections, detailed information about this project and the CCSARP Coding Manual will be presented.

2.2.3. Cross-cultural Speech Act Realization (CCSARP) Project

Some of the most important studies carried out in the CCP field are collected in Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989) Cross-cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP). In this project, Blum-Kulka et al. investigate speech act realization in different languages using both native and nonnative speaker data. The languages involved in this study are Hebrew, German, Canadian French, Danish, and British, American and Australian English. As the researchers state in their book, *Cross-cultural Pragmatics: Requests and Apologies (1989),* there were three main goals of their project:

> 1- To investigate the similarities and differences in the realization patterns of given speech acts across different languages, relative to the same social constraints (cross-cultural variation).
>
> 2- To investigate the effect of social variables on the realization patterns of given speech acts within specific speech communities (sociopragmatic variation).
>
> 3- To investigate the similarities and differences in the realization patterns of given speech acts between native and nonnative speakers of a given language, relative to the same social constraints (interlanguage variation). (13).

The basic tool used for analyzing the authentic data is the CCSARP Coding Manual as presented in the next section.

2.2.4. The CCSARP Coding Manual

Based on their analyses of the data they collected from the different languages investigated in their CCSARP project, Blum-Kulka et al. created a Coding Manual in which they identify different *request* and *apology* productions. This study utilizes Blum-Kulka et al.'s Coding Manual to analyze data collected via DCTs from native and nonnative English speakers.

In CCSARP Coding Manual, as a result of their investigation of different languages, Blum-Kulka et al. identify *request* and *apology* strategies. First, they suggest that a *request* speech act generally consists of three main parts: *alerter, head act*, and *supportive move.* Blum-Kulka et al. (1989, 277) define an alerter as " an element whose function is to alert the hearer's attention to the ensuing speech act". Depending on the context, this can be the title, first name, nickname of the hearer, any type of attention getter such as *Excuse me, Hey,* etc., or the combinations of some of these.

The most important part constituting a *request* speech act is the *head act.* Blum-Kulka et al. (1989, 275) define this element as "the minimal unit which can realize a *request*; it is the core of the *request* sequence". For instance, in a sentence like " John, get me a beer, please. I'm terribly thirsty," the part in which the speaker says, "...get me a beer, please..." stands as the head act since the other parts of the utterance are not essential for realizing the *request.* A speaker can produce a *request* by using only the head act, in which case the message would usually be understood by the hearer. However, sometimes as a result of the features of the particular situation which the speaker and the hearer are in, the speaker may need to use some supportive phrases to minimize the negative effect of the *face-threatening act* or to increase the effectiveness of the *request*. Blum-Kulka et al. use the term *supportive moves* for these kinds of phrases. They suggest that a speaker uses *supportive moves* in order to mitigate or aggravate his/her *request*. Blum-Kulka et al. go one step further and divide *supportive moves* into two categories: *mitigating* and *aggravating supportive moves.* As it can be understood from their names, mitigating *supportive moves* are the ones a speaker uses to soften his/her utterance in order to protect his/her own or his/her hearer's *face*. On the other hand, *aggravating moves* are used by speakers with the aim of increasing the effect of the *request* without paying attention to the *face-threatening* feature of their *requests,* or demands in this case. Since none of the items in the data collection tool of this study required the participants to use *aggravative supportive moves*, only the *mitigating supportive moves* categorization was taken into consideration during analysis of the *request* data. The *Mitigating Supportive Moves* identified by Blum-Kulka et al. can be listed as the following: *preparator, precommitment, grounder, disarmer, promise of reward, and imposition minimizer.* According to Blum-Kulka et al. *preparators* are used by the speaker with the intention of preparing the hearer for the ensuing *request* by checking the availability of the speaker to carry out the requested action. The usage of *precommitment* occurs when the speaker checks on a potential refusal before making

his/her *request*. *Grounder* is the mitigating supportive move by which the speaker gives reasons, explanations, or justifications for his/her *request*. By using a *disarmer*, the speaker tries to remove any potential objections the hearer might raise upon being confronted with the *request*. Finally, in a *promise of reward* the speaker offers an incentive to the hearer due on fulfillment of the *request*. The last Mitigating Supportive Move category identified by Blum-Kulka et al. is the *Imposition Minimizer*. By using this supportive move, the speaker aims to reduce the imposition placed on the hearer by his/her *request*.

In addition to the categorization of the supportive moves based on the data that they collected from the languages investigated in their project, Blum-Kulka et al. also identified the *head act strategies* used by the native and nonnative speakers of those languages. Following is the categorization of the nine *head act strategies* and the examples that Blum-Kulka et al. created:

Table 2.1. Nine *Request* Head Act Strategies

Head act strategy	Definition	Example (s)
1. Mood derivable	The grammatical mood of the locution conventionally determines its illocutionary force as a *Request*.	- Leave me alone - Clean up the kitchen
2. 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
3. Hedged performative	The illocutionary verb denoting the requestive intent is modified, e.g., by modal verbs or verbs expressing intention.	- I *must/have to ask* you to clean the kitchen right now.
4. Locution derivable	The illocutionary intent is directly derivable from the semantic meaning of the locution.	- Madam you'll have to/should/must/ought to move your car.
5. Want statement	The utterance expresses the speaker's desire that the event denoted in the proposition come about.	- I'*d like* to borrow your notes for a little while.
6. Suggestory formula	The illocutionary intent is phrased as a suggestion by means of a framing routine formula.	- *How about* cleaning up the kitchen.
7. Preparatory	The utterance contains preparatory condition for the feasibility of the *Request*, typically one of ability, willingness, or possibility, as conventionalized in the given language. Very often, the speaker questions rather than states the presence of the chosen preparatory condition.	- *Can* I borrow your notes? - *Could* you possibly get your assignment done this week? - I was wondering if you *would* give me a lift.
8. Strong hint	The illocutionary intent is not immediately derivable from the locution; however, the locution refers to relevant elements of the intended illocutionary and/or propositional act.	- Will you be going home now? (Intent: getting a lift home).
9. Mild hint	The locution contains no elements which are of immediate relevance to the intended illocution or proposition, thus putting increased demand for context analysis and knowledge activation on the interlocutor.	- You have been busy here, haven't you?

Blum-Kulka et al. (1989, p. 278-80)

Apart from the request making *head acts* and *supportive moves*, in their Coding Manual Blum-Kulka et al. also focus on syntactic downgraders, lexical and phrasal downgraders and upgraders. However, since the focus of this study will be only on the categorization of *head act strategies* and the *mitigating supportive moves*, the other categories will not be explained in detail.

As mentioned before, the second focus of Blum-Kulka et al.'s project was on the speech act of *apologizing*. Based on data they collected from various languages, they devised an almost universal *apologizing* pattern. First of all, they give the possible structure of an *apology*. According to their findings an *apology* production may consist of three parts. First of these parts is the *alerter*, which is identical to the category of the same name used with *requests*. The second part is the *Illocutionary force indicating devices (IFIDS)*. Then comes the *intensifiers* (these might be intensifying adverbials, emotional expressions/explanations, etc.) and the other possible apologizing strategies used with the IFIDs based on the nature of the situation. According to Blum Kulka et al. (1989), *apologies* can be performed by any of the following strategies, or any combination or sequence thereof:

- Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID)
- Taking on Responsibility
- Explanation or Account
- Offer of Repair
- Promise of Forebearance (289).

Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices (IFID) are the formulaic routinized expressions used by the speakers to make the *apology* explicit. For instance, "I am sorry" and "I apologize" are some of the basic IFIDs used by the speakers of English. The *Responsibility* strategy is used when the speaker tries to assume his or her own liability. As it can be easily understood from the name, *Explanation or account* takes place when the speaker tries to make an explanation or give an account while trying to apologize to someone for something. Sometimes if the harm given by the speaker is really serious and there is the responsibility of repairing it, the speaker might choose to apologize by using the strategy which is called *offer of repair*. It is also possible that the speaker uses the *Promise of Forebearance* Strategy to promise that he or she will not make the same mistake in the future. According to Blum-Kulka et al., depending on the situation a speaker might choose to use more than one of these apologizing strategies. In the following example the speaker uses all of the possible apologizing strategies:

Example: "I'm sorry. I missed the bus, and there was a terrible traffic jam. Let's make another appointment. I'll make sure that I'm here on time" (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, 290).

In the example above each phrase stands for one apologizing strategy:

I'm sorry = Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID)

I missed the bus = Taking on Responsibility

There was a terrible traffic jam = Explanation or Account

Let's make another appointment = Offer of Repair

I'll make sure that I'm here on time = Promise of Forebearance

In this study the *apology* data collected from the native and nonnative speakers will be analyzed in terms of the five *apology* strategies and intensifiers used by the participants. The aim is to identify the strategies and determine the cultural differences between native and nonnative productions, and to see the possible impact of these differences on the strategy choice of the participants.

As stated above, during the data analysis process we relied mainly on Blum-Kulka et al.'s Coding Manual. Additionally, in order to make some inferences about the cultural elements affecting the speech act production of Turkish and American speakers of English, based on Brown & Levinson's (1987) terms the data was analyzed from the aspects of *positive* and *negative politeness strategies*.

2.3. Speech Act Theory

The study of speech acts goes back to Austin's (1962) *How to do Things with Words*, a monograph consisting of the collection of his lectures at Harvard in 1955. In this work Austin (1962) proposed that some sentences such as *"I now pronounce you husband and wife"* are used by the speakers to do something. Such sentences are named as *performatives* by Austin. On the other hand, descriptive sentences such as *"New York is a large city"* are identified as *constatives*. The main point behind his work is that "saying something is also doing something."

As well as the categorization of utterances as *performatives* and *constatives*, Austin (1962) proposed three kinds of acts: *locutionary, illocutionary* and *perlocutionary act.*

Locutionary Act: According to Austin locutionary acts are "act of speaking". These are simply " what is said. "

Illocutionary Act: This act is the function of an utterance such as "questioning, commanding, informing," etc. It refers to "what is done" by the speaker on uttering an utterance.

Perlocutionary Act: This is the consequence or by-product of an utterance on the hearer.

Austin (1962) illustrates the distinction between these kinds of acts with the following example:

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, etc.) me to shoot her.

Act (C) or Perlocution

He persuaded me to shoot her. (101)

Based on Austin's theories, Searle (1969, 1975) developed a classification of speech acts. Searle focused on the *indirect speech acts* and proposed a categorization of "illocutionary acts" consisting of five main groups. These five main groups are *representative, directive, commissive, expressive,* and *declarative.*

According to Searle's (1975) typology of speech acts *requests* are under the category of *directives* and *apologies* are under the category of *expressives*. Based on Searle's typology Huang (2007, 107) defines *directives* as " kinds of speech act that represent attempts by the speaker to get the addressee to do something. They express the speaker's desire/wish for the adressee to do something". *Expressives,* on the other hand, are defined as "kinds of speech act that express a psychological attitude or state in the speaker such as joy, sorrow, and likes/dislikes" (Huang, 2007, 107).

2.4. Politeness Theory (Brown & Levinson, 1987)

In 1987 Brown and Levinson (hereon B&L) created the *Politeness Theory*. In their book, *Politeness Some Universals in Language Usage,* B&L create a *Universal Politeness Model* in which they construct a *model person*. According to B&L, this model person consists of two components, *rationality* and *face*. B&L (1987, 58, 61, 62) define *rationality* as "The availability to our model person of a precisely definable mode of reasoning from ends to the means that will achieve those ends". In this model the

notion of *face* is something that every model person posesses and is explained as "public self-image that every member wants to claim for him or herself". B&L suggest that "the MP (model person) has two particular wants: the want to be approved of and the want to be unimpeded". B&L believe that the Universal MP will employ linguistic strategies when communicating with another MP.

B&L suggest a model person would have two types of *face*: *negative* and *positive faces*. The *negative face* is defined as the want of every competent adult member that his/her actions be unimpeded by others. *Positive face* on the other hand can be defined as the want of every member that his/her wants be desirable to others. B&L claim that while communicating every individual has the tendency to protect his/her *face* as well as his/her interlocutor's. However, some of the speech acts in language usage have *face-threatening* features in B&L's term, and to be able to produce those speech acts without threatening either their own or their interlocutor's *face* speakers have to use some strategies.

According to B&L many of the speech acts have *face-threatening* features and require the speakers to use different types of strategies. They also comment about the *face-threatening* features of the speech acts of *apology* and *request*. They claim that *requests* threaten the hearer's *negative face,* because in this act the speaker puts pressure on the hearer to do or not to do something. *Apologies,* on the other hand, threaten the speaker's *positive face* since the speaker is threatening his/her own face by stating that s/he is sorry for a previous face-threatening act (FTA), and therefore damages his/her own face.

Three of B&L's other terms illuminating this study are the *redressive action, positive politeness* and *negative politeness. Redressive action* is the action carried out by the speaker to give *face* to the hearer. The function of the *redressive action* is to reduce any possible *face* damage of the FTA with modifications or additions that demonstrate that no *face* threat is desired or intended. *Redressive action* can take one of two forms, *positive* or *negative politeness*. *Positive politeness* takes place when a speaker shows respect to the *positive face* of his/her hearer. On the other hand, in *negative politeness* the speaker gives importance to the *negative face* of the hearer. S/he avoids restriction of his/her hearer's freedom of action.

According to B&L speakers use some strategies to avoid using FTAs. They suggest that one of these strategies is *indirectness*. That is, to be able to minimize the negative effect of the speech act on the hearer, speakers use *redressive actions* to try to

protect the *face* wants of their hearer. Speakers might use indirect structures rather than direct ones to minimize the negative effect of the FTA on the hearer. Based on this idea B&L claim that there is a direct relationship between politeness and directness. However, this side of the theory has received some criticism. Wierzbicka (1985) challenges B&L's theory by providing examples from Polish language. She claims that in Polish indirect utterances are not necessarily polite. She states that indirect speech acts in Polish and English are settled in different ways. For instance, while a hint is more polite than a directive utterance in English, the opposite is true in Polish. By giving examples from real language usage in her study, Wierzbicka showed that direct utterances can sometimes be more polite than hints or indirect utterances in Polish. Based on this observation Wierzbicka claims that B&L's theory cannot be considered truly universal. This claim of Wierzbicka should be taken into consideration in the cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics studies. However, despite this flaw, B&L's Politeness Theory is still considered to be one of the best studies carried out to show language politeness. Fraser (1990) claims that it is the best model despite its problematic aspects, and should be commended for attempting to explain politeness.

As mentioned before, in this study we will be dealing with the different requesting and apologizing strategies used by Turkish and American speakers of English. B&L's Politeness Theory will be one of the guiding studies that we will refer to during the data analysis process. We will particularly focus on the politeness type (*positive* or *negative*) choice of the native and nonnative speakers of English.

In the following chapter the findings and the discussion of the study will be presented.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

3.1. Introduction

In this section information about the data collection techniques and the participants used in this study will be given. The data used in this study was collected via Written Discourse Completion Tests from students attending two public schools in the United States and Turkey. A slightly modified version of Blum-Kulka et al.'s Coding Manual (1989) which was designed as a result of the Cross-cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) was used as the main data analysis framework. Next, the data was analyzed quantitatively by using descriptive statistics. In addition, while comparing the native and nonnative data in terms of politeness, Brown and Levinson's *Politeness Theory (1987)* was taken as a base. Finally, the comparison of the appropriateness of native and nonnative speech act productions were based on a Speech Act Appropriateness Scale, and the results were analyzed quantitatively by using statistical analysis (SPSS).

3.2. Participants

There are two groups of participants in this study. The first group of participants that we used in this study were twenty 14-15 year old Turkish speakers of English who were attending Tarsus Fevzi Çakmak Secondary School in Turkey. These students were 8th graders and they were coming from the same lower socioeconomic background and the gender factor was not controlled. There were 15 female and 5 male students. The data was collected from this group of participants as a result of an educational process in the school context. The participants were chosen by using convenience sampling. These students were attending a class together and they were chosen as a group. Since they have been learning English at the same school from the same language teachers, they had similar language learning backgrounds.

The second group of participants consisted of 20 American speakers of English. The age range was again 14-15. In this study age factor was controlled, for it might have a direct effect on pragmatic development and speech act production. These 20

participants were all native speakers of English and were all attending Northampton High School in Massachusetts. In order to minimize the effect of the socieconomic background of the participants on the data, both the Turkish and the American participants were chosen from public schools. The native participants of this study were chosen by using convenience sampling, and there were 9 female and 11 male native speakers of English. The volunteering students attending two different classes in Northampton High School were given the Discourse Completion Tests.

3.3. Data

The data used in this research was collected by using Written Discourse Completion Tests (DCT). It includes the *request* and *apology* productions for a total of 40 participants. In order to collect the data from the Turkish participants, the researcher received permission from the administration of Tarsus Fevzi Çakmak Secondary School where researcher was actually teaching 8th graders. So the data collection setting was natural. There was no outsider in the classroom. The data was collected in 45 minutes, during a normal duration of a lesson. The DCTs given to Turkish participants were in English, but each item was explained in Turkish by the researcher before starting the data collection process.

In order to collect the native speaker data, the researcher received permission from the principal of Northampton High School, the students, and their parents. Assent and consent forms were given to the students and their parents, and the volunteering students were given the tests. Two classes were selected for the data collection process. ln order to protect the natural setting of the classes, the students' teachers stayed in the classroom during the data collection process. The researcher also attended the classes to be able to answer any questions about the test items. Since they are native speakers, the American participants were given 30 minutes to answer the test items.

3.4. Instruments

The data used in this study was collected by using two versions of a Written Discourse Completion Test including 16 situations in total. 8 of these situations required *request* and the other 8 of them required *apology* productions. Before it was given to the American participants, some slight changes were made to the DCT that had been given to the Turkish participants. Names of people or places, for instance, were adopted in

order to minimize the effects of cultural differences. A second data collection instrument used in this study was a Speech Act Appropriateness Scale which was given to two native speaker raters in order to analyze the data in terms of appropriateness quantitatively. In the following section the details about the data collection tools used in this study are given.

3.4.1. Discourse Completion Tests (Tasks)

Open-ended Written Discourse Completion Tests were used as the data collection tool in this study. DCTs are one of the most commonly used data collection tools in Interlanguage and Cross-cultural Pragmatics fields. The format was first developed by Levenston and Blum (1978) to study lexical simplification, and first adapted to investigate speech act realization by Blum-Kulka (1982). The earlier DCTs, which were also used by Blum-Kulka (1982), were close-ended dialogue completion tasks. Kasper & Dahl (1991, 9) define them as "…written questionnaires including a number of brief situational descriptions, followed by a short dialogue with an empty slot for the speech act under study. Subjects are asked to fill in a response which they think fits the given context".

The table below shows some of the studies in Cross-cultural and Interlanguage Pragmatics which used DCTs as the data collection tool:

Table 3.1. Studies Using Discourse Completion Tests as a Data Collection Tool

Study	Speech Act	Proficiency	*NNS	IL	L1	*NS	L2	Items
Blum-Kulka (1982)	Requests	Intermediate / Advanced	44	Hebrew	Not Reported	32 10	Hebrew English	17
Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1986)	Requests Apologies	Low Intermediate /High Intermediate	240	Hebrew	English (142)	172	Hebrew	5
House & Kasper (1987)	Requests	Intermediate / Advanced	200 200	English English	German Danish	200 163 100	German Danish English	5
Faerch & Kasper (1989) (Also Kasper 1989)	Requests	Intermediate / Advanced	200 200	English German	Danish Danish	100 163	English Danish	5
Svanes (1992)	Requests	Beginning / Intermediate / Advanced	60	Norwegian	Diverse	148	Norwegian	5
Olshtain & Weinbach (1987)	Complaints	Intermediate / Advanced	35	Hebrew	Not Reported	35	Hebrew	20

Table 3.1. Continue

Takahashi & Beebe (1987) (Also Beebe, Takahashi & Uliss-Weltz (1990)	Refusals	Undergrad / Grad	20 EFL 20 ESL	English	Japanese	20 20	English Japanese	12
Takahashi & Beebe (1993)	Corrections	Intermediate / Advanced	15	English	Japanese	25 15	English Japanese	2
Banerjee & Carrell (1988)	Suggestions	Advanced	28	English	Chinese Malay	12	English	60

Research Methods in Interlanguage Pragmatics Kasper & Dahl (1991)
* NNS: Number of nonnative speakers NS: Number of L2 native speakers

As it can be seen in the table above, many studies have been conducted to investigate *request* productions. In these studies, researchers used dialogue completion tasks, a kind of closed DCTs. In their book, *Research Methods in Interlanguage Pragmatics*, Kasper & Dahl (1991) summarize some of these studies. The first and most renowned of these studies is the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) of Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) In this project the researchers used a questionnaire consisting of eight *request* and eight *apology* contexts and translated this questionnaire into a variety of languages.

Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986) used Discourse Completion Tests in their study to compare length of utterance in the *request* performance of Native speakers (NS) and Nonnative speakers (NNS) of Hebrew at three levels of proficiency. They found that utterance length varied with proficiency, the high intermediate learners using longer *request* productions than the NS and the low intermediate and advanced learners.

House and Kasper (1987) compared the *request* realizations of NNS with different L1s (German and Danish) learning the same L2 (English) by using the same discourse completion task used by Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1986). In another study Faerch and Kasper (1989) examined the *request* strategies used by NNS with the same L1 (Danish) in two different L2s (English and German).

Svanes (1992) used the CCSARP Discourse Completion Questionnaire to study *request* realizations by NNS of Norwegian with different L1s. At the end of the study no significant difference was found between the NNS groups.

As mentioned earlier, DCTs are the most widely used data collection tools in Cross-cultural and Interlanguage Pragmatics fields. However, they have both beneficial and problematic sides. As many studies show, two of the outstanding benefits of DCTs

are the ease of collecting a large amount of data quickly and the effective manipulaton of situational variables under investigation (Olshtain & Blum-Kulka, 1985; Hartford & Bardovi-Harlig, 1992; Beebe & Cummings, 1996; Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Ellis, 1994; Cohen, 1996b; Houck & Gass, 1996). With the help of written DCTs researchers can easily gather large amount of data in a short period of time. In addition to this, in the written situations researchers can easily control the contextual variables which are under investigation.

According to Beebe & Cummings (1996) and Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989), another benefit of DCTs is that they allow researchers to look into stereotypical speech behavior of native and nonnative speakers of a given language in relation to a particular speech act. Beebe & Cummings (1996, 80) suggest that DCTs are highly useful in "studying the stereotypical, perceived requirements for a socially appropriate response". Also, Beebe & Takahashi (1989) supporting the usage of DCTs in the Interlanguage Pragmatics studies, claim that with DCTs participants have a tendency to produce stereotypical forms (e.g. semantic formulas) of the speech act under study.

One of the other benefits of DCTs is that, as Cohen (1996) suggests, they help researchers identify and classify strategies that the speakers of a language would use in natural speech. The last but not the least benefit of DCTs is that they do not require transcription process like some of the other data collection tools used in the interlanguage and cross-cultural pragmatics fields such as role-plays. Since they are not time-consuming, DCTs are ideal practical tools of data collection.

In spite of their advantages, DCTs have some problematic aspects, as suggested in previous research. The main problem with DCTs is that sometimes a participant's answer to one of the DCT items may not reflect his/her real language usage in natural speech. Another problem of DCTs put forward by Wolfson (1989a) and Cohen (1996) is that in DCTs participants are given time to think about the things they would say in a particular situation. That is, unlike natural speech, while taking DCTs participants have time to think about and organize their utterances, which results in their productions' staying far from natural situations. In addition, DCTs cannot be used to gather sufficient data if the research goal is to find out about the interactive features occuring in natural conversation such as tone, prosodic, nonverbal features, depth of emotion, etc.

Although written DCTs can not give us an exact idea of what is going on in natural conversation situations, they are still a good tool for gathering data about speakers' possible language usages in a particular situation. Hill et al. (1986, 353) point

out that "the virtue of authenticity in naturally occuring speech must be weighed against its reflection of speakers' sociolinguistics adaptations to very specific situations". Written data elicitation tools help us to find out "the prototype of the variants occuring in the individual's actual speech" (Hill et al., 1986, 353). Therefore, written representatives of spoken language can be useful in identifying the strategies that a speaker would use while producing a speech act.

There are two basic types of DCTs. One is the dialogue type Closed DCT, and the other is the Open-ended DCT. In all of the studies listed in Table 3.1, dialogue type Closed DCTs were used. Below is an example of this type of test item:

At the university

Ann missed a lecture yesterday and would like to borrow Judith's notes.

Ann:…….

Judith: Sure, but let me have them back before the lecture next week. (rejoinder)

(Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989, 14).

Open-ended DCTs were used as the data collection tool in this study. According to Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford (1993), while the dialogue completion task is composed of a scenario and a prompt (an opening conversational turn), in an open questionnaire respondents are given a scenario alone without a prompting conversational turn. Because Open-ended DCTs are used as the data collection tool in this study, the participants are provided only with a scenario and no follow-up prompt. We did not give a follow-up prompt because we thought that it might restrict the variety of the speech act production strategies of the participants. Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford (1993) claim that with a close-ended DCT the test-taker might frame his/her production according to the following prompt in the dialogue. Hence in this study our aim was to identify the variety of strategies used by NS and NNS of English, we used Open-ended DCTs.

The data collection tool used in this study consisted of 16 items. In each item the situation was explained to the participants in a short paragraph. To be able to control the sociolinguistic variables like power, distance and imposition, each of the items in the test were designed to represent a different combination level of sociolinguistic variables. While in one of the situations the power relationship between the speaker and the hearer was H=S, in another one it was H>S. For instance, in one of the situations requiring apologizing speech act, the participants were expected to apologize to their school principal while in another one, they were expected to apologize to their brothers.

After each item the participants were provided with two lines of space that they can use to write the possible utterance that they would use in that given particular situation.

3.4.2. The Adaptation of the Discourse Completion Test

In all of the studies constituting Blum-Kulka et al.'s CCSARP project, a closed-ended dialogue type DCT consisting of 8 *apology* and 8 *request* situations was designed and used. This DCT was translated into the different languages that were being investigated in the study. In this DCT some sociolinguistic variables like power, distance and ranking of imposition were controlled by the researchers. As aforemetioned, in this study we also used DCTs. However, the data collection tool used in this study was not a closed dialogue-type DCT. Instead of this instrumentation tool open-ended DCTs were used. One of the reasons behind using Open-ended DCTs is that they give the participants the chance of free production more than the close-ended ones do. That is, since in close-ended dialogue type DCTs participants are presented a follow-up prompt which is an utterance provided by their imaginary interlocutor after their speech act production, test-takers will probably try to take their imaginary interlocutor's utterance into consideration while producing their own speech act. This nature of close-ended DCTs may restrict the variety of strategies that a speaker would use while producing a speech act. Since the goal of this study is to identify and compare as many requesting and apologizing strategies used by native and nonnative speakers of English as possible, we decided to use an Open-ended DCT. In this DCT there were 16 situations, the first 8 of which required *request* and the other 8 of which required *apology* production. Since they are thought to have a direct effect on strategy usages some sociolinguistic variables such as power, distance and ranking of imposition (P, D, and R) were controlled by the researcher. These variables are the ones that were suggested by Brown and Levinson's Politeness Theory (1987). B&L (1987) give the definitions of these variables as the following:

> **D** the *Social Distance* between the Speaker and the Hearer (i.e. the degree of familiarity and solidarity they share, or might be thought to share)
>
> **P** the *Relative Power* of the speaker with respect to the Hearer (i.e. the degree to which the Speaker can impose on the Hearer)
>
> **R** the *Absolute Ranking* of the imposition in a particular culture (both in terms of (1) the expenditure of goods and/or services by the Hearer, (2) the

right of the Speaker to perform the act; and (3) the degree to which the Hearer welcomes the imposition). (74).

B & L claim that the assessment of the seriousness of a *face-threatening act* involves the factors mentioned above in many and perhaps all cultures. The DCT items that we used in this study included situations where these factors were carefully controlled. The following table shows the distribution of power, distance and ranking of the imposition in each item that is used in this study:

Table 3.2. The Distribution of The *Sociolinguistic Variables* in the Data Collection Tool.

	Power	**Distance**	**Ranking Of Imposition**	**Referring Item**
REQUESTS	S=H	D+	Large	8
	S=H	D-	Large	4
	S=H	D+	Small	6
	S=H	D-	Small	1
	S<H	D+	Large	2
	S<H	D-	Large	7
	S<H	D+	Small	5
	S<H	D-	Small	3
APOLOGIES	S=H	D+	Large	6
	S=H	D-	Large	4
	S=H	D+	Small	3
	S=H	D-	Small	7
	S<H	D+	Large	5
	S<H	D-	Large	2
	S<H	D+	Small	1
	S<H	D-	Small	8

S: Speaker, H: Hearer, D: Distance (See Appendix 1)

As shown in Table 3.2, there is an equal distribution of the sociolinguistic variables among the items that are used in the DCT. One exception was that in none of the situations used in this study was the S expected to be superior to the H in terms of power. This is because in this test the aim was to use the most authentic situations possible. Since the participants are 14-15 years of age, it was thought that in their daily lives they probably rarely come face to face with situations in which they are required to ask for something or *apologize* to someone who is inferior to them in terms of power.

Another crucial term that needs to be clarified here is the *ranking of imposition*, which is defined as, "An unfair or unreasonable thing that somebody expects or asks you to do." (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2000, 681). In this study we use

this term to refer to the seriousness or weightiness of a particular *request* or *apology* in a particular context. For instance, in this study while "asking for a camera" is considered something with a large ranking of imposition, asking for someone's dicitonary to look up a word is considered to have a small rank of imposition. Similarly, while apologizing to someone for stepping on his/her foot on a crowded bus is something with a small ranking of imposition, apologizing to someone for breaking an object that is really important to them has a large rank of imposition.

3.4.3. Speech Act Appropriateness Scale

Besides the qualitative analysis of the data based on Blum-Kulka et al.'s CCSARP Project, and quantitative analysis of it by using descriptive statistics, a quantitative statistical analysis of the data was also conducted in order to compare the appropriateness levels of native and nonnative *request* and *apology* productions. Both the *request* and *apology* productions of the participants were graded by native speaker raters based on a ten-point appropriateness scale (See Appendix 2). The appropriateness for *requests* was defined as the level of adequacy of a participant's production for the level of imposition of the *request* and the relationship between the interlocutors. For example, the choice of address terms, the (in)directness of the request, whether it had necessary accounts/explanations, preparatory actions, softeners, etc. were some of the issues considered in the scale. The appropriateness for *apologies* was defined as the level of adequacy of a participant's production for the level of severity of the situation which necessitates the *apology* and for the relationship between the interlocutors, for example regarding the choice of address terms, whether it has necessary accounts/explanations, softeners, etc.

The appropriateness scale used in this study was designed by the researcher after making some modifications in Taguchi's (2006) Appropriateness Scale. The scale used in Taguchi's (2006) study was a six-point scale focusing on different levels of both appropriateness and grammatical and discourse competence (See Appendix 2). Since some of the productions in this study required a more detailed appropriateness rating scale, a ten-point scale was designed to be able to cover all production variations. For instance, some speech act productions of some Turkish speakers were grammatical, but were not appropriate for the given situation. There were also some productions that were not grammatical but still appropriate for the particular situation given in the DCT.

The ten-point scale was designed in a way that would help the raters categorize and grade the participants' productions easily.

Both of the raters participating our study were native speakers of English, and both of them were college graduates. One of the raters was a language major and the other one was a retired third grade teacher. The raters were given the DCTs completed by American and Turkish participants. To be able to grade the productions, they were given an instruction page as well as a grading form (See Appendix 2).

3.5. Data Analysis

The data collected from the American and Turkish speakers was qualitatively analyzed based on the Coding Manual created by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) employed in Cross-cultural Speech Act Realization Project. The *request* and *apology* making patterns suggested by Blum-Kulka et al. were taken as a base during the data analysis process. According to the patterns suggested in this Coding Manual the native and nonnative data was analyzed. Descriptive Statistics was also used to analyze the strategies employed by the participants quantitatively. In addition to this, Brown and Levinson's *Politeness Theory* (1987) was used as a guide while identifying the politeness strategies used by the participants.

The quantitative analysis focusing on the appropriateness of the data was done by using SPSS statistical analysis. To provide interrater reliability two native raters were used and their mean grades were taken. A *descriptive statistics* and a one-way ANOVA tests were conducted. The results of the quantitative analysis of the grades given by the native raters to the *request* and *apology* productions of the American and Turkish participants were compared to see the differences between the native and nonnative productions in terms of speech act appropriateness.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

In this chapter *requesting* and *apologizing* patterns found in the native and nonnative data will be presented. The frequencies, percentages and examples of the *request* and *apology* strategies observed in the data will also be illustrated in tables. The strategies that the participants have employed while performing *requests* and *apologies* will be identified and explained based on CCSARP Coding Manual. The findings will be also discussed regarding Politeness phenomenon based on Politeness Theory (Brown and Levinson, 1987). In addition to this, native and nonnative speaker data will be compared in terms of the strategies used while *requesting* and *apologizing*, and the findings will be presented in tables. Finally, the results of the statistical analysis of the comparison of the native and the nonnative data in terms of appropriateness will be presented.

4.2. Analysis of *requesting* strategies

4.2.1. Requesting Head Act Strategies Used by Native Participants (Americans)

The close analysis of the Native Speaker data has shown that the American participants have preffered to use only four of the requesting head act strategies (See Table 4.1) out of the nine identified in CCSARP Project of Blum-Kulka et al. (1989). As seen in Table 4.1 the most commonly used head act strategy by the American participants is the *preparatory* head act strategy corresponding to a percentage of 93.1 %:

Table 4.1. Distribution of NS Requesting Head Act Strategies

Types	Tokens	Percentages
Preparatory	149	93.1
Want Statement	6	3.75
Hedged Performative	4	2.5
Mood derivable	1	0.6
TOTAL	160	100

In *preparatory* head act strategy speakers question "the presence of the chosen preparatory condition" (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, 280). Structures such as *Can I /you…?, Could I/you…?, I was wondering if…?, Would you mind…?*, etc. are categorized under the *preparatory* head act category.

The second most frequently used head act strategy observed in the native speaker data is the *want statement* category. This category is defined by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989, 279) as an "utterance expressing the speaker's desire that the event denoted in the proposition come about". By producing this type of a head act strategy the speaker openly mentions his/her desire to perform the given act. Structures such as *I'd like to…* can be given as an example to this type of head act category. As shown in Table 4.1, the *want statement* head act category is used by American participants six times in their request productions corresponding to a percentage of 3.75 %.

Finally, the last two requesting head act strategies found in the native data are *hedged performative* and *mood derivable* head act strategies. Four of the American participants are found to use *hedged performative* head act (See Appendix 4), while only one American participant is found to use *mood derivable*. In *hedged performative* "the illocutionary verb denoting the requestive intent is modified, by modal verbs or verbs expressing intention" (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, 279). In the case of *mood derivable*, "The grammatical mood of the locution conventionally determines its illocutionary force as a *Request*" (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, 279).

As seen in Table 4.1 the percentage of the last three head act strategies found in the native data is 6.85 % in total. This finding shows that American participants in our study chose to use *preparatory* requesting head act strategy with most of the items. This finding is parallel to the findings of the other studies carried out in the Cross-cultural Speech Act Realization Project (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989).

Some examples of the head act strategies observed in the data are presented in Table 4.2 below:

Table 4.2. Native Speaker Head Act Strategies and Examples

Strategy Type	Examples
Preparatory	Example 1: **Could you help** me with my Math homework? (NS10, 3). Example 2: Hey **could I maybe** borrow your bike this weekend? (NS18, 4).
Hedged Performative	Example 3: I will take good care of your camera **if you let me borrow** it tonight? (NS9, 7) Example 4: **I would really appreciate it if I could use your bike this weekend.** I promise I will be careful with it. (NS15, 4)
Want Statement	Example 5: Are you riding your bike this weekend? Because if you aren't **I'd love to borrow it.** (NS15, 4) Example 6: **I really really need your bike ,** I promise I won't mess it up and I'll have it right back to you. (NS4, 4)
Mood Derivable	Example 7: Hey **help me with my homework** will ya? (NS18, 3)

In most of the *request* productions of the American participants, the *preparatory* head act strategy is identified. As foreseen by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989), the majority of the preparatory head act strategies detected in the data are realized by modal forms such as *Could you / I…?, Can you / I…?, Would you mind…?,* etc. The native head act productions given in Example 1and 2 in Table 4.2 above are two of the most commonly used preparatory head act strategies observed in the native data.

In the examples of the second most commonly used head act strategy, *hedged performative,* structures such as *if you let me…, I would really appreciate it if …,* etc. are used by the native participants. Some other structures such as *I would love to…, I really really need…,* etc. as in Examples 5 and 6 were categorized as *want statements*.

4.2.2. Requesting Mitigating Supportive Moves used by American Participants

The second category under which the *request* productions in the data are analyzed is the *Mitigating Supportive Moves* category. This part of a *request* speech act is defined by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) as external phrases that come before or after the head act and which are used by speakers to mitigate their *requests* by minimizing the negative effect of it on their hearer. As Brown and Levinson suggest in their *Politeness Theory* (1987), as a result of their nature *requests* have a *face-threatening* feature. Since a speaker puts pressure on his/her hearer while producing a *request*, *requesting speech acts* are considered as threatening the *negative face* of the hearer. As a result of this nature of the requests, speakers see it necessary to use *mitigating supportive moves* with their requests.

In Table 4.3 the distribution of the Mitigating Supportive Moves observed in the native speaker data are given:

Table 4.3. Distribution of NS Requesting Mitigating Supportive Moves

Types	**Tokens**	**Percentages (%)**
Grounder	45	47.3
Disarmer	26	27.3
Preparator	13	13.6
Imposition Minimizer	8	8.4
Promise of reward	2	2.1
Precommitment	1	1
TOTAL	95	100

When the native data consisting of 160 *request* productions is analyzed, the *Grounder* mitigating supportive move is found to have the highest frequency level. According to Blum-Kulka et al. (1989, 287) with this mitigating supportive move "the speaker gives reasons, explanations, or justifications for his or her *request*, which may either precede or follow it". In most of the *request* productions native participants chose to give explanations with their *request head acts* corresponding to a percentage of 47.3 %. The mitigating supportive move with the second highest frequency in the native data is *disarmer* (26). This mitigating supportive move is used by speakers "to try to remove any potential objections the hearer might raise upon being confronted with the request" (Blum-Kulka 1989, 287). 27.3 % of the mitigating supportive moves identified in the native data in this study consists of *disarmers*. With a percentage of 74.6 % in total *grounders* and *disarmers* together constitute more than half of the mitigating supportive moves used by the American participants in this study.

The third most commonly used mitigating supportive move produced by the American participants is the *preparator*. Almost 14 % of the native *mitigating supportive moves* are *preparators*. With this mitigating supportive move, the speaker prepares his/her hearer for the upcoming *request* by checking the hearer's availability for carrying out the requested action. The next mitigating supportive move found in the native data with a percentage of 8.4 % is *Imposition minimizer*, which can be defined as a mitigating supportive move used by speakers to minimize the burden of the requested action on the hearer. Eight of the native participants in our study combined their *head acts* with this type of mitigating *supportive move* (See Appendix 4).

The other two mitigating supportive moves observed in the native data were *promise of reward* and *precommitment*. When a speaker uses the mitigating supportive move *promise of reward* s/he offers to give or carry out something which would be useful to the hearer. The least commonly used mitigating supportive move in the native data was *precommitment* (1 %). Only one of the native participants is found to use this type of mitigating supportive move. In Blum-Kulka et al.'s words (1989, 287) with this supportive move "in checking on a potential refusal before making his or her request, a speaker tries to commit his or her hearer before telling him or her what he is letting himself or herself in for".

From the aspect of Brown and Levinson's *Politeness Theory* (1987) it can be said that American participants in this study preferred to use *negative politeness strategies* rather than *positive politeness strategies*, thus concluding that they mostly choose to show that they are respecting their hearer's *negative face* by trying to mitigate the high rank of imposition of their *request* and trying to minimize its negative effect on their hearer's *negative face.*

Some of the examples of the *request* productions of the native speakers with the identified *mitigating supportive moves* are given in Table 4.4. In some cases native participants used a combination of two or more *mitigatig supportive moves*:

Table 4.4. Mitigating Supportive Moves Observed in Native Speaker Data

Mitigating Supportive Moves	**Examples**
Grounder	Example 1: Hey—sorry. **I forgot my dictionary at home,** can I borrow yours? Thank you. (NS7, 1) Example 2: Hey, **I'm not tall enough** so you think you might be able to grab that bottle orm e? (NS2, 6)
Disarmer	Example 3: **I know the bike means a lot to you** but I really need to borrow your bike. (NS1, 4) Example 4**:** **I will take good care of your camera** if you let me borrow it tonight?(NS9, 7)
Preparator	Example 5: **Are you riding your bike this weekend?** Because if you aren't I'd love to borrow it. (NS3, 4)
Preparator + *grounder*	Example 6: **You know that essay due tomorrow? Well I have a problem,** *there's this article that I need to use, but its in Spanish.* **I heard you know Spanish** so I was wondering if you might help me out a little.(NS2, 8)
Imposition Minimizer	Example 7: Would you mind giving me a ride home? **We live on the same street.** (NS5, 5)
Imposition Minimizer + *grounder*	Example 8: Excuse me, but **I live on your street**, and I was wondering if you could give me a ride home, *I need to get home as soon as possible.* (NS6, 5)

Table 4.4. Continue

Preparator + *grounder* + disarmer	Example 9: **I have a bit of a problem. I need to go out this weekend,** *but I don't have a way of getting there.* You don't have to say yes, but I was just wondering –could I maybe borrow your bicycle? (NS7, 4)
Disarmer + *Imp. Min.* + grounder	Example 10: **Hey, if I was really careful and took great care of it,** *would you let me borrow your sweet bike for a few hour* this weekend so that I could visit FRIEND'S NAME? (NS12, 4)
Disarmer + *Promise of reward*	Example 11: Hey Pete, **do you think your family could give me a ride home today?** That'd be so nice . *I can also (give) you a ride home if you ever need one.* (NS12, 5)
Grounder + *Disarmer*	Example 12: Hey dad? **I promised NAME I would bring a camera to take pictures at her party.** *If I'm careful with it* could I borrow yours? (NS15, 7)
Precommitment + *disarmer* + Promise of reward	Example 13: **Hey I have a big favor to ask you.** *I heard that you can translate Spanish wicked good.* So I was wondering if you could help me translate an article? I'd make sure to pay you back with whatever you want. (NS12, 8)
Disarmer + *Imposition Minimizer*	Example 14: **If I promise to take really good care of your bike** could I borrow it *for a couple hours*? (NS13, 4)
Preparator + *Imposition Minimizer*	Example 15: Hey, *I know you live down the street from me*, **is it okay** if I ride down there with you? (NS16, 5)
Preparator + *disarmer*	Example 16: **Do you speak Spanish.** *I really need you to help me out c*ould you translate this for me? (NS18, 8)

Each mitigating supportive move is highlighted in different ways. Explanations or excuses such as *I forgot my dictionary at home, I'm not tall enough,* etc. as in Examples 1 and 2 are categorized as *grounders*. When the native participants try to remove the objections that they may get from their hearers they use *disarmers* such as *I know the bike means a lot to you…, I will take good care of your camera* as in Examples 3 and 4. In some other *requests*, as in Example 5, by asking the question *Are you riding your bike this weekend?* the native speaker prepares his/her hearer for his/her upcoming *request*. *Imposition minimizers* such as the one in Example 7 are also observed in the native data. For instance, by producing the sentence *We live on the same street* after the head act, the speaker aims to minimize the negative effect of his/her *request* on his/her hearer.

Combinations of two or more mitigating supportive moves are also identified in the native data. Sometimes while one native speaker is found to use only one *mitigating supportive move* with the same item, another speaker is found to use a combination of different *mitigating supportive move strategies*. Example 7 and Example 8 are examples of combined mitigating supportive move strategies. The usage of the combinations of

different *mitigating supportive moves* in the same *request* production can be explained by the nature of some of the items. For instance, as observed in Examples 6, 13, and 16, native speakers chose to use more than one *mitigating supportive move strategy* in Item 8. Since in this item the rank of imposition of the *request* was high and the hearer was almost a stranger – the participants were prompted to ask for the translation of a long text from a student that they do not know closely (See Appendix 1) - native participants preferred using more than one *mitigating supportive move* to protect both their own and their hearer's *faces*.

In the next section, the nonnative *request* productions will be analyzed and discussed.

4.2.3. Requesting Head Act Strategies Used by Turkish Participants

As a result of the analysis of the nonnative speaker data based on the CCSARP Coding Manual, Turkish speakers of English are found to use three different *head act strategies* while making their *requests*. These three head act strategies are *preparatory, mood derivable, and strong hint.* A fourth category is the *Not applicable* category which consists of the unidentified *head act* productions of the Turkish participants resulting from their lack of *linguistic(grammatical) competence* in the target language. Table 4.5 shows the frequency of the requesting strategies observed in the nonnative speaker data.

Table 4.5. Distribution of Nonnative Request Head Act Strategies

Types	**Token**	**Percentage (%)**
Preparatory	127	79.8
Mood derivable	4	2.5
Strong Hint	4	2.5
Not Applicable	24	15
TOTAL	159	100

Similar to the results of the analysis of the native data, *preparatory head act strategy* is the most commonly used *head act strategy* by the Turkish participants. Almost 80 % of the *requesting head acts* used by the Turkish participants are *preparatory head act strategies*. *Preparatory* head act strategy is followed by *mood derivable* and *strong hint* head act categories. Both of these categories had a percentage of 2.5 %. However, the usage of the *mood derivable* and *strong hint* head act strategies by the nonnative participants may be a result of their lack of *grammatical competence*

in the target language. Since some of the Turkish participants had problems in target language sentence structure productions, their *requesting head act* productions could only be identified as *mood derivables* or *strong hints.* The *mood derivable* head act category was already defined in the native data analysis section. *Strong hint* head act strategy is defined by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989, 280) as the head act category in which "the illocutionary intent is not immediately derivable from the locution; however, the locution refers to relevant elements of the intended illocutionary and/or propositional act". Four examples of *strong hint head acts* were identified in the nonnative data.

The last category is the *Not Applicable* category which consists of the problematic nonnative productions. These productions by the Turkish participants are identified as *Not Applicable* because they do not have the features of a *request* speech act. Even though this category has a percentage of 15 % and it immediately follows the *preparatory* head act category in the nonnative data, it consists of problematic productions and is therefore not taken as the second most commonly used *requesting head act strategy* by the Turkish participants.

Some examples of the requesting head act productions of the Turkish participants are given in Table 4.6:

Table 4.6. Nonnatives *Request* Head Act Strategies

Head Act Strategy	**Example**
Preparatory	Example 1: Hello, NAME. **Can I borrow** your bicycle? Because urgent go to shopping. (NNS5, 4) Example 2: **Can I borrow** your dictionary? (NNS11, 1)
Mood Derivable	Example 3: **I borrow your** dictionary. I bring your dictionary tomorrow. (NNS2, 1) Example 4: Excuse me NAME **I (you) give me a ride.** (NNS5, 5) Example 5: Excuse me NAME **give me a ride home.** The lessons are over and I must go home early, because I have a lot of homework. (NNS16, 5)
Strong Hint	Example 6: NAME **I am must go** home because I have homework. (NNS2, 5) Example 7: Excuse me, brother**. I some Maths problems. I can't solve by myself.** (NNS16, 3)
Not Applicable	Example 8: I'm father camera borrow? (NNS2, 7)

As it is seen in Examples 1 and 2 *preparatory head act strategies* found in the nonnative data consist of modal structures such as *Can/Could I…?, Can/could you…?*, etc. When the native and the nonnative data is compared in terms of the *preparatory*

head act structures, it is seen that the native data has more varieties than the nonnative data. While almost all the nonnative *preparatory head act strategies* identified in the data are formed by either *Can* or *Could*, the *preparatory head act strategies* identified in the native data are found to have more complex structures such as *Would you mind if…?* or *Could I/you may be/possibly…?*, etc.

The direct productions such as *I borrow…, I (you) give me a ride…,*etc. as in examples 3 and 4 are categorized as *mood derivables*. They are the most direct *requesting head acts* identified by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989, 278), and in these head acts " the grammatical mood of the locution conventionally determines its illocutionary force as a *request*".

The next *head act strategy* identified in the nonnative data is the *strong hint*. The productions of the Turkish participants in Examples 6 and 7 are categorized as *strong hints*. In these productions even though the *request head act* is not explicitly produced, the illocutionary force is strongly implied, usually by giving explanations about the situation. However, the identification of these types of *head act strategies* such as *mood derivables* and *strong hints* in the nonnative data might be a result of Turkish participants' lack of *grammatical competence* in the target language.

The close analysis of the nonnative data in terms of the *requesting head act strategies* shows that Turkish participants are not as creative as the American participants while producing *requests* in English. As mentioned before, the most commonly used *head act strategy* is the *preparatory* and the other *request* productions are either problematic or too direct as a result of Turkish participants' lack of grammatical competence in English.

4.2.4. Requesting Mitigating Supportive Moves used by Turkish Participants

Like the American participants, the Turkish participants in this study also used different types of *mitigating supportive moves* with their *head act* productions. Table 4.7 shows the distribution of mitigating supportive moves observed in the nonnative data:

Table 4.7. Distribution of Nonnative Mitigating Supportive Moves

Types	**Tokens**	**Percentages (%)**
Grounder	74	79.5
Imposition Minimizer	7	7.5
Preparator	5	5.3
Disarmer	2	2.1
*Sweetener	1	1.07
Promise of reward	1	1.07
*Appreciation	3	3.2
TOTAL	93	100

* Sweetener and Appreciation categories were not included in Blum-Kulka et. al.'s (1989) Coding Manual

The most commonly used *mitigating supportive move strategy* by the Turkish participants is the *grounder*. Most of the Turkish participants preferred making explanations or giving excuses to mitigate their *head acts*. 79.5 % of the *mitigating supportive moves* identified in the nonnative data consists of *grounders*. This result is similar to the result of the analysis of the *mitigating supportive moves* produced by the native participants. *Imposition minimizer* is the second most commonly used *mitigating supportive move* in the nonnative data. However, its frequency is far much lower than the frequency of the *grounders* found in the nonnative data (7.5 %). Like in the native data, *disarmers* (2.1 %), *preparators* (5.3 %), and *promise of rewards* (1.07 %) are also observed in the nonnative data.

Apart from the *mitigating supportive moves* found in nonnative and native data in common, there are two other new *mitigating supportive moves* observed in the nonnative data. These are the *sweetener* (1.07 %) and *appreciation* (3.2 %) mitigating supportive moves. These two mitigating supportive move categories were not included in Blum-Kulka et al.'s Coding Manual (1989). However, *Sweeteners* were identified in a study by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984, 205) as "exaggerated appreciation of the hearer's ability to comply with the request" used by the speakers to lower the imposition involved. *Appreciation* is a new category identified in our nonnative speaker data. This category was not included in Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989) Coding Manual. This category can be defined as a speaker thanking the hearer in advance in order both to minimize the negative effect of his/her *request* and to put pressure on the hearer that will make it harder for him/her to decline the *request*.

Viewed from the *Politeness Theory* perspective (Brown & Levinson, 1987), Turkish participants, like the native participants in our study, are found to use *negative politeness strategies*. As a result of the nature of *request* speech acts, this finding was

foreseen. Since producing a *request* causes the violation of the hearer's *negative face*, the strategies used by the nonnative participants are found to be designed accordingly.

Table 4.8 shows some examples of the *mitigating supportive moves* found in the nonnative speaker data:

Table 4.8. Nonnatives Mitigating Supportive Moves

Mitigating Supportive Moves	**Examples**
Grounder	Example 1: Excuse me. **I am sure that my parents are worried about me. I am call my parents.** Could I borrow your telephone? (NNS4, 2) Example 2: **I have a lot of homework and I must finish them by tomorrow.** (NNS10, 3)
Imposition minimizer	Example 3: I borrow your dictionary. **I bring your dictionary tomorrow.** (NNS2, 1) Example 4: Could I borrow your dictionary? **I am (will) bring your dictionary in tomorrow?** (NNS7, 1)
Imposition minimizer + *grounder* **+** disarmer	Example 5: NAME *I am must go home early. Because I have a lot of homework*. I am really sorry. I am really sorry. Could you lend your bicycle? **I am bring your bicycle in tomorrow.** (NNS20, 5)
Sweetener +*imposition minimizer*	Example 6: **I know this camera is very important.** Could you lend that camera? *I bring tomorrow.* (NNS4, 7)
Preparator	Example 7: Excuse me, **can you help me?** Could you give a shampoo? (NNS11, 6) Example 8: I have a problem. **Can you help me?** (NNS15, 3)
Preparator + *appreciation*	Example 9: Excuse me, **can you help me?** Could you give a shampoo? *Thanks.* (NNS17, 6)
Promise of reward	Example 10: Can you translate into Turkish? **Tomorrow I buy cola.** (NNS17, 8)
Grounder + *appreciation*	Example 11: Hello NAME! **I forgot my dictionary.** Could you give me your dictionary? *Thanks.* (NNS19, 1)
Grounder + *imposition minimizer*	Example 12: Can I borrow your camera? **Because I promised my friend.** *I promise your camera bring at home.* (NNS19, 7)
Appreciation	Example 13 : Hi, I'm NAME. Can you translate this article into Turkish? **Thanks**. (NNS18, 8)

As it can be seen in Table 4.8 in most of the situations Turkish participants preferred using *grounders* as *mitigating supportive moves*. One reason for this might be their low level of proficiency in the target language. Since the Turkish participants in our study were not really comfortable with the target language, most of them preferred making explanations by using the sentences they were given as prompts.

As well as *grounders, imposition minimizers* are observed to a certain amount in the nonnative data. *Imposition minimizers* are most often found to be produced by

Turkish participants in situations in which the imposition rank is high. In these situations participants ask for something precious from their hearer, as in the items in which participants are prompted to ask for their father's camera or their friend's bicycle. The *Preparator* mitigating supportive move is also identified in the nonnative *request* productions. As mentioned before, with the help of this mitigation the speaker checks the availability of the hearer for carrying out the requested action. For instance, in Example 7 in Table 4.8 NNS11 first checks the availability of the hearer by asking, "Can you help me?".

Another important observation on the nonnative data is that in some situations, Turkish participants, like the American participants, chose to use different combinations of *mitigating supportive moves*. In Examples 5, 6, 9, 11, and 12 in Table 4.8 some examples of the Turkish participants' complex *mitigating supportive* move productions are given.

Finally, the examples of *appreciation* – the new *mitigating supportive move* category identified in our study - are given in Examples 9, 11 and 13. All the *mitigating supportive moves* identified as *appreciation* in the nonnative data consist of the phrase "Thanks." In those examples it is seen that the participants use the appreciation mitigating supportive move immediately after the production of the head act. By using this type of strategy, the Turkish participants both mitigate their *request* and put pressure on their hearers that will prevent them from declining the *request*.

In the next section, the close analysis of the *apology* productions of American and Turkish participants will be presented.

4.3. Analysis of *Apologizing* Strategies

4.3.1. *Apologizing* Strategies Used by American Participants

The close analysis of the *apology* productions of the American participants was based on Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989) identification of the *apology* productions in different languages. Similar to our analysis of the *requests*, five *apology* strategies suggested by Blum Kulka et al. were used as the basis during the analysis of the native and nonnative *apology* productions.

As a result of the analysis of their *apology* productions American participants in our study are found to use all of the five strategies suggested by Blum-Kulka et al. in

CCSARP Coding Manual (1989). Table 4.9 below shows the distribution of the *apology* strategies observed in the native speaker data:

Table 4.9. Distribution of the Native Speaker Apology Strategies

***Apology* Strategies**	**Tokens**	**Percentages (%)**
Illocutionary force indicating device (IFID)	148	43.8
Offer of Repair	72	21.3
Explanation or Account	63	18.6
Taking on Responsibility	52	15.4
Promise of Forebearance	3	0.9
TOTAL	338	100

Illocutionary force indicating devices (IFIDS) are the most commonly used *apology* strategies by the American participants with a percentage of 43.8 %. Blum-Kulka et al. (1989, 290) define this strategy as "formulaic, routinized expressions in which the speaker's *apology* is made explicit". This strategy can be thought as the basic strategy generally combined with other *apologizing* strategies to form a whole *apology* production. Likewise, Blum Kulka et al. (1989) suggested that most of the *apology* productions they investigated in different languages are combinations of *IFIDS* and other *apology* strategies depending on the nature of the *apology* situation.

The second most commonly used *apology* strategy by the American participants is *offer of repair*. This strategy has a token of 72, corresponding to a percentage of 21.3 %. By using this strategy speakers try to minimize the damage that they caused. This strategy is observed in the data especially with the *broken vase* or *ice-cream* situations (See Appendix 1). The nature of these situations urged some of the native participants to combine their *IFIDS* with an *offer of repair apologizing* strategy.

The next most commonly used *apologizing* strategy with a percentage of 18.6 % by the American participants is *explanation or account*. In this *apologizing* strategy the speakers give "objective reasons for the violation at hand" (Blum-Kulka et al. 1989, 293). *Taking on responsibility* comes after the *explanation or account* in the native speaker *apologizing* data with 52 tokens, corresponding to a percentage of 15.4 %. This strategy is similar to the *explanation or account*. However, with this strategy instead of giving objective, outside factors, the speaker takes the responsibility of the action on him or herself.

The last and least commonly used *apologizing* strategy by the American participants is *promise of forebearance*. It is observed to be used by the native

participants only 3 times with a percentage of 0.9 %. Blum-Kulka et al. (1989, 293) suggest that "whenever the speaker's sense of guilt is strong enough, s/he may feel the need to promise that the offensive act will never occur again". Accordingly, the situations in which the American participants are found to use this strategy are the ones with a *high rank of imposition* and/or in which the speaker is lower than the hearer in terms of *power*.

In Table 4.10 some of the examples of the native speaker *apology* productions are given:

Table 4.10. *Apology* Strategies Observed in Native Speaker Data

***Apology* Strategies**	**Examples**
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device	Example 1: **Sorry,** my bud (NS4, 3) Example 2: Oh, I'm sorry. (NS16, 3)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Taking on Responsibility* + ***Explanation or Account***	Example 3: **I'm sorry** *I don't have my project.* ***I was sick all weak (week) and didn't have the strength to complete it*** (NS5, 1) Example 4**: I'm sorry** *I broke your window,* ***it was an accident.*** (NS14, 5)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + ***Explanation or Account*** + *Taking on Responsibility* + *Intensifier*	Example 5: **I am** *so* **sorry** that *I broke your window.* ***I didn't mean to, it was an accident.*** (NS3, 5) Example 6: **I am** *very* **sorry**, *I should have come to apologize earlier*, but I wasn't sure what to do (NS6, 5)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Taking on Responsibility*	Example 7: **I'm sorry man**, *my fault!* (NS4, 3) Example 8: **Sorry** *I spilled tea on your paper* (NS11, 4)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Intensifier* + *Taking on Responsibility* + **Offer of Repair**	Example 9: **I am** *so* **sorry** *I bumped into you,* **do you want me to buy you a new ice-cream** (NS1, 6) Example 10: **I'm** *so* **sorry.** *I lost your pen.* **You can have one of mine if you want** (NS7)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Taking on Responsibility* + **Offer of Repair**	Example 11: *I lost your pen.* **I'm sorry! I promise I'll replace it.** (NS15, 8) Example 12: **Sorry** dad *I lost your pen* **I'll replace it.** (NS18, 8)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Intensifier* + ***Explanation or Account*** + **Offer of Repair**	Example 13: **I'm** *really* **sorry.** ***I broke your window it was an accident*** and **I will pay for it.** (NS20, 5) Example 14: ***Mom, I have some really bad news. Earlier today when I was running to get the door, I was clumsy and accidentally broke your favorite vase.*** **I'm** *so* **sorry** and **will do anything to make it better. Do you want me to buy or make you one just like it?** (NS12, 2)
Explanation or Account + **Offer of Repair**	Example 15: ***I was sick all this week and couldn't finish my project.*** **I'll have it tomorrow.**(NS19, 4) Example 16: ***Dad, I can't find your pen.*** **Do you want me to buy you a new one?** (NS17, 8)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Intensifier* + **Offer of Repair**	Example 17: **I'm** *really* **sorry. I can write a note for your teacher if you want.** (NS13, 4) Example 18: **I'm** *really* **sorry. I'll help you redo it.** (NS19, 4)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Intensifier* + ***Explanation or Account***	Example 19: **I'm** *really* **sorry** mom, ***but I accidentally broke your vase.*** (NS20, 2) Example 20: ***It was not intentional to hit your window*** and ***I am*** *sincerly* ***sorry*** (NS9, 5)

Table 4.10. Continue

Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Intensifier* + *Taking on Responsibility* + ***Explanation or Account*** + **Offer of Repair**	Example 21: Mom, **I am** *so so* **sorry** and *I was really careless* ***and ran right into it.*** **I'll replace it if you want** (NS3, 2) Example 22: **I'm** *so* **sorry;** ***I was sick all week and*** *didn't do the paper*. **Can I make it up?** (NS7, 4)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + **Offer of Repair**	Example 23: **I'm sorry** I couldn't get the paper to you this week **could I have an extention?** (NS14, 4) Example 24: Nah **I'm sorry I'll get it tomorrow.** (NS18, 7)
Explanation or Account + Promise of forebearance	Example 25: ***I really didn't mean to*** , it won't happen again. (NS4, 5)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Intensifier*	Example 26: Oh my gosh, **I'm** *so* **sorry.** (NS8, 6) Example 27: **I am** *very* **sorry.** (NS17, 5)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Taking on Responsibility* + *Intensifier*	Example 28: I think *I lost your pen*.**I'm** *really* **sorry.** (NS4, 8) Example 29: Hay ma, **I'm** *really* **sorry** about your vase and *it's my false.* (NS18, 2)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + ***Explanation or Account*** + **Offer of Repair**	Example 30: **I'm sorry!** ***But I've been sick all this week and I couldn't prepare the project paper!*** **Do you think I could have an extension?** (NS15, 1) Example 31: **I'm sorry,** ***it was an accident,*** **I will pay for the new window.** (NS10, 5)
Responsibility + ***Explanation or Account***	Example 32: *My bad*, ***I did not mean to step on the foot.*** (NS9, 3)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + ***Explanation or Account*** + *Intensifier*	Example 33: **I'm** *so* **sorry!** ***We were playing and I kicked it to my friend but I kicked it wrong and hit the window. It was an accident!*** (NS2, 5) Example 34: **I'm** *real(ly)* **sorry** but ***it was a complete accident, I didn't mean to.*** (NS13, 5)
Explanation or Account	Example 35: Father, ***I accidentally lost your pen when I borrowed it.*** (NS9, 8)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + Promise of forebearance + **Offer of Repair**	Example 36: **I'm sorry** Mr. SURNAME, it won't happen again, but would you still like me to be a kicker? **I'll also pay for the window to be repaired if you want.** (NS12, 5)
Taking on Responsibility + **Offer of Repair**	Example 37: Hey *I lost your pen.* I hope it wasn't special, but if it does **I'll make it up to you.** (NS12, 8) Example 38: Oops, *I forgot it.* **I'll bring it tomorrow.** (NS17, 8)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + ***Explanation or Account*** + *Intensifier* + Promise of forebearance	Example 39: Dad, ***I accidentally lost your pen.*** **I'm** *really* **sorry,** it won't happen again (NS6, 8)
Not applicable	Example 40: I don't know what happened. I put it here, but now its gone. I have no idea where it went. (NS2) Example 41: My bud, are you okay? (NS10)

As Table 4.10 shows, most of the *apology* productions of the American speakers consist of combinations of two or more *apology* strategies. *IFIDS*, the most commonly used and basic *apologizing* strategy as suggested by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989), are observed in most of the *apology* productions of the American participants. In most of the examples in Table 4.10 *IFIDS* are observed with only a few exceptions. Some of the mostly identified *IFID* productions in the native data are the ones such as *I'm sorry, I'm very/really/so sorry*. As given in these examples in some situations American participants used intensifiers with their *IFIDS.*

In other cases, as in most of the examples in Table 4.10, American participants combined *IFID* with *Taking on Responsibility* and/or *Explanation or account* strategies. For instance, in Example 3, NS5 uses a combination of these three strategies. Most of the situations in which the American participants use this type of a combination are the ones that have a high rank of imposition. That is, when the negative effect of their action is strong and/or the hearer is in a higher position than the the speaker in terms of power, American participants found it necessary to use complex *apologizing* strategies rather than carrying out the speech act by producing merely an *IFID.*

Productions like the ones in Examples 9, 10, 11, 12, 13,. required American participants to use the *Offer of repair* apologizing strategy as well as *IFIDS* and *intensifiers.* The phrases such as "do you want me to buy you a new ice-cream (NS1, 6)", "I promise I'll replace it (NS15, 8)", "I will pay for it (NS20, 5)", are identified as *Offers of repair*. The situations in which this type of *apologizing* strategy is used are most often the ones including a physical damage or loss (the ice cream situation, the lost pen situation, the broken vase, the broken window situations; see Appendix 1).

The other usages such as "it won't happen again" (NS20, 5), (NS12, 5), (NS6, 8) is also identified in native speaker data. These types of usages are categorized as the *Promise of forebearance* apologizing strategy in Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989) words. With this type of strategy, the speaker's aim is to "promise that the offensive act will never occur again" (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, 293). This *apologizing* strategy is especially observed in situations in which "the speaker's sense of guilt is strong enough" (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, 293). In the native data this *apologizing* strategy is observed most often with Items 5 or 8 (See Appendix 1).

Two productions of the American participants given in Examples 40 and 41 in Table 4.10 are identified under the category of *Not Applicables*. These two productions are regarded as unidentified strategies because they do not have the features of an apologizing speech act.

4.3.2. Apologizing Strategies used by Turkish Participants

In this section the close analysis of the Turkish participants' *apologizing* strategies is given. Table 4.11 shows the distribution of the apologizing strategies used by the Turkish participants in this study.

Table 4.11. Distribution of Nonnative Speaker Apology Strategies

***Apology* Strategies**	**Token**	**Percentage (%)**
Illocutionary force indicating device (IFID)	154	52
Taking on Responsibility	67	22.7
Offer of Repair	43	14.5
Explanation or account	22	7.4
Promise of forebearance	9	3
TOTAL	295	100

Our analysis of the nonnative data shows that, like the American participants in our study, Turkish participants also use all five of the apologizing strategies identified by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) in the CCSARP Coding Manual. However, the distribution of these strategies is different in the nonnative data than the distribution in the native data. *IFIDS* consist of more than half of the *apologizing* strategies (154) used by the nonnative participants corresponding to a percentage of 52 %. This shows that while apologizing in the target language the Turkish learners of English in our study tend to rely on the basic *apologizing* strategy suggested by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989), which can be defined as the explicit expression of the *apologizing* speech act.

IFIDS are followed by the *Taking on Responsibility* apologizing strategy with a token of 67 and a percentage of 22.7 %. The *Offer of repair* apologizing strategy is also observed in the nonnative speaker data with a percentage of 14.5 % (43 tokens). The last two apologizing strategies observed in the nonnative data are *Explanation or account* (7.4 %) and *Promise of Forebearance* (3 %).

The detailed examples of the nonnative productions are given in Table 4.12 below:

Table 4.12. *Apology* Strategies Observed in Nonnative Speaker Data

***Apology* Strategies**	**Examples**
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device	Example 1: **I apologize.** (NNS8, 6) Example 2: **Excuse me, I'm sorry.** (NNS16, 6)
Explanation or Account + **Offer of Repair**	Example 3: Hi teacher, how are you? I can't do Project homework. ***Because very ill.*** **I can homework today.** (NNS1, 1)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Intensifier* + Promise of forebearance	Example 4: **I'm** *really* **sorry. Forgive me.** This won't happen again (NNS7, 2) Example 5: **I'm** *really* **sorry.** This won't happen again. **Forgive me.** (NNS15, 2)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Intensifier*	Example 6: **I'm** *really* **sorry.** (NNS5, 3) Example 7: **I'm sorry. I** *terribly* **apologize.** (NNS18, 3)

Table 4.12. Continue

Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Intensifier* + **Offer of Repair**	Example 8: **I'm sorry. I am** *terribly* **apologize. I am write project paper.** (NNS18, 4) Example 9: Iıı **excuse me,** Iıı **I'm** *really* **sorry. My ice-cream want?** (NNS20, 6)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Intensifier* + ***Explanation or Account*** + **Offer of Repair**	Example 10: Mother, **I'm** *really* **sorry.** It is ***(I was) running (to the) door. I (was) running (to the) door I didn't see.*** **Forgive me mother. *I am buy your vase.*** (NNS4, 2)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Taking on Responsibility* + *Intensifier*	Example 11: **I'm** *really* **sorry. Forgive me.** *Because I break your most precious vase which standing on it.* (NNS10, 2) Example 12: Mother **I'm** *really* **sorry.** *I didn't see.* **Forgive me.** (NNS11, 2)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Taking on Responsibility*	Example 13: **I'm sorry father.** *I lost your pen* (NNS1, 8) Example 14: **Pardon.** *I didn't see.*(I) **Apologize.** (NNS11, 3)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device +***Explanation or Account*** + Promise of forebearance	Example 15: ***I am ill*** **sorry,** I cannot (couldn't prepare) Project homework. This won't happen again. I can homework. (NNS2, 1)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Taking on Responsibility*	Example 16: *I don't see.* **Excuse me. I (am) sorry.** (NNS2, 4) Example 17: **Apologize.** *But I forgot to bring it today.* (NNS6, 7)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + **Offer of Repair**	Example 18: **I'm sorry. I'm (going to) do your project paper.** (NNS17, 4) Example 19: **I'm sorry teacher. Father sping buy.** (NNS13, 5)
Taking on Responsibility	Example 20: No. *I forgot to bring it today.* (NNS3, 7) Example 21: *I don't find. I lost.* (NNS8, 8)
Explanation or Account + *Taking on Responsibility*	Example 22: ***I'm ill.*** *I don't bring.* (NNS8, 1)
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + ***Explanation or Account*** + *Intensifier* + **Offer of Repair**	Example 23: Teacher Hello. ***I (was)were supposed to prepare a project paper and bring it today. But I were ill all the week.*** So I couldn't prepare the project paper on time. **I am** *really* **sorry. Forgive me** teacher. **I am (going to) bring my roject.** (NNS4, 1).
Illocutionary Force Indicatng Device + *Intensifier* + *Taking on Responsibility* + **Offer of Repair**	Example 24: Mother, **I'm** *really* **sorry. *It is (I was) running (to the)door. I (was) running (to the) door*** *I didn't see.* **Forgive me** mother. **I am (going to) buy your vase.** (NNS4, 2).
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Intensifier* + ***Explanation or Account***	Example 25**: I'm** *really* **sorry. *(I) Accidentally step (stepped).*** (NNS 14, 5). Example 26: **I'm** *really* **sorry. *I were (was) ill all the week.* Forgive me.** (NNS17, 1).
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Taking on Responsibility* + *Intensifier* + **Offer of Repair**	Example 27: *I forgot novel at home.* **I'm** *really* **sorry. I bring the novel tomorrow.** (NNS15, 7). Example 28: **I am** *really* **sorry.** *I am lost (lost your) pen.* **If you want pen, I buy two pens.** (NNS4, 8).
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Intensifier* + *Taking on Responsibility* + Promise of forebearance	Example 29: **I'm** *very* **sorry.** *I cannot (couldn't do)Project homework.* This won't happen again. (NNS20, 1).
Taking on Responsibility + **Offer of Repair**	Example 30: *I forgot.* **Tomorrow novel bring.** (NNS11, 7).
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + ***Explanation or Account*** + *Taking on Responsibility*	Example 31: **I'm sorry. *Accidentally*** *I step (stepped) on the (your) foot.* (NNS6, 3).

Table 4.12. Continue

Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + ***Explanation or Account***	Example 32: **Excuse me** teacher. My but ***you were (I was) ill all the week.*** **I'm sorry.** (NNS9, Item 1) Example 33: My mother! **I'm sorry!** ***Suddenly the doorbell rings (rang) and I run (ran) to open the door. While I (was) running you (I) bump(ed) into the coffee table which is in the middle of the living room.*** (NNS3, 2).
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + ***Explanation or Account*** + **Offer of Repair**	Example 34: S**orry.** ***Accidentally bumped into.*** **New buy.** (NNS6, 6).
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Intensifier* + Promise of Forebearance + **Offer of Repair**	Example 35: **I (am)** *very* **sorry.** I cannot prepare project homework. This won't happen again. **I can (do) homework today** (NNS16, 1).
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Taking on Responsibility* + **Offer of Repair**	Example 36: Mother, **I am sorry.** *I didn't see.* **I new buy vase** (I buy new vase). (NNS17, 2). Example 37: **Sorry,** *because I forgot to bring it today.* **I'll bring it** (NNS19, 7).
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Intensifier* + ***Explanation or Account*** + Promise of Forebearance + **Offer of Repair**	Example 38: **I am** *very* **sorry.** I can't do Project homework. ***Because I (was) very ill.*** This won't happen again. **I can (do) homework today.** (NNS15, 1).
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Intensifier* + ***Explanation or Account*** + Promise of Forebearance	Example 39: **I'm** *really* **sorry.** ***Accidentally.*** This won't happen again (NNS15, 5).
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device + *Intensifier* + ***Explanation or Account***	Example 40: **I am** *really* **sorry.** ***But I was ill all the week.*** So I couldn't prepare the Project paper on time (NNS 19, 1). Example 41: ***I was ill all the week.*** **I'm** *really* **sorry.** I couldn't prepare the project paper on time. (NNS10, 1).

Most of the *IFIDS* observed in the Turkish participant data are structures such as *I'm sorry/I'm really sorry/I'm very sorry.* However, in addition to these *IFID apologizing* structures, Turkish participants are found to use explicit IFIDS such as *I apologize.* These type of phrases are by far the most commonly used ones by the Turkish participants in our study. This may be a result of Turkish participants' lack of *grammatical competence* in the target language. Since some of the Turkish participants cannot produce complex grammatical structures in the target language, they prefer to use *IFIDS* with an appropriate *intensifier* (such as very, really, so, terribly).

In some *apologizing* situations Turkish participants are found to use the *Taking on Responsibility apologizing* strategy. By using this strategy they accept that they are responsible for the action causing the problem. The productions such as "Because I break your most precious vase which standing on it" (Example 11, NNS10, 2)", "I lost your pen" (Ex. 13, NNS1, 8), "But I forgot to bring it today" (Ex. 17, NNS6, 7) are grouped under the category of *Taking on Responsibility.*

Like the American participants, with some situations in which there is a physical damage or loss Turkish participants are found to use the *Offer of repair* strategy. For instance, in Examples 8, 10, 35, it is seen that Turkish participants combined their IFIDS and other strategies with an *Offer of repair* in order to mitigate the negative effect of their action.

Another *apologizing* strategy observed in the nonnative data is the *Explanation or account* apologizing strategy. In examples 38, 39, 40, Turkish participants are found to use this type of strategy. These participants (NNS15, NNS19) give external excuses for the problem that they caused. For instance, in these examples Turkish participants note their illness as an excuse for not preparing the paper on time. On the other hand, in some of the situations it is observed that Turkish participants prefer combining the *Explanation or account* strategy with a *Taking on responsibility strategy*. This type of combination can be seen in Example 31. In this example, by accepting that s/he stepped on the foot of the passenger standing next to her/him, NNS6 takes on the responsibility of his/her action. On the other hand, s/he also states that the incident was a result of an accident and was not done intentionally. (*Explanation or account*).

Finally, the *Promise of forebearance* apologizing strategy is also found in the nonnative participant data. Examples of this category can be seen in Table 4.12, in Examples 4, 5, 15, 29, 35, 38, and 39. In all of the nonnative *apologizing* productions which include this type of apologizing strategy Turkish participants are found to produce the sentence "This won't happen again." As forseen, the *Promise of Forebearance* apologizing strategy is used by the Turkish participants mainly with situations in which the rank of the imposition of the problematic action is high and/or the hearer is in a higher position than the speaker in terms of power.

When both the native and the nonnative apologizing data is examined, it is seen that, as Brown and Levinson (1987) put forward, *apologies* are different from *requests* in terms of violation of face. While *requests* violate the *negative face* of the hearer, apologies mostly violate the *positive face* of the speaker. For this reason, some of the strategies used by speakers while apologizing are formed so as to protect the *positive face* of the speaker. For instance, by using an *Explanation or Account* apologizing strategy, a speaker provides external excuses to explain the offensive act in an effort to protect his/her own *positive face.* On the other hand, some other apologizing strategies such as *Taking on Responsibility* or *Promise of Forbearence* are used as ways of protecting the hearer's *negative face*. If the native and nonnative data are compared, it is

seen that in order to protect their *positive faces* American participants choose to use more *positive politeness strategies* with their *apologies* than the Turkish participants. For instance, while the percentage of the *Explanation or account* apologizing strategy identified in the native data is 18.6 %, it is observed in the nonnative data with a percentage of 7.4 %. However, nonnatives are found to use the *Taking on Responsibility* apologizing strategy more than the native participants (NNSs = 22.7 %, NSs = 15.4 %).

The following section will focus on the comparison of the *requesting* and *apologizing* strategies used by American and Turkish participants.

4.4. Comparison of the Speech Act Productions of American and Turkish Participants

In this section a comparison of the native and nonnative *request* and *apology* productions in terms of strategies and appropriateness will be presented and discussed.

4.4.1. Comparison of the Native and Nonnative *Requesting* Strategies

A close analysis of both the native and the nonnative *requesting* data shows that in addition to some similarities there are also some differences between the native and nonnative *request* productions in our study. The *request* productions of the American and Turkish participants will be compared under two categories: *head act strategies* and *mitigating supportive moves.*

4.4.1.1. Comparison of *Requesting Head Act Strategies* produced by American and Turkish participants

The distribution of the requesting head act strategies among the native and nonnative data is given in Table 4.13 below:

Table 4.13. Distribution of Native and Nonnative *Requesting Head Act Strategies*

Head Act Types identified in the data	Native participants		Nonnative participants	
	Tokens	Percentages (%)	Tokens	Percentages (%)
Preparatory	149	93.1	127	79.8
Want statement	6	3.75	-	-
Hedged performative	4	2.5	-	-
Mood derivable	1	0.6	4	2.5
Strong hint	-	-	3	1.88
Not applicable	-	-	25	15.7
TOTAL	160	100	159	100

As Table 4.13 shows, the *Preparatory* head act strategy is the most commonly used head act strategy by both the American and the Turkish participants. As mentioned before, this type of head act strategy is formed by using modal verbs and the speaker questions the ability, willingness, or possibility of his/her requested action. The findings of the studies conducted as a part of the CCSARP Project by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) also show that the *Preparatory* head act strategy is the most commonly used head act strategy among the investigated languages.

The other head act strategy identified in both groups is the *Mood derivable* head act strategy. However, this strategy is found to be used more often by the nonnative participants than the natives. While the token of this strategy is 4 in the nonnative data—the second most common head act strategy after *Preparatory*—, in the native data it is observed only once. However, as mentioned in the nonnative data analysis section, due to the lack of the required *grammatical competence* in the target language, some of the Turkish participants' productions are identified under this category and are found to be direct and 'rude'.

Even though there are two common *head act* strategies identified in the native and nonnative data, the rest of the strategies differ in two groups. The native speakers are found to use *Want statement* as the second most common head act strategy with a percentage of 3.75 %, while none of the Turkish participants are found to use this type of requesting head act strategy. Likewise, *Hedged performative* strategy (2.5 %) is observed in the native data but is not observed in the nonnative data. On the other hand, *Strong hint* head act strategy is identified in the nonnative speaker data (1.88 %), but not in the native data. Finally, 25 of the productions of the Turkish participants are presented under the *Not Applicable* category. This finding is a result of some of the Turkish participants' lack of grammatical competence in the target language. Since these productions do not have the feature of a *request* speech act, they are named as *Not applicables*.

4.4.1.2. Comparison of *Requesting Mitigating Supportive Moves* produced by American and Turkish Participants

As mentioned in the data analysis section, the *request* productions of the American and Turkish participants in our study are analyzed in two parts. The previous section dealt with the comparison of the *requesting head act strategies* used by the

native and nonnative participants. This section presents the comparison of the native and nonnative *mitigating supportive move strategies*. The comparison of the analysis of the native and nonnative data shows that the native and nonnative data differ in terms of the *mitigating supportive moves* and the head acts used by the participants. Table 4.14 below shows the distribution of native and nonnative requesting *mitigating supportive move strategies*:

Table 4.14. Distribution of Native and Nonnative *Requesting Mitigating Supportive Moves*

Requesting Mitigating Supportive Moves identified in the data	**Native participants**		**Nonnative participants**	
	Tokens	**Percentages (%)**	**Tokens**	**Percentages (%)**
Grounder	45	47.3	74	79.5
Disarmer	26	27.3	2	2.1
Preparator	13	13.6	5	5.3
Imposition minimizer	8	8.4	7	7.5
Promise of reward	2	2.1	1	1.07
Precommitment	1	1	-	-
* Sweetener	-	-	1	1.07
* Appreciation	-	-	3	3.2
TOTAL	95	100	93	100

In Table 4.14 it is seen that the most commonly used Mitigating Supportive Move strategy both by the American and the Turkish participants is the *grounder*. However, nonnatives are found to use this strategy more often than the native participants. While the percentage of this mitigating supportive move is 79.5 % in the nonnative data, the percentage of it in the native data is 47.3 %. This finding shows that in mitigating their *requests*, American participants in the study relied on a larger variety of strategies than the Turkish participants.

Out of the other seven mitigating supportive moves identified in the data, four are found to be used by both groups of participants. *Disarmers* are identified in the native data with a percentage of 27.3 %, immediately following *Grounders* (47.3 %). Although *Disarmers* are also found to be used by the nonnative participants, they are identified in the nonnative data only 2 times corresponding to a percentage of 2.1 %. The *Preparator* mitigating supportive move strategy by which "the speakers question the potential availability of the hearer for carrying out the request" (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, 287) is another mitigating supportive move observed in both groups (NSs = 13.6 %, NNSs = 5.3 %).

The other two mitigating supportive moves used by both groups of participants are the *Imposition minimizer* and the *Promise of reward*. *Imposition minimizer* is the second most commonly used mitigating supportive move in the nonnative data (7.5 %) after *Grounders* (79.5 %). Unlike its ranking in the nonnative data, *Imposition minimizer* comes in the fourth place in the native data. Finally, *Promise of reward* is used by both groups with small percentages. (NSs = 2.1 %, NNSs = 1.07).

The last three mitigating supportive moves identified in our data are *Precommitment, Sweetener, and Appreciation*. *Precommitment* is observed only in the native data with a percentage of 1 %. The other two mitigating supportive moves, *Sweetener* and *Appreciation,* are observed only in the nonnative data. As mentioned in the nonnative request productions analysis section, these two mitigators were not included in the CCSARP Coding Manual by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989).

When broadly considered, the total amounts of the mitigating supportive moves used by the American and Turkish participants are found to be close (NSs = 95, NNSs = 93). This finding shows that even though there are some considerable differences in their distribution, the *mitigating supportive move strategies* are used by both groups with nearly the same frequency.

4.4.2. Comparison of the Native and Nonnative *Apologizing* Strategies

The comparison of the American and Turkish participants' *apology* productions show that even though all of the five apologizing strategies identified by Blum-Kulka et al. in the CCSARP Coding Manual are used by both groups, their distribution between the two groups is different.

Table 4.15. Distribution of Native and Nonnative *Apologizing Strategies*

Apologizing strategies identified in the data	**Native participants**		**Nonnative participants**	
	Tokens	**Percentages (%)**	**Tokens**	**Percentages (%)**
Illocutionary Force Indicating Device	148	43.8	154	52
Offer of Repair	72	21.3	43	14.5
Explanation or Account	63	18.6	22	7.4
Taking on Responsibility	52	15.4	67	22.7
Promise of Forebearance	3	0.9	9	3
TOTAL	338	100	295	100

As it is seen in Table 4.15, the Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID) is the most commonly used apologizing strategy by both the American (43.8 %), and the Turkish (52 %) participants in this study. This result was rather predictable, because the IFIDs are the main apologizing strategies and they constitute the core of an *apology* speech act. The findings of the CCSARP project also showed that this type of apologizing strategy is the most preferred apologizing strategy by speakers of the investigated languages in the project.

Even though IFID is observed to be the most commonly used apologizing strategy by both the American and the Turkish participants, the usage of the other four apologizing strategies differs between the two groups. While *Offer of repair* is found to be the second most popular apologizing strategy in the native data with a percentage of 21.3 %, it is the third most frequently used apologizing strategy by the Turkish participants (14.5 %).

Two of the other apologizing strategies which are found to be used by both groups of participants in considerable amounts are *Explanation or Account* and *Taking on Responsibility*. *Explanation or Account* is used 63 times by the native participants corresponding to a percentage of 18.6 %, and 22 times by nonnatives with a percentage of 7.4 %. The *Taking on Responsibility* apologizing strategy, which is the second most commonly used strategy by the Turkish participants (22.7 %), is in the fourth rank in the native data with a percentage of 15.4 %. As they are defined by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989), both the *Explanation or Account* and *Taking on Responsibility* strategies are based on giving excuses. However, while *Explanation or account* is used by speakers to show some external excuses as a cause of the offense which created the need to apologize, *Taking on Responsibility* is used to "express responsibility for the offence which created the need to apologize" (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, 291). Our comparison of the native and nonnative *apology* data shows that instead of showing external excuses, Turkish speakers of English have a tendency to take on the responsibility for the offence. On the other hand, American speakers of English are more likely to make explanations and show external excuses as the cause of the offense creating the need to apologize.

Last, the *Promise of Forebearance* apologizing strategy is the least commonly used strategy by both groups. It is identified 3 times in the native data and 9 times in the nonnative data. As suggested by the term itself, "if the speaker's sense of guilt is strong enough, by using this strategy s/he promises that the offensive act will never occur

again." (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, 293). The comparison of the native and nonnative data in terms of this strategy shows that in some of the provided situations Turkish participants in our study felt a stronger sense of guilt than the American participants. Additionally, as mentioned, the *Taking on Responsibility* apologizing strategy is used more often by the Turkish participants than it is by the American participants.

Finally, when the total occurrences of the *apologizing* strategies used by the two groups of participants are compared, American participants are found to use more apologizing strategies than the Turkish participants. The number of the apologizing strategies identified in the native data is 338; in the nonnative data, 295. This finding shows that even though both groups of participants used all of the five *apologizing* strategies suggested by Blum-Kulka et al. in the CCSARP Project (1989), American participants in this study used a wider variety of *apologizing* strategies than the Turkish participants.

4.3.3. Comparison of the Native and Nonnative Request Productions in Terms of Appropriateness

Before beginning the analysis of the productions of the two groups in terms of appropriateness, the meangrades of the ratings of the two raters were taken in order to provide interrater reliability. Following this process, two statistical analysis (SPSS) tests were conducted in order to see the differentiation between the appropriateness of the native and nonnative *request* and *apology* productions. Table 4.16 below shows the statistical analysis (SPSS) test results of the comparison of the *request* productions of the two groups in terms of appropriateness:

Table 4.16. Comparison of Appropriateness of the *Request* Productions

Groups (Nativeness)	*Mean*	*Median*	*Std*
NSs	7.2	7.6	1.04
NNSs	6.4	6.6	0.9

As seen in Table 4.16, the mean of the grades given by the raters to the native *request* productions is higher than the mean of the nonnative *request* productions. The native raters thought that the American teenagers used more appropriate productions than the Turkish teenagers while requesting in English. The *mean* for the native group

was found to be 7.2, and the *mean* for the nonnative group was found to be 6.4. Although the two means seem different, a one-way ANOVA test was conducted in order to take the variance into consideration. According to the results of the ANOVA test, F value was found to be 6.196. Since this value is different than 1, one can conclude that the mean grades of the NSs and NNSs are different. This result is statistically significant, because the significance value was found to be 0.017, which is less than the critical value 0.05. The results of this statistical analysis show us that while making *requests* in the target language, 14-15 year-old Turkish learners of English in our study do not use productions as appropriate as the American speakers.

Another interesting result is that not all of the native productions were accepted as appropriate by the raters. This may result from the age difference between the raters and our participants. As the raters were two adults, (median age 49,5), there was a generation gap between the raters and the participants. Since the participants in our study are teenagers, the way they deal with the situations might have seemed inappropriate to the adult/middle-aged native raters.

4.4.4. Comparison of the Native and Nonnative *Apology* Productions in Terms of Appropriateness

The means of the grades given by the native raters to the *apology* productions were also compared by using a statistical analysis (SPSS) test to see the differences between the two groups in terms of appropriateness. Table 4.17 below shows the statistical analysis (SPSS) results of the comparison of the *apology* productions of the American and Turkish participants:

Table 4.17. Comparison of Appropriateness of the *Apology* Productions

Groups (Nativeness)	Mean	Median	Std
NSs	7.23	7.56	1.27
NNSs	7.18	7.37	0.9

As Table 4.17 shows, the means of the grades given to the *apology* productions of the two groups were almost the same. This result shows us that in terms of appropriateness the *apology* productions of the American and the Turkish participants in our study do not show significant difference. A one-way ANOVA test was also

conducted for the *apology* data, and the F value was found to be 0.02. Since this value is different than 1, one may conclude that mean grades of NSs and NNSs are different, but this would not be a statistically significant conclusion. Significance level 0.887 is bigger than 0.05. Thus, the NSs and the NNSs *apology* production grade means are not different.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION & DISCUSSION

5.1. Introduction

This study focuses on the *request* and *apology* productions of 14-15 year-old American and Turkish teenagers in English in a comparative manner. In order to collect the data, 20 American and 20 Turkish students were given written Discourse Completion Tests. After collecting the data the strategies used by the two groups while producing *requests* and *apologies* were identified and compared based on Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989) CCSARP Coding Manual. The *request* productions were analyzed in two sections as *head acts* and *mitigating supportive move strategies*. *Apologies* were analyzed as a whole based on the five different apologizing strategies presented in the CCSARP Coding Manual (Blum-Kulka et al. 1989).

Preparatory, want statement, hedged performative, and *mood derivable* head act strategies were identified in the native speaker *request* productions out of the nine head act strategies (*mood derivable, explicit performative, hedged performative, locution derivable, want statement, suggestory formula, preparatory, strong hint,* and *mild hint*) proposed in the CCSARP Coding Manual (1989).

The *requesting* head act strategies identified in the nonnative data were *preparatory, mood derivable,* and *strong hint*. In addition, there were some productions in the nonnative data which could not be included in any of the *head act* categories proposed by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) because they did not have the feature of a *requesting* speech act. For this reason, those types of productions were categorized under the *not applicables* category. Out of the six mitigating supportive moves (*preparator, getting a precommitment, grounder, disarmer, promise of reward,* and *imposition minimizer*) proposed by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989), all of them, with the exception of the *precommitment*, were identified in both the native and nonnative data. *Precommitment* was not found in the nonnative *requesting* productions. However, in the nonnative *requesting* productions two new categories, *sweetener* and *appreciation*, were identified.

The analysis of the *apology* productions was also carried out based on the CCSARP Coding Manual. All five of the *apologizing* strategies presented in this coding

manual (*illocutionary force indicating device, taking on responsibility, explanation or account, offer of repair,* and *promise of forbearence*) were identified both in the native and the nonnative data. However, while comparing the results of the analysis of the native and nonnative data it was found that though all five apologizing strategies are found in both native and nonnative data, the distribution of the strategies differ between the two groups. The reason for comparing the productions of the two groups was to see the differences between native and nonnative productions, and what the Turkish teenage learners of English lack in terms of *pragmatic competence* in the target language.

Finally, in order to see the differences between the *speech act* productions of the two groups in terms of appropriateness, the *request* and *apology* productions of both groups were graded by native speaker raters based on a ten-point appropriateness scale which was a modified version of Taguchi's (2006) six-point Appropriateness Scale (See Appendix 2). The reason behind comparing the *request* and *apology* productions was to see how different the nonnative productions are than the native productions in terms of appropriateness, and to learn what the Turkish teenage learners of English lack in terms of *grammatical* and *pragmatic competences* in the target language that prevent them from producing appropriate speech acts in the target language. The results of the statistical analysis (SPSS) of the grades given by the native raters to the speech act productions of the native and nonnative participants were compared to see how the *request* and *apology* productions of the Turkish participants are different than the *request* and *apology* productions of the American participants in terms of appropriateness. As a result of this comparison it was found that the 14-15 year-old Turkish learners of English in our study cannot produce *requests* as appropriately as the American participants. However, when it comes to the appropriateness of the *apology* productions, the productions of the two groups were found to be almost equally appropriate for the situations.

This chapter also focuses on the discussion of the ten research questions and results regarding them.

5.2. Evaluation of the Research Questions

Research question 1: *What are the requesting head act strategies used by 14-15 year-old American speakers of English?*

As a result of the analysis of the *request* productions of the American participants, four different *requesting head act* strategies were identified. These four *head act* strategies were *preparatory, hedged performative, want statement,* and *mood derivable* head act strategies, all of which were proposed by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) in the CCSARP Coding Manual. The most commonly used *head act* strategy by the American participants was found to be the *preparatory head act strategy* with a percentage of 93.1 %. It was followed by *want statement* (3.75 %).The last two were *hedged performative* (2.5 %) and *mood derivable* (0.6) *head act* strategies.

The *preparatory* head act strategy was identified in the native speaker productions with the highest frequency. It includes productions such as "Could you help me with my Math homework?" (NS10, 3), in which the speaker questions "the presence of the chosen preparatory condition" (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, 280). *Want statement* head act strategies are ones in which the speaker expresses his or her desire "that the event denoted in the proposition come about" (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, 279) by producing sentences such as "Are you riding your bike this weekend? Because if you aren't *I'd love to* borrow it." (NS15, 4).

One of the other two *head act* strategies identified in the native data in small numbers was the *hedged performative* head act strategy. This strategy was identified in productions such as "I would really appreciate it if I could use your bike this weekend. I promise I will be careful with it." (NS15, 4) Finally, the last *head act* strategy identified in the native data was the *mood derivable*. These productions were defined by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989, 278) as utterances in which "the grammatical mood of the locution conventionally determines its illocutionary force as a request". This type of *head act* strategy is regarded as the most direct; one of the examples identified in the native data was the following: "Hey help me with my homework will ya? " (NS18, 3) Since this type of *head act* strategy is the most direct, it was observed only with the situations in which the speaker is not inferior to his/her hearer in terms of power, and in which the social distance between the interlocutors is small.

Research question 2: *What are the requesting mitigating supportive moves used by 14-15 year-old American speakers of English?*

All of the six *mitigating supportive move* categories suggested by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) in the CCSARP Coding Manual were identified in the native speaker *request* productions. Out of these six categories, the most frequently used *mitigating supportive move* by the American participants was the *grounder* (47.3 %). It is suggested that with

grounders speakers give some explanations or some reasons for requesting something. For instance, in the following example the native participant gives the reason for requesting his/her friend's dictionary: " Hey—sorry. *I forgot my dictionary at home,* can I borrow yours? Thank you." (NS7, 1)

In the native participant data, *grounders* were followed by *disarmers* with a percentage of 27.3 %. According to Blum-Kulka et al. (1989, 287), with a *disarmer* "the speaker tries to remove any potential objections the hearer might raise upon being confronted with the request". Some of the examples identified in the native data were as follows: "*I know the bike means a lot to you* but I really need to borrow your bike."(NS1, 4); and,"*I will take good care of your camera* if you let me borrow it tonight? "(NS9, 7).

Another *mitigating supportive move* category identified in the native data with a considerable amount was the *preparator* (13.6 %). This type of mitigating move is used by the speaker to ask about " the potential availability of the hearer for carrying out the *request*, or by asking for the hearer's permission to make the *request* " (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, 287). For instance, in the following sentence, NS3 first questions the availability of the hearer for carrying out the *request*: "*Are you riding your bike this weekend?* Because if you aren't I'd love to borrow it." (NS3, 4). *Imposition minimizer* was another *mitigating supportive move* used by the American participants in our study (8.4 %). Blum-Kulka et al. (1989, 288) suggest that with this *mitigating supportive move* the speaker "tries to reduce the imposition placed on the hearer by his/her request". An example from the native speaker data is as the following: " Would you mind giving me a ride home? *We live on the same street.*"(NS5, 5).

Finally, *promise of reward* (2.1 %) and *precommitment* (1 %) were the last two *mitigating supportive moves* used by the American teenagers in our study. Parallel to the meaning of the name given to it *promise of reward* is a mitigating supportive move by which a speaker offers an incentive to the hearer to persuade him/her to carry out the requested action. The last mitigating supportive move identified in the native *request* productions was the *precommitment*. It was found to be used only in one of the native *request* productions. In the following example the first sentence of NS12's production is identified as *precommitment* and the last sentence is identified as *promise of reward*: "*Hey I have a big favor to ask you*. I heard that you can translate Spanish wicked good. So I was wondering if you could help me translate an article? *I'd make sure to pay you back with whatever you want.*" (NS12, 8).

Research question 3: *What are the requesting head act strategies used by 14-15 year old Turkish speakers of English?*

Turkish participants in this study were found to use three of the nine *requesting head act strategies* suggested by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989). The most commonly used head act strategy by the Turkish participants was found to be the *preparatory* with a percentage of 79.8 %. An example from the nonnative data in which the preparatory head act strategy is identified is the following: "Hello, NAME. *Can I borrow* your bicycle? Because urgent go to shopping." (NNS5, 4). The other two head act strategies used by the Turkish teenagers were *mood derivable* (2.5 %) and *strong hint* (1.88 %). As proposed by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989), *mood derivable* head act strategy is the most direct strategy. For instance, in the following production NNS16 used this type of strategy for a direct effect: "Excuse me NAME *give me a ride home.* The lessons are over and I must go home early, because I have a lot of homework." (NNS16, 5). However, as explained in the data analysis section, some of the Turkish participants in our study produced direct *requests* as a result of lacking *grammatical competence* in the target language. The *Strong hint* head act strategy in which "the illocutionary intent is not immediately derivable from the locution; however, the locution refers to relevant elements of the intended illocutionary and/or propositional act" (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, 280) was the least commonly used head act strategy identified in the nonnative speaker data. It was identified only in a few situations. For example, while asking his/her elder brother's help for solving the Math problems, NNS16 produced the following production: "Excuse me, brother**.** *I some Maths problems. I can't solve by myself.*" (NNS16,3).

Finally, the last category identified in the nonnative data was the *Not Applicables* category. The productions of the Turkish participants which do not have the feature of a *request* speech act were grouped under this category. This category was the second most frequently encountered one in the nonnative data with a percentage of 15.7 %. The productions such as "I'm father camera borrow?" (NNS2, 7) were grouped under this category.

Research question 4: *What are the requesting mitigating supportive moves used by 14-15 year-old Turkish speakers of English?*

Out of the six mitigating supportive moves identified in the CCSARP Coding Manual, five were found in the nonnative *request* productions. In addition, two new

categories were identified as a result of the *mitigating supportive move* analysis of the nonnative *request* productions.

The most commonly used *mitigating supportive move* strategy by the Turkish participants was *grounder* (79.5 %). Thus, most of the Turkish teenagers in our study preferred to give explanations or reasons while asking for something. For instance, NNS4 chose to combine his head act with a *grounder* in his answer to the second *request* situation in the DCT: "Excuse me. *I am sure that my parents are worried about me. I am call my parents.* Could I borrow your telephone?"(NNS4, 2). *Grounder* was by far the most popular *mitigating supportive move* among the Turkish participants. It was followed by *imposition minimizer* with a percentage of 7.5 %. In the nonnative data *imposition minimizer* was used seven times in total. An example of this category produced by NNS7 was the following: "Could I borrow your dictionary? *I am bring your dictionary in tomorrow?*" (NNS7,1). *Preparators,* which are the mitigations by which a speaker checks the availability of his/her hearer to carry out the requested action, were also used by the Turkish participants with a percentage of 5.3 %.

Disarmers and *Promise of Reward* mitigating supportive move strategies were also observed in the nonnative data with low percentages. *Disarmers* had a percentage of 2.1 %, and were identified in sentences such as this one: "NAME I am must go home early. Because I have a lot of homework. *I am really sorry. I am really sorry.* Could you lend your bicycle? I am bring your bicycle in tomorrow."(NNS20, 5). In this example by apologizing to her hearer in advance NNS20 tries to "remove any potential objections the hearer might raise" (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, 287). These kinds of mitigations are identified as *disarmers.*

The fifth mitigating supportive move used by the Turkish participants was the *Promise of Reward* (1.07 %). It was observed in only one of the situations: "Can you translate into Turkish? *Tomorrow I buy cola.*"(NNS17, 8).

Finally, as aforementioned there were two new *mitigating supportive moves* found in the nonnative data. These categories were not included in the CCSARP Coding Manual (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989). One of these categories was *appreciation;* it had a percentage of 3.2 %. This strategy was in the form of thanking the hearer in advance. An interesting detail about this *mitigating supportive move* is that it was used only by one of the nonnative speakers, NNS19. *Appreciation* mitigating supportive move is observed in the following production of NNS19: "Hi, I'm NAME. Can you translate this article into Turkish? *Thanks."* The *Sweetener* mitigating supportive move was the

second new mitigating supportive move identified in the data. As defined in the data analysis section, these types of *mitigating supportive moves* are the nice words or phrases a speaker produces in order to reduce the hearer's possibility of declining the *request*. An example of this category can be found in the following production: "*I know this camera is very important.* Could you lend that camera? I bring tomorrow." (NNS4, 7).

Research question 5: *What are the apologizing strategies used by 14-15 year-old American speakers of English?*

All of the five apologizing strategies presented in the CCSARP Coding Manual were identified in the native *apology* productions. *Illocutionary Force Indicating Device* (IFID) which is regarded as the main *apologizing* strategy was found to be the most commonly used apologizing strategy by the American participants (43 %). This main apologizing strategy category includes productions such as *I am sorry* and *I apologize*, sometimes combined with intensifiers such as *very*, *really* or *so*. In most of the situations almost all of the native participants chose to use this apologizing strategy and combined it with one of the other four strategies according to the nature of the given situation. Some examples to this category from the native data were as follows: "Oh, *I'm sorry*."(NS16, 3); and "*I'm sorry* I broke your window, it was an accident."(NS14, 5).

IFIDs were followed by *Offers of repair* with a percentage of 21.3 %. As reflected by the label of this apologizing strategy, the speaker's aim is to offer to repair the caused damage or replace the hearer's loss: "I am so sorry I bumped into you, *do you want me to buy you a new ice-cream*"(NS1, 6); and "Mom, I am so so sorry and I was really careless and ran right into it. *I'll replace it if you want*"(NS3, 2).

Explanation or account was found to be the third most commonly used apologizing strategy by the American participants (18.6 %). According to Blum-Kulka et al. (1989, 293) this apologizing strategy is used by speakers to give external "reasons for the violation at hand". This category was followed by *Taking on Responsibility* with a percentage of 15.4 %. This category is regarded to be similar to the *explanation or account* category. The only difference between these two categories is that in *Taking on responsibility* rather than find external excuses, the speaker accepts or shows that s/he is responsible for the violation at hand. Some examples from the native data are productions such as these: "I am very sorry, *I should have come to apologize earlier*,

but I wasn't sure what to do" (NS6, 5); and, "Sorry *I spilled tea on your paper*."(NS11, 4).

The last apologizing strategy used by the American participants was *Promise of Forebearance* (0.9 %). It was observed in the native data only three times. With this strategy a speaker promises his/her hearer that the violation will not be repeated. "It won't happen again" was the phrase used in all of the three situations in which this type of apologizing category was observed.

Research question 6: *What are the apologizing strategies used by 14-15 year-old Turkish speakers of English?*

All of the five apologizing strategies suggested by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) were also observed in the nonnative *apology* productions. *The Illocutionary Force Indicating Device* was again the most commonly used apologizing strategy with a percentage of 52 %. This strategy was followed by *Taking on Responsibility* apologizing strategy 22 %.

Offer of repair apologizing strategy was also used by the Turkish participants with a considerable amount (14.5 %). Some examples of the nonnative productions with this type of strategy are as follows: "Mother, I'm really sorry. It is (I was) running (to the) door. I (was) running (to the) door I didn't see. Forgive me mother. *I am buy your vase.*" (NNS4, 2); "I'm sorry. *I'm (going to) do your project paper.*" (NNS17, 4).

Explanation or account and *Promise of Forebearance* strategies were also observed in the nonnative data. *Explanation or account* apologizing strategy had a percentage of 7.4 %, and *Promise of Forebearance* apologizing strategy was the least commonly used one by the Turkish participants with a percentage of 3 %. As observed in the native data in all the situations that included *Promise of Forebearance* apologizing strategy "This won't happen again" was the phrase used by the Turkish participants.

Research question 7: *Does the choice of requesting head act and mitigating supportive move strategies differ across the two groups?*

As a result of the comparison of the *request* speech act productions of the two groups it was found that the *preparatory* strategy is by far the most commonly used head act strategy by both groups of participants (NS 93.1 %, NNS 79.8 %). The second *request* head act strategy which was identified in both the native and nonnative *request* productions was the *mood derivable* head act strategy. However, the percentage of this category was low in both the native and the nonnative data. (NS 0.6 %, NNS 2.5 %).

According to Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) the *mood derivable* head act strategy is the most direct requesting strategy, and, since this strategy is used by the Turkish participants more than the American participants, one can conclude that the Turkish participants are more direct than the American participants in some of the situations. However, the close analysis of the situations in which the Turkish participants were found to use the *mood derivable* strategy showed that the identification of this kind of production as *mood derivable* is a result of Turkish participant's lack of the required *grammatical competence* to produce *requests* in English. For instance in the following example NNS2 sounded as if he is giving a command instead of requesting: "*I borrow your dictionary.* I bring your dictionary tomorrow." (NNS2, 1).

The other *request* head act strategies observed in the data showed variance between the two groups. While American participants were found to use *want statement* (3.75 %) and *hedged performative* (2.5 %) head acts, Turkish participants were found to use *strong hint* head act strategy with a percentage of 1.88 %. However, since they did not have the feature of a *request* speech act, 15.7 % of the *request* productions of the Turkish participants were identified under the category of *Not Applicables.* Some of the productions of the Turkish participants, the *head acts* of which were identified as *not applicables,* had almost the same features with the productions which were identified as *mood derivables*. However, the only difference between the two was that the productions which were identified as *not applicables* were aimed to be produced in a question form as an indirect *request*. Since the Turkish participants used question marks at the end of the productions which were categorized as *not applicables,* one can conclude that their aim was to ask a question not to give a command. For instance, in the following example NNS2's *request* production sounds direct and was categorized under the *not applicables* category though the aim of the participant was to ask a question: "I'm father camera borrow?" (NNS2, 7).

The comparison of the *mitigating supportive move* analysis of the two groups showed that both the American and the Turkish participants in our study use all of the six *mitigating supportive move* strategies suggested by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989), except the *precommitment* mitigating supportive move which was not observed in the *request* productions of the Turkish participants. All of the other five requesting mitigating supportive moves *(grounder, disarmer, preparator, imposition minimizer, promise of reward)* were observed in both the native and the nonnative data. Although these five mitigations were used by both groups, their percentages showed some differences

between the two groups. *Grounders* were the most commonly used *mitigating supportive move* by both groups. However, Turkish participants were found to use them more commonly than the American participants (NS 47.3 %, NNS 79.5 %). *Preparator* mitigating supportive move strategy was the third most-commonly used mitigation by both groups with a percentage of 13.6 % by the natives, and a percentage of 5.3 % by the nonnatives. The mitigation in the fifth rank in terms of frequency was the *promise of reward* in both groups (NS 2.1 %, NNS 1.07 %).

The order of the frequency level of the other *mitigating supportive moves* showed difference between the two groups. While *disarmers* were the second most commonly used mitigation by the American participants (27.3 %), *imposition minimizer* was in the second rank (7.5 %) in the nonnative data. The fourth commonly used mitigation by the American participants was the *imposition minimizer* (8.4 %) whereas *disarmers* were placed in the fourth rank in the nonnative data (2.1 %).

Apart from the five *mitigating supportive moves* which were observed in both the native and the nonnative *request* productions, there were three more mitigations which were not used by both groups. One of these strategies was the *precommitment* mitigating supportive move, which is the least commonly used mitigation by the American participants with a percentage of 1 %. The other two mitigations which were observed in the nonnative data and were not included in Blum-Kulka et al.'s CCSARP Coding Manual (1989) were the *appreciation* (3.2 %) and the *sweetener* (1.07 %) categories.

Research question 8: *Does the choice of apologizing strategies differ across the two groups?*

As a result of the comparison of the *apologizing* strategies produced by the two groups it was observed that both the American and the Turkish participants in our study used all of the five apologizing strategies *(IFID, offer of repair, explanation or account, taking on responsibility, promise of forebearance)* presented in CCSARP Coding Manual. However, as in the *request* productions, the distribution of these strategies showed some differences across the two groups.

The main apologizing strategy, *Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID),* was the most commonly used apologizing strategy by both groups. 43.8 % of the native and 52 % of the nonnative *apology* productions included this type of apologizing strategy. Another similarity between the native and nonnative *apology* productions was that the least commonly used apologizing strategy by the two groups was *promise of*

forebearance (NS 0.9 %, NNS 3 %). The distribution of the other three apologizing strategies showed differences between the two groups. While the *offer of repair* apologizing strategy was the second most commonly used apologizing strategy by the native participants (21.3 %), it was the third most commonly used strategy by the nonnatives (14.5 %). The *Explanation or account* apologizing strategy was used with a higher frequency by the native participants (18.6 %) than the nonnative participants (7.4 %), and was in the third rank in the native data whereas it had the fourth rank in the nonnative data. Finally, the *taking on responsibility* apologizing strategy was the second most commonly used strategy by the Turkish participants with a percentage of 22.7 %, and the fourth most commonly used by the Americans with a percentage of 15.4 %.

Research question 9: *How different are the native and nonnative request productions in terms of appropriateness?*

The comparison of the *descriptive statistics* and the one-way ANOVA test results of the *request* productions of the American and Turkish participants in terms of appropriateness showed that the American participants produced more appropriate *requests* than the Turkish participants. The mean of the grades given by the two raters to the native *request* productions was 7.2, and the mean of the nonnative *request* productions was 6.4. Although the two means looked different, in order to take the variance into consideration, the one-way ANOVA test was conducted. As a result of this test, F value was found to be 6.196, and, since this value is different than 1, we can conclude that the mean grades of the native speaker and the nonnative speaker *request* productions are different.

Research question 10: *How different are the native and nonnative apology productions in terms of appropriateness?*

The comparison of the *descriptive statistics* and the one-way ANOVA test results of the *apology* productions of the American and Turkish participants in terms of appropriateness showed that there is no considerable difference between the *apology* productions of the native and the nonnative participants in terms of appropriateness. Although the mean grades of the two groups were slightly different (NS=7.23, NNS=7.18), the result of the one-way ANOVA test showed that the mean grades of the *apology* production of the two groups cannot be stated as different. Although the F value was found to be different than 1 (0.02), the significance level was found to be bigger than 0.05, thus concluding that there is no significant difference between the mean grades of the *apology* productions of the native and the nonnative participants.

5.3. Implications for ELT

To be able to use the target language effectively, language learners should develop target language *communicative competence*. One of the main components of the *communicative competence* is *pragmatic competence*, which is the "knowledge of the linguistic resources available in a given language for realizing particular illocutions, knowledge of the sequential aspects of speech acts and finally, knowledge of the appropriate contextual use of the particular languages' linguistic resources" (Barron, 2003, 10). As proposed in this definition, speech acts and the knowledge of their appropriate usage are one of the most important components of *pragmatic competence*. For this reason, acquisition of the knowledge of the effective usage of target language speech acts and speech functions is crucial for language learners.

Requests and *apologies* are two of the most important speech acts since they both have face-threatening features (Brown & Levinson, 1987), and they are both culture-bound. For this reason, it is crucial to compare *request* and *apology* productions of native and nonnative speakers of a language, and to identify the differences between the strategies used by native speakers and language learners. The identification of the differences might shed light on the answers to the questions, "What do language learners lack in terms of *pragmatic competence* in the target language?" and "What can be done to help learners to develop target language *pragmatic competence*?"

The findings of the studies comparing speech act productions of native speakers and language learners might also be used to develop a foreign language teaching curriculum which gives importance to *pragmatics-focused instruction*. The results of the studies carried out in the *Interlanguage Pragmatics* field might give language teachers an idea about different ways of teaching pragmatics to language learners.

Finally, the results of this study and the other studies carried out in the *Interlanguage Pragmatics* and *Cross-cultural Pragmatics* fields might help educators to develop *pragmatics-focused* language learning/teaching materials.

5.4. Suggestions for Further Research

Studies comparing other speech act productions – rather than *requests* and *apologies* – of Turkish learners and native speakers of English may be carried out. In addition to this, studies focusing on speech act productions of Turkish learners of English having different proficiency levels may be conducted. Some of these studies

might even compare speech act productions of Turkish learners coming from two different levels of proficiency with the productions of native speakers in order to see the effect of proficiency level on *pragmatic competence* development.

Finally, studies investigating the teachability of *pragmatic competence* may be carried out. In these studies the effect of *pragmatics-focused* instruction on the pragmatic competence development of Turkish learners of English might be investigated.

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APPENDICES

Appendıx 1: Dıscourse Completıon Tests

Native (American) Participants Discourse Completion Test

Please read the situations carefully and write what you would say in that particular situation to the gaps provided after each question. You may leave the questions that you do not want to answer unanswered:

REQUESTS

1. In Spanish class you are reading a passage and the teacher wants you to find the meanings of the new vocabulary. But you realize that you forgot your dictionary. Your friend is sitting next to you. You want to borrow his/her dictionary. What would you say?

.....

.....

2. You have just arrived in Boston. You came here to take a very important exam. You are at the bus station. Your parents wanted you to call them when you arrive at the bus station. However, the battery of your cell phone is low. You are sure that your parents are worried about you. You sit on a bench next to an old lady. After some hesitation, although you don't know the lady, you decide to ask for her cell phone to call your parents. What would you say to the lady?

.....

.....

3. You have a lot of homework and you must finish it by tomorrow. There are some Math problems that you can't solve by yourself. Your elder brother is studying Math at college. You want him to help you with your Math homework. What would you say to your elder brother?

.....

.....

4. You want to go out this weekend. You want to borrow your close friend's bicycle. However, you know s/he usually rides his/her bicycle on the weekends and that it is really valuable to him/her. What would you say to your friend?

.....

.....

5. Your classes are over and you must go home early because you have a lot of homework. But your home is very far from the school. Your classmate Pete lives on your street and his father came to school by car to take him home. You decide to ask Pete's father for a ride. What would you say?

.....

.....

6. You are in a supermarket. You want to buy some shampoo. However, the shampoo you want to buy is on the highest shelf and you cannot reach it. There is a boy near you. You decide to ask him to get you one of those shampoos. What would you say?

.....

.....

7. Tomorrow night is your close friend's birthday party. You promised him/her to bring a camera with you to the party to take photos. For this reason, in the evening when your father comes home from work you decide to ask for his camera. You know this camera is very valuable to your father, but you must borrow it for tomorrow night. So you ask your father. What would you say?

.....

.....

8. You must write an essay on a topic and turn it in tomorrow. You have just found from the internet an interesting article on the topic which is one page long, but it is written in Spanish. You can't read the article in Spanish and you need to translate it into English. You have just heard that there is a student in another class who understand Spanish and can write in Spanish very well. Although you have never spoken to the student before, you decide to ask the student to translate this article into English. When you see the student what would you say?

.....

.....

APOLOGIES

1. Last week your teacher gave you an assignment. You were supposed to prepare a project paper and bring it today. But you were ill all this week, so you couldn't prepare the project paper on time. You apologize to your teacher. What would you say?

.....

.....

2. You are alone at home. Suddenly the doorbell rings and you run to open the door. While you are running you bump into the coffee table which is in the middle of the living room and break your mother's most precious vase which was standing on it. Two hours later your mother comes home. You know your mother likes that vase very much. You apologize to her. What would you say?

.....

.....

3. You are on a bus. It is very crowded inside and you are standing in the aisle. You accidentally step on the foot of the boy who is standing next to you. You apologize. What would you say?

.....

.....

4. While drinking tea you accidentally spilled it on the project paper that your younger brother prepared for his Math class. Your brother is supposed to submit this project paper tomorrow, so he is upset and angry. You apologize to him. What would you say?

.....

.....

5. Yesterday you were playing football on the school playground. You kicked the ball and it directly hit the window of the principal's office and the glass was broken. Today the headmaster called you to his office. You apologize to him. What would you say?

.....

.....

6. You are riding a bicycle. You are going fast and suddenly you bump into a girl and she drops her ice-cream on the ground. She looks very angry. You apologize. What would you say?

.....

.....

7. Yesterday one of your classmates asked you to bring a novel for her. However, you forgot to bring it today. When your friend asks "Did you bring the novel?" you apologize. What would you say?

.....

.....

8. You borrowed a pen from your father. Yet today when you looked for it you realized that you lost it. You apologize to your father. What would you say?

.....

.....

Nonnative (Turkish) Participants Discourse Completion Test

Nonnative participant DCT

REQUESTS

1. In the English lesson you are reading a passage and the teacher wants you to find the meanings of the new vocabulary. But you realize that you forgot your dictionary at home. Your friend is sitting next to you. You want to borrow his/her dictionary.What would you say?

……

……

2. You have just arrived in Ankara. You came here to take a very important exam. You are at the bus station. Your parents wanted you to call them when you arrive at the bus station. However, the battery of your cell phone is low. You are sure that your parents are worried about you. You sit on a bench next to an old lady. After some hesitation, although you don't know the lady, you decide to ask for her cell phone to call your parents. What would you say to the lady?

……

……

3. You have a lot of homework and you must finish it by tomorow. There are some Maths problems that you can't solve by yourself. Your elder brother is studying Maths at university. You want him to help you with your Maths homework. What would you say to your elder brother?

……

……

4. You want to go out this weekend. You want to borrow your close friend's bicycle. However, you know s/he usually rides his/her bicycle on the weekends and that it is really valuable to him/her.What would you say to your friend?

……

……

5. Your lessons are over and you must go home early because you have a lot of homework . But your home is very far from the school. Your classmate Serdar lives on your street and his father came to school by car to take him home. You decide to ask Serdar's father for a ride. What would you say?

……

……

6. You are in a supermarket. You want to buy some shampoo. However, the shampoo you want to buy is on the highest shelf and you cannot reach it. There is a boy near you. You decide to ask him to give you one of those shampoos. What would you say?

……

……

7. Tomorrow night there is your close friend's birthday party. You promised him/her to bring a camera with you to the party to take photos. For this reason, in the evening when your father comes home from work you decide to ask for his camera. You know this camera is very valuable to your father, but you must borrow it for tomorrow night. So you ask your father. What would you say?

……

……

8. You must write an essay in a topic and turn it in tomorrow. You have just found from the internet an interesting article on the topic which is one page long, but it is written in English. You can't read the article in English and you need to translate it into Turkish. You have just heard that there is a student in another class who understand English and can write in English very well. Although you have never spoken to the student before, you decide to ask the student to translate this article into Turkish. When you see the student what would you say?

……

……

APOLOGIES

1. Last week your teacher gave you a homework. You were supposed to prepare a project paper and bring it today. But you were ill all this week, so you couldn't prepare the project paper on time. You apologize to your teacher. What would you say?

……

……

2. You are alone at home. Suddenly the doorbell rings and you run to open the door.While you are running you bump into the coffee table which is in the middle of the living room and break your mother's most precious vase which was standing on it. Two hours later your mother comes home. You know your mother likes that vase very much. You apologize to her. What would you say?

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……

3. You are on a bus. It is very crowded inside and you are standing in the aisle. You accidentally step on the foot of the boy who is standing next to you. You apologize. What would you say?

……

……

4. While drinking tea you accidentally spilled it on the project paper that your younger brother prepared for his Maths lesson. Your brother is supposed to submit this project paper tomorrow, so he is upset and angry. You apologize to him. What would you say?

……

……

5. Yesterday you were playing football on the school playground. You kicked the ball and it directly hit the window of the principal's office and the glass was broken. Today the headmaster called you to his office. You apologize to him. What would you say?

……

……

6. You are riding a bicycle. You are going fast and suddenly you bump into a girl and she drops her ice-cream on the ground. She looks very angry. You apologize. What would you say?

……

……

7. Yesterday one of your classmates asked you to bring a novel for her. However, you forgot to bring it today. When your friend asks "Did you bring the novel?" You apologize. What would you say?

……

……

8. You borrowed a pen from your father. Yet today when you looked for it you realized that you lost it. You apologize to your father. What would you say?

……

……

Appendix 2: Appropıateness Scale

Appropriateness: For requests:

Whether the expression is adequate for the level of imposition of the request and the relationship between the interlocutors:
i.e regarding the **choice of addrress terms, the (in)directness of the request., whether it has necessary accounts/explanations , preparatory actions , softeners etc.**

Appropriateness: For apologies:

Is the expression adequate for the level of severity of the situation which necessites the apology and for the relationship between the interlocutors? **.**ie. **regarding the choice of addrress terms, whether it has necessary accounts/explanations, softeners etc.**

APPROPRIATENESS RATING SCALE

10 - Expressions are fully appropriate for the situation.
- No or almost no grammatical and discourse errors.

9 - Expressions are fully appropriate for the situation.
- Grammatical and discourse errors which do not interfere appropriateness.

8 - Expressions are mostly appropriate.
- No or almost no grammatical and discourse errors.

7 - Expressions are mostly appropriate.
- Grammatical and discourse errors are noticeable, but they do nointerfere appropriateness.

6 - Expressions are only somewhat appropriate.
- No or almost no grammatical and discourse errors.

5 - Expressions are only somewhat appropriate.
- Grammatical and discourse errors are noticeable, but they do no interfere appropriateness.

4 - Due to the inference from grammatical and discourse errors, appropriateness is difficult to determine.

3 - Expressions are not appropriate
- No or almost no grammatical and discourse errors.

2 - Expressions are not appropriate
- Grammatical and discourse errors totally interfere appropriateness.

1 - There is no evidence that the intended speech acts are performed.

0 - No performance.

Appendix 3: The results of the Speech Act Appropriateness Evaluations

Rater 1 RATING FORM FOR NATIVE PARTICIPANT DATA

Participants	Appropriateness Grades															
	REQUESTS								APOLOGIES							
	I*1	I 2	I 3	I 4	I 5	I 6	I 7	I 8	I 1	I 2	I 3	I 4	I 5	I 6	I 7	I 8
NS1*	9*	10	10	9	9	9	8	9	8	10	9	5	9	10	10	10
NS2	8	9	9	5	5	8	8	10	4	4	3	3	8	9	10	2
NS3	4	7	3	3	4	5	10	4	10	10	1	7	8	9	9	2
NS4	7	6	7	4	7	8	8	2	3	7	2	5	5	2	4	7
NS5	9	9	7	6	7	7	8	8	8	6	5	9	8	9	8	8
NS6	7	7	7	2	8	7	8	7	9	6	8	6	9	9	8	9
NS7	6	9	8	8	7	8	9	8	9	8	8	5	8	8	7	5
NS8	8	5	8	6	5	5	6	2	7	8	8	8	7	7	7	9
NS9	9	7	8	8	6	2	6	7	8	2	2	9	7	7	10	9
NS10	10	6	10	9	5	8	7	7	8	8	5	9	8	8	9	9
NS11	9	6	9	6	7	7	7	7	9	9	8	7	5	8	8	8
NS12	4	5	8	5	5	7	7	2	5	2	4	5	2	2	8	2
NS13	9	7	9	9	6	9	9	8	8	9	8	8	7	7	8	5
NS14	10	9	9	8	8	10	8	8	8	5	9	8	9	5	10	10
NS15	10	9	7	10	9	5	5	7	8	10	6	9	7	6	1	6
NS16	9	8	7	4	5	5	6	8	8	9	10	9	6	7	9	10
NS17	8	8	8	8	7	10	6	8	9	10	8	8	9	7	7	6
NS18	2	5	4	5	8	4	7	6	7	7	8	7	7	3	6	7
NS19	9	10	7	7	8	7	8	7	10	10	5	8	2	8	7	9
NS20	10	8	9	10	6	8	7	6	7	10	9	7	8	8	10	9

* “I” stands for the items in the Discourse Completion Tests (DCTs)
* NS: Native Speaker * Numbers refer to the grades assigned by the native raters over 10.

Rater 1 RATING FORM FOR NONNATIVE PARTICIPANT DATA

Participants	Appropriateness Grades															
	REQUESTS								APOLOGIES							
	I*1	I 2	I 3	I 4	I 5	I 6	I 7	I 8	I 1	I 2	I 3	I 4	I 5	I 6	I 7	I 8
NNS1*	7*	7	5	2	4	6	7	4	5	5	8	8	5	7	9	10
NNS2	2	2	2	1	1	5	5	2	5	6	8	5	9	8	4	9
NNS3	10	9	10	4	10	5	2	2	7	10	10	8	8	8	8	8
NNS4	9	8	8	1	4	9	7	2	9	4	10	4	2	2	2	3
NNS5	10	9	4	4	1	7	5	4	7	10	10	4	10	10	4	4
NNS6	2	8	10	6	5	10	8	4	8	9	5	5	8	8	5	5
NNS7	7	9	7	7	8	7	7	4	5	10	7	6	10	10	5	5
NNS8	10	9	6	5	7	10	7	7	5	8	9	9	8	8	6	5
NNS9	5	2	7	7	2	7	5	4	2	9	9	5	9	10	7	5
NNS 10	10	7	2	10	7	7	3	8	10	7	4	7	10	10	9	7
NNS 11	10	4	2	8	7	4	7	8	7	10	7	6	7	6	7	7
NNS 12	4	7	7	8	8	9	3	3	10	7	10	10	7	7	7	7
NNS 13	7	4	4	4	7	4	5	4	5	7	10	5	10	4	7	7
NNS 14	8	7	5	5	7	5	4	4	6	7	10	7	4	5	8	7
NNS 15	7	6	10	7	9	7	7	5	5	9	10	7	4	7	9	9
NNS 16	9	6	7	8	7	8	7	5	5	7	9	9	5	10	8	8
NNS 17	7	7	10	4	5	7	7	8	5	7	7	5	10	8	7	7
NNS 18	7	7	8	7	7	9	8	7	5	10	7	7	10	7	5	5
NNS 19	7	7	8	8	8	9	7	9	8	7	9	7	7	7	7	7
NNS 20	10	7	5	7	4	7	4	4	7	8	10	10	9	5	6	7

* “I” stands for the items in the DCTs
* NNS: Nonnative speaker * Numbers refer to the grades assigned by the native raters over 10.

Rater 2 RATING FORM FOR NATIVE PARTICIPANT DATA

Participants	Appropriateness Grades															
	REQUESTS								APOLOGIES							
	I*1	I 2	I 3	I 4	I 5	I 6	I 7	I 8	I 1	I 2	I 3	I 4	I 5	I 6	I 7	I 8
NS1*	*10	8	9	10	9	7	7	8	9	10	8	9	9	10	9	7
NS2	4	9	7	7	8	7	7	9	5	3	7	7	8	8	6	3
NS3	7	6	6	8	4	6	8	7	9	9	5	5	6	8	8	8
NS4	7	6	7	5	8	8	8	3	4	7	2	5	6	2	5	8
NS5	9	9	7	6	8	8	8	8	8	6	5	9	9	9	9	8
NS6	8	8	8	3	8	8	7	8	9	5	8	6	9	9	8	9
NS7	7	9	7	7	7	7	9	7	8	9	8	8	5	8	8	5
NS8	8	5	8	6	5	5	6	3	8	7	8	8	8	7	7	9
NS9	9	7	8	8	6	3	5	8	8	3	2	9	8	6	10	9
NS10	10	7	10	8	6	8	7	7	8	8	5	9	8	8	9	10
NS11	9	6	9	6	7	7	7	7	9	9	8	7	5	8	8	8
NS12	5	8	9	5	5	7	7	2	5	2	5	5	2	2	8	2
NS13	9	7	9	9	7	10	9	8	8	9	8	7	5	8	8	5
NS14	10	9	9	8	8	10	8	8	8	5	9	9	8	5	10	10
NS15	10	9	7	10	9	5	5	7	9	10	7	9	7	6	2	6
NS16	9	8	7	5	5	7	8	8	9	10	9	7	7	3	8	10
NS17	8	8	8	8	7	10	6	8	9	10	8	8	10	8	7	7
NS18	2	5	5	5	8	5	7	7	7	7	8	7	7	3	7	7
NS19	9	10	7	7	8	7	8	7	10	10	5	8	2	8	7	10
NS20	10	8	10	8	7	8	7	7	8	10	9	8	8	8	10	9

* “I” stands for the items in the DCTs
* NS: Native Speaker
* Numbers refer to the grades assigned by the native raters over 10.

Rater 2 RATING FORM FOR NONNATIVE PARTICIPANT DATA

Participants	Appropriateness Grades															
	REQUESTS								APOLOGIES							
	I*1	I 2	I 3	I 4	I 5	I 6	I 7	I 8	I 1	I 2	I 3	I 4	I 5	I 6	I 7	I 8
NNS1*	7*	7	7	5	5	7	8	4	5	8	9	5	7	8	9	10
NNS2	4	4	9	7	4	10	4	7	5	9	10	9	9	9	4	9
NNS3	10	5	9	7	7	7	7	4	9	7	10	10	10	8	8	8
NNS4	7	7	7	5	5	7	7	7	7	5	5	2	2	2	2	5
NNS5	10	7	5	7	5	10	8	8	5	7	10	9	8	10	5	5
NNS6	2	8	10	7	8	7	9	4	9	9	5	5	8	5	5	5
NNS7	7	9	7	5	3	10	7	4	5	10	7	6	10	5	5	5
NNS8	10	9	7	8	7	7	7	7	5	8	9	9	9	10	7	5
NNS9	5	2	8	10	7	7	5	4	2	9	9	5	10	10	9	7
NNS 10	10	7	3	8	7	4	4	8	10	7	5	7	7	7	7	7
NNS 11	10	5	3	8	5	9	8	8	7	10	7	7	7	7	7	7
NNS 12	4	7	8	4	8	4	4	4	10	7	10	10	10	4	7	7
NNS 13	7	5	4	5	7	5	5	4	5	7	10	5	4	5	4	5
NNS 14	9	7	5	8	7	7	4	4	7	7	10	7	4	5	8	7
NNS 15	7	7	10	7	9	8	7	5	5	9	10	7	5	7	9	9
NNS 16	10	7	7	8	7	7	8	5	5	7	9	9	10	10	8	8
NNS 17	7	7	10	4	5	9	7	8	5	7	7	5	10	8	7	7
NNS 18	7	7	8	7	7	9	8	7	5	10	7	7	7	7	5	5
NNS 19	7	7	8	8	9	7	7	9	9	7	9	7	8	7	7	7
NNS 20	10	7	5	7	4	9	4	5	7	8	10	10	9	5	7	8

* “Item” stands for the items in the DCTs
* NNS: Nonnative Speaker
* Numbers refer to the grades assigned by the native raters over 10.

Appendix 4: Distributions of the Speech Act Strategies Observed in the Overall Data

Distribution of *Request* Head Act Strategies employed by Native Participants

	HEAD ACT STRATEGIES OBSERVED in NS DATA				
	Preparatory	**Hedged Performative**	**Want Statement**	**Mood Derivable**	
Name	**TOKENS**				**Total**
NS1*	6*	1	1	_	8
NS2	7	-	1	-	8
NS3	7	-	1	-	8
NS4	7	-	1	-	8
NS5	7	-	1	-	8
NS6	8	-	-	-	8
NS7	8	-	-	-	8
NS8	8	-	-	-	8
NS9	7	1	-	-	8
NS10	8	-	-	-	8
NS11	8	-	-	-	8
NS12	8	-	-	-	8
NS13	7	1	-	-	8
NS14	8	-	-	-	8
NS15	7	1	-	-	8
NS16	8	-	-	-	8
NS17	8	-	-	-	8
NS18	7	-	-	1	8
NS19	8	-		-	8
NS20	7	-	1	-	8
Grand Total					160

* NS: Native Speaker

* Numbers refer to the frequency of the head act strategies observed in the native data.

Distribution of *Request* Mitigating Supportive Moves employed by Native Participants

MITIGATING SUPPORTIVE MOVES							
Name	**grounder**	**disarmer**	**preparator**	**imposition minimizer**	**Promise of reward**	**precommitment**	**TOTAL**
NS1*	1*	2	1	-	-	-	4
NS2	4	1	2	-	-	-	7
NS3	1	1	2	1		-	5
NS4	2	2	1	-	-	-	5
NS5	1	3	-	1	-	-	5
NS6	5	-	-	1	-	-	6
NS7	6	1	1	1	-	-	9
NS8	2	-	-	-	-	-	2
NS9	-	1	-	1	-	-	2
NS10	-	1	-	-	-	-	1
NS11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
NS12	5	4	-	1	2	1	13
NS13	3	3	-	1	-	-	7
NS14	2	-	1	-	-	-	3
NS15	4	2	1	-	-	-	7
NS16	2	2	2	1	-	-	7
NS17	1	-	1	-	-	-	2
NS18	1	1	1	-	-	-	3
NS19	3	1	-	-	-	-	4
NS20	2	1	-	-	-	-	3
Grand Total							**95**

* NS: Native Speaker

* Numbers refer to the frequency of the mitigating supportive moves observed in the native data.

Distribution of *Request* Head Act Strategies employed by Nonnative Participants

	HEAD ACT STRATEGIES				
Name	**Preparatory**	**Mood Derivable**	**Strong Hint**	**NA**	**Total**
NNS1*	8*	-	-	-	8
NNS2	3	2	1	2	8
NNS3	8	-	-	-	8
NNS4	8	-	-	-	8
NNS5	7	1	-	-	8
NNS6	8	-	-	-	8
NNS7	5	-	-	3	8
NNS8	8	-	-	-	8
NNS9	6	-	-	2	8
NNS10	5	-	-	3	8
NNS11	7	-	1	-	8
NNS12	3	-	-	5	8
NNS13	4	-	-	4	8
NNS14	4	-	-	4	8
NNS15	8	-	-	-	8
NNS16	4	1	1	2	8
NNS17	8	-	-	-	8
NNS18	8	-	-	-	8
NNS19	8	-	-	-	8
NNS20	7	-	-	-	7
Grand Total					**159**

* NNS: Nonnative Speaker

* Numbers refer to the frequency of the head act strategies observed in the nonnative data.

Distribution of *Request* Mitigating Supportive Moves employed by Nonnative Participants

MITIGATING SUPPORTIVE MOVES								
Name	**grounder**	**Imposition minimizer**	**disarmer**	**sweetener**	**preparator**	**Promiseof reward**	**appreciation**	**Total**
NNS1*	5*	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
NNS2	3	1	-	-	-	-	-	4
NNS3	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
NNS4	6	3	1	1	-	-	-	11
NNS5	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
NNS6	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
NNS7	3	1	-	-	-	-	-	4
NNS8	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
NNS9	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
NNS10	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
NNS11	4	-	-	-	1	-	-	5
NNS12	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
NNS13	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
NNS14	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
NNS15	5	-	-	-	2	-	-	7
NNS16	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
NNS17	5	-	-	-	1	1	1	8
NNS18	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
NNS19	6	1	-	-	-	-	2	9
NNS20	4	1	1	-	1	-	-	7
Grand Total								**93**

* NNS: Nonnative Speaker
* Numbers refer to the frequency of the mitigating supportive moves observed in the nonnative data.

Distribution of Five *Apology* Strategies *+ Intensifiers employed by Native Participants

***APOLOGY* STRATEGIES**						**Total**	**Intensifier**
Name	**IFID**	**Explanation**	**Taking on Res.**	**Offer of repair**	**Promise of Forbearence**	**Tokens**	**Tokens**
NS1*	8*	3	7	3	-	21	3
NS2	6	4	1	5	-	16	4
NS3	8	3	4	5	-	20	4
NS4	7	3	3	1	1	15	5
NS5	8	2	4	3	-	17	2
NS6	8	6	1	5	1	21	5
NS7	8	3	5	6	-	22	5
NS8	8	4	3	3	-	18	3
NS9	6	3	2	3	-	14	3
NS10	7	3	2	3	-	15	-
NS11	8	2	2	1	-	13	4
NS12	6	4	2	7	1	20	3
NS13	8	3	1	5	-	17	7
NS14	8	1	4	4	-	17	3
NS15	8	3	2	5	-	18	3
NS16	8	2	2	4	-	16	4
NS17	6	3	1	5	-	15	4
NS18	7	3	2	2	-	14	2
NS19	7	4	2	2	-	15	2
NS20	8	4	2	3	-	17	2
Grand Total						**341**	**68**

* IFID = Illocutionary Force Indicating Device
Exp.= Explanation or Account
Prom. = Promise of Forbearence
Res.= Taking on Responsibility
Rep.= Offer of Repair
Int. = Intensifier
* NS: Native Speaker
* Numbers refer to the frequency of the apology strategies observed in the native speaker data.

Distribution of Five *Apology* Strategies* + Intensifiers employed by Nonnative Participants

***APOLOGY* STRATEGIES**						**Total**	**Intensifier**
Name	**IFID**	**Exp.**	**Taking on Res.**	**Offerof repair**	**Prom.**	**Tokens**	**Tokens**
NNS1	7	2	2	3	1	15	5
NNS2	8	1	2	2	1	14	2
NNS3	7	2	3	1	-	13	2
NNS4	8	2	5	6	-	21	8
NNS5	7	-	4	2	1	14	6
NNS6	8	3	5	1	-	17	3
NNS7	8	-	3	3	1	15	5
NNS8	6	1	7	-	-	14	2
NNS9	8	1	1	1	-	11	6
NNS10	8	1	2	2	-	13	8
NNS11	7	1	5	2	-	15	5
NNS12	8	1	3	-	-	12	3
NNS13	8	-	5	1	-	14	-
NNS14	8	2	2	2	-	14	6
NNS15	8	2	2	4	3	19	7
NNS16	8	-	2	1	1	12	3
NNS17	8	1	5	5	-	19	4
NNS18	8	1	3	1	-	13	3
NNS19	8	1	3	4	-	16	5
NNS20	8	-	3	2	1	14	5
Grand Total						**295**	**88**

* IFID = Illocutionary Force Indicating Device
Exp.= Explanation or Account
Prom. = Promise of Forbearence
Res.= Taking on Responsibility
Rep.= Offer of Repair
Int. = Intensifier
* NNS: Nonnative Speaker
* Numbers refer to the frequency of the apology strategies observed in the nonnative data

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