

T.C.
ISTANBUL SABAHATTIN ZAIM UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE EDUCATION INSTITUTE
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

**AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE USE OF SPEECH
ACTS OF IRAQI ARABIC AND TURKISH SPEAKING
LEARNERS OF ENGLISH AT THE UNIVERSITY
LEVEL**

MASTER THESIS

Raghad Abdulsada MEZAAL

Istanbul
June-2021

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THESIS APPROVAL

This study has been approved in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the
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DECLARATION OF SCIENTIFIC ETHICS AND ORIGINALITY

This is to certify that this MA thesis titled “**An Investigation into the Use of Speech Acts of Iraqi-Arabic and Turkish Speaking Learners of English at the University Level**” is my own work and I have acted according to scientific ethics and academic rules through producing it. I have collected and used all information and data according to scientific ethics and guidelines on thesis writing of Istanbul Sabahattin Zaim University. I have fully referenced all direct and indirect quotations and all sources I have used in reference section.



Raghad Abdulsada MEZAAL

Istanbul, June 2021

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Raghad Abdulsada Mezaal

Istanbul, June 2021

ABSTRACT

AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE USE OF SPEECH ACTS OF IRAQI ARABIC AND TURKISH SPEAKING LEARNERS OF ENGLISH AT THE UNIVERSITY LEVEL

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This study aimed to investigate the use of speech acts in two different groups: the first group was Turkish speaking-learners at a foundation university in İstanbul and the second was Iraqi Arabic-speaking learners at a state university in Babylon, Iraq. Both groups of learners enrolled in fourth year of the ELT department. Thus, the study aimed to explore if the two groups were competent in English in terms of the use of speech acts and if one of them was more competent than the other due to some reasons. This research also aimed to identify and explain the divergence between the two groups of nonnative English speakers in their pragmatic production. To address these questions, we put these assumptions in a test by eliciting data on pragmatic abilities of learners in a variety of speech acts. Our data collection method was a Discourse Completion Task (DCT). The findings showed that the two groups were nearly competent in their use of speech acts, although Iraqi Arabic learners received higher scores. Moreover, we found some deviations from sociolinguistic patterns due to differences between cross-cultural patterns as well as social factors of nonnatives.

Keywords: communicative competence, cultural patterns, social factors, speech acts

ÖZET

IRAK ARAPÇASI VE TÜRKÇE KONUŞAN ÜNİVERSİTE DÜZEYİNDE İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN SÖZ EDİMLERİ KULLANIMLARININ İNCELENMESİ

Raghad Abdulsada MEZAAL

Yüksek Lisans, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi

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Bu çalışmanın amacı İstanbul'daki bir vakıf üniversitesinde ana dili Türkçe olan dördüncü sınıf İngiliz Dili Eğitimi öğrencileri ile Irak'ta bir devlet üniversitesinde dördüncü sınıfta okuyan Irak Arapçası konuşan öğrencilerden oluşan iki grubun, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce'de yetkin olup olmadığını araştırmaktır. İkinci amaç ise, ana dili İngilizce olmayan iki grubun iletişimsel yeterlik söz edimi durumları formüllerindeki sapmalarını belirlemek ve açıklamaktır. Bahsedilen sorulara ve varsayımlara cevap bulabilmek için bir test aracına başvurulmuştur. Veri toplama yöntemi olarak, katılımcıların belirli bir komut istemine yanıt verdiği bir anketi olan Söylem Tamamlama Testi (STT) kullanılmıştır. Bu test katılımcılara beş istek durumu, beş konuşmaya giriş durumu, üç davet durumu, beş özür durumu, biri patik iletişim durumu ve bir bilgi isteme durumu olmak üzere yirmi söz edimi durumu vermek üzere tasarlanmıştır. Ayrıca, bulguları anadili İngilizce olan kişilerle ve konuşma edimlerinin teorik çerçevesiyle karşılaştırarak, iki grubun İngilizceye nispeten yetkin olduğu ortaya çıkarıldı. Bununla birlikte, kültürel kalıpları ve sosyal faktörleri nedeniyle toplumdilbilimsel kalıplarda bazı sapmalar da bulunmuştur.

Bu sonuç, iki kültürün ana dilini konuşanlar ile anadili olmayan konuşmacılar arasındaki farklılıkların bir neticesi olarak yorumlanabilir.

Anahtar terimler: iletişimsel yeterlilik, kültürel kalıplar, sosyal faktörler, söz edimler

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CC: Communicative Competence

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

TL: Target Language

FL: Foreign Language

EFL: English Foreign Language

DCT: Discourse Completion Task

ESL: English Second Language

NT: Native Language

CAH: Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

CA: Contrastive Analysis

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

EL: Elicited Imitation

ELT: English Language Teaching

S: Situation

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Since Chomsky's big bang in the study of human language, the field has been in turmoil about what makes up language competence. Whereas Chomsky restricted the coverage of the term to the native speaker's knowledge of the formal system of his native language, Hymes 1972, came with developing a valuable model of components of linguistic interaction, and in his adopted view, being competent in one language needs not only to learn the linguistic forms, but also the context in which words are used. Hymes introduced the term communicative competence while Canale, Michael, and Swain (1980), came with identification what they considered the components of communicative competence.

However, knowing what to say does not suffice to make effective communication. And many other factors are at play here, for instance, when, where, to whom, and even how to say. Here the social rules and cultural traditions play crucial roles in deciding what to say. A simple example in this respect is greeting. In English, for instance, to greet someone from midday on until sunset one uses "good afternoon" whereas from sunset and on "good evening" is used.

In Turkish and Iraqi Arabic, however, only one greeting is used to cover all this period which can be said to be the translation of the English "good evening". Whereas "good evening" is a greeting in English, "good night" is leave-taking which is very confusing to Arabic-speaking learners, Iraqi-Arabic does not have the element of evening or night. Thus, Canale and Swain (1980 and 1983) decided that communicative competence is actually an amalgam of four competencies:

1. Grammatical competence which, to us, is the backbone of all competencies, or the stem from which they grow,
2. Sociolinguistic competence which involves culture and traditions,
3. Strategic competence which has to do with the ability to select the best option from the available choices, and
4. Discourse competence which is the ability to be cohesive and coherent.

These, of course, have been implied in Dell Hymes's model of the communication event which consisted of sixteen components compressed in his well-known eight-letter acronym SPEAKING where the letters stand for the following:

S= Situation

P= Participants

E= Ends

A= Act sequence

K= Key

I= Instrumentalities

N= Norms, and

G= Genres.

Thus, according to Riyaz and Tripathi (2016: 67) "being able to speak one's native language error-free in terms of grammar does not imply that one is competent in the language, but it should also be noted that having a good grasp of the social norms is equally important, if not more important as well".

Now, if this is true for a native speaker of the language, how about a learner of foreign language or second language? Does knowing only a linguistic form achieve the aim of communicative competence or the combination of the four components of CC? Is language a biological or social phenomenon? All these questions will be tackled

according to theoretical and experimental procedures that researchers dig out.

1.2. Aims of the Research

Until the last three decades of the previous century, grammatical competence was the main focus of second and foreign language teaching. However, with the emergence of functional approaches to language analysis and language learning, attention began to be paid to the social and pragmatic aspects of the language-teaching process and focus shifted onto notional and functional aspects of the language and use rather than usage began to be emphasized. The roles of such things as social norms, cultural heritage, role-play have occupied much of the space used to be solely occupied by grammar and semantics. Thus, it remains to be seen that:

1. Whether Turkish-speaking and Iraqi-Arabic-speaking learners of English as a foreign language are competent speakers in the use of speech acts behavior of the target language or not,
2. Whether any of the two groups perform better than the other in a certain use of speech acts, and
3. Whether one of the two groups or both as nonnatives will diverge the rules of use speech acts of the target language in the production tasks.

1.3. Research Question Hypotheses

In order to achieve the aims stated above, the following hypotheses are poised:

1. Turkish-speaking and Iraqi-Arabic-speaking learners of English as a foreign language are communicatively competent in the areas under investigation, and
2. Turkish-speaking learners are significantly more competent than their Iraqi-Arabic speaking counterpart.
3. Some deviations might be occurred in one or two groups in the production tasks of the target language.

1.4. Limitations of the Study Scope

The research is restricted to a sample of the population in the fourth-year level university students at İstanbul Sabahattin Zaim Üniversitesi in Halkalı, Istanbul and University of Babylon in Hillah, Iraq, the number of participants is 62 in total, 30 Turkish-speaking learners and 30 Iraqi- Arabic learners and two American natives. The inclusion of two native American speakers was meant to be a third group of subjects. With both the researcher and supervisor being nonnative speakers of the target language under investigation, the need arises for a model for making decisions about the acceptability of the subjects' responses. Thus, they are meant to be as a yardstick to check the accuracy of our decision. To this end, their inclusion as participants is not an aim of the research and contrasting the performance of nonnatives rather it serves as a model for a reliable study.

1.5. Research Methods

According to Corder (1971, 1981), in order for a researcher to have a full picture of the learner's language, the researcher should make use of two types of data, 'textual data' that is related to the observational level of adequacy and 'intuitional data' which is related to the descriptive level of adequacy. The former is obtainable through production tasks whereas the latter is obtained from spontaneous speech and a production task. An alternative to spontaneous speech as suggested by Corder is a recognition task in which the learner is asked to judge whether a statement is right or wrong. Thus, we will tackle all these tasks in the following papers for the sake of the importance that all researchers should have a full knowledge about them. Consequently, the elicitation technique that is going to be employed in this research is a production task in which the learner is provided with situations and asked how the learner would act in each.

1.6. Significance of the Research

The results of the research will hopefully be significant to all in the learning-teaching process in the two countries. It will help the learners to show them how competent they are in language aspects other than the grammar. It will also be important for the teachers in showing how successful they have been in their job. And it will be of great importance to the materials writers in identifying points of strength and weaknesses in their materials.

1.7. Survey of the Literature

In the survey of the literature regarding communicative competence and use of speech acts the works that have to do with the topic will be surveyed starting with Dell Hymes's works, Canale, Michael and Swain (1980) works up to Riyaz and Tipathi (2016). Brown and Levinson (1987) politeness theory will be discussed together with much of the related works by S R Wilson (1991), H Feng (2015), R K Abdulmajeed (2009), Yule (2003), and S Kiyama (2012).

In the methodology of the research Corder's works regarding the nature of the learner's language and the elicitation of Interlanguage will form the foundation of the research. Wray and Bloomer's (2006) *Projects in Linguistics* will form the guide to the application of the research tools and the writing of the thesis.

1.8. Lexical Meaning of Communicative Competence

Starting with communicative competence concept, one should cover the lexical meaning of the term. In Marriam dictionary the term 'Competence' has been defined as "the quality of being competent: such as the quality or state of having sufficient knowledge, the knowledge that enables a person to speak and understand". Following that David Crystal (2008: 29) explains 'Competence' as:

A term used in linguistic theory, and especially in GENERATIVE GRAMMAR, to

refer to speaker's knowledge of their language, the SYSTEM of RULES which they have mastered so that they are able to produce and understand an indefinite number of SENTENCES, and to recognize grammatical mistakes and AMBIGUITIES.

Furthermore, Crystal (2008: 90) illustrates that the phrase 'Communicative Competence' is often used in precise sense "a distinction being made between the NATIVE SPEAKER awareness of the FORMAL patterning of their language, on the one hand, 'their linguistic competence', and of the situational APPROPRIATENESS of their language, on the other hand". (Crystal, 2006: *ibid*) points out "competence is defined in terms of the expression, interpretation, and negotiation of meaning and looks to both psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics perspectives in second language acquisition (SLA) research to account for its development" (Sauvignon 1972,1997)

1.9. A Review of the Four Components of Communicative Competence

As we noted before, communicative competence [CC henceforth] has the most controversial term in the field of general and applied linguistic. Many linguists including Dell Hymes (1972), Canale, Michael, and Swain (1980), Widdowson (1983), Bachman (1983), Sauvignon (1997), Campbell and Wales (1970), Widdowson and Mauby (1978) whose contributions reinforced the notion of CC. Moreover, Canale, Michael, and Swain, (1980) classified the CC into three competences: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence. After that Swain (1983) added the fourth one which is discourse competence.

1.9.1. Grammatical Competence

In this term, Canal and Swain (1980) as well as Hymes (1972) did not reject Chomskyan's notion of linguistic competence, though they regarded it as an essential aspect in language process. Thus, Stageberg (1981) states that English grammar consists of three levels of structures: phonology, morphology and syntax. All of them

work together to formalize the descriptive structural grammar. Stageberg (1981: 5) himself explains that “language itself is oral- it lives on the lips and in the ears of users and writing is a visual symbolization of language itself”. Hence, it is important to bear in mind that a descriptive structural grammar of English process goes around three levels: the first or lowest one deals with the system of speech sounds which is phonology, the next is concerned with the word and their meaningful part which is the realm of morphology, and the top or last one that deals with arranging the words to form well-formed sentence is syntax. Liles (1971: 45) elucidates that the central component of transformation grammar is syntax, followed by semantic and phonology. And he expresses that instead of using competence, grammatical and ungrammatical can be substituted and for performance ‘acceptable and unacceptable’ are used. As follows, McIntosh (1963: 243) comes to an agreement with Hymes, Canale and Swain in believing that “a grammatically correct sentence is not necessarily grammatically correct in a particular context”. And he emphasized on the importance of lexis more than of grammar, and in his interpretation of the term grammar “is only part of the whole business” (ibid). Brown and Miller (1980) state that grammar is only one part of a language, and as language being regarded as the foundation for the regulation of every community, so it should be accounted to many factors necessary in a detailed description of communication by language.

1.9.2. Sociolinguistic Competence

In sociolinguistic competence, a thorough study will be diverged since it deals with speech community in many important principles of linguistic and social behavior. Thus, the term was introduced primarily by Hymes (1972) as a reaction to linguistic competence (Chomskyan’s notion), to this point Saleh (2013) claims that having linguistic competence is not enough for achieving communication process, what is

important is the good understanding of sociolinguistic components and social cultural aspect of the language. Thus, sociolinguistic competence refers to the ability of language users to understand and produce language in different social context. Herk (2012: 11) states that sociolinguistic competence is empiricist and it required knowledge of sensory experience “everyday speech is for more structural than people think”.

1.9.3. Discourse Competence

This term is cited by Swain (1983) to be the third components of CC concept. Though Chomsky was interested in a narrow view of language study (Micro-linguistics), he focused on the ‘code’ which is related to the universal and particular properties of human languages and as the attention has shifted from ‘code’ to the ‘process’ (Macro-linguistics) the aim becomes on the context in which language is used, how the speaker be able to combine sentences to express complex thought and ideas into larger linguistic units (Farrokhpey, 1977: 316). Discourse analysis “is typically concerned with the study of language in text and conversation” (Yule, 2010: 67), and he suggested that the two concepts of ‘cohesion’ and ‘cohesive’ are the core of discourse competence.

1.9.4. Strategic Competence

Strategic competence has been regarded as the other hand of the learner to solve problems in breakdown communication and it has been regarded as a repairer of communication in text and conversation, thus it comes to fix the damage in communication or misunderstanding. Jeremy Koay (1988) states that communication breakdown needs a repair strategy since an excellent linguistic competence may not be sufficient to have an effective communication process. Dörnyei and Thrall (1995) shed light on the importance of strategic competence in that it was mostly neglected by language course books and teachers and they emphasized that it should take its place. As a result, communicative competence with

its component of strategic competence helps learners to communicate effectively and aids them to be risk-takers and successful language users. To this end, applied linguists emphasized that teachers should focus on this concept, they provided a series of teaching tasks used to facilitated the development of this issue, they also provided them with various types of strategic competence for achieving a successful communication process, some of these types including paraphrasing, approximation, non- linguistic means, borrowed or invented words-fillers and going off the point.



CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1. The Learner's Language

2.1.1. An Overview

It is a little over half a century since Corder (1967) revolutionized the field of applied linguistics by directing the movement towards the necessity of studying the language learner's language as a language variety of its own. He called it first transitional competence (1967) laying emphasis on the instability of the language. Consequently, he frequently called it the learner's "tat de dialect" (1971:28). In 1973 he called it idiosyncratic dialect to emphasize the uniqueness of this variety and that every learner has his unique variety which means a certain language being learned.

So far, we have as many idiosyncratic dialects of that language as there are many learners. However, in the same paper (1973), Corder puts forward the name "transitional dialect" as a better alternative to Slinker's (1972) "Interlanguage"- "emphasizing the unstable nature of this dialect". In 1977, Corder gave the language learner's language the name of Interlanguage continual focusing on the nature of this variety to develop in complexity as it approximates to target language.

However, Corder remained dissatisfied with the term used to name the language learner's language (1976 personal communication with Al-Jumaily) until he finally (1978) decides to name it as what it actually is "the language learner's language" the name that has been adopted by subsequent scholars such as Lightbown and Spada (1993) and C. James (1990). Prior to that Slinker (1972) had called it interlanguage adopting the term interlanguage used by Weinreich (1953) as "that has a structurally intermediate status between the native and the target language" (Brown, 2000: 215). Nemser (1971) and Sampson (1978) preferred the name 'approximative systems'

to emphasize “the developmental natures of language as the learner’s system is continually being modified as new elements are incorporated throughout the learning process” (Al- Jumaily, 1982: 27). Sampson (ibid: 442) highlighted another dimension of the model namely that: The Approximative Systems Model, which incorporates both functional and linguistic approaches to language learning, not only describes second language learning data, but also, in contrast to the other two models [Interlanguage and creative construction], explains why learners progress as they do.

James (1980), before adopting Corder’s learner’s language used the term Interlanguage whereas Lightbown and Spada (1993) preferred to call it learner language. A compact definition of Interlanguage is provided by Yule (2006: 244) namely that it is “the interim system of L2 learners, which has some features of L1 and L2 plus some that are independent of the L1 and the L2.”

2.1.2. Characteristics of Interlanguage

When Selinker (1972) coined the term Interlanguage what he “had in mind is that the Interlanguage system is in a sense intermediate between L1 and L2.” (VanEls et al, 1984: 69). They reiterate Corder’s (1978) point of view that “the concept of Interlanguage should be used in a noncommittal sense as to the nature of the continuum, and L2 development should envisage as a movement through a series of increasingly complex stages” (ibid).

The term might be misleading as some may envisage the learner’s language as a language somewhere between L1 and L2. Actually, as the definition above indicates and Figure (1) below illustrates, it is a language that comprises features of L1 and features L2 as well as features that belong to neither L1 nor L2.

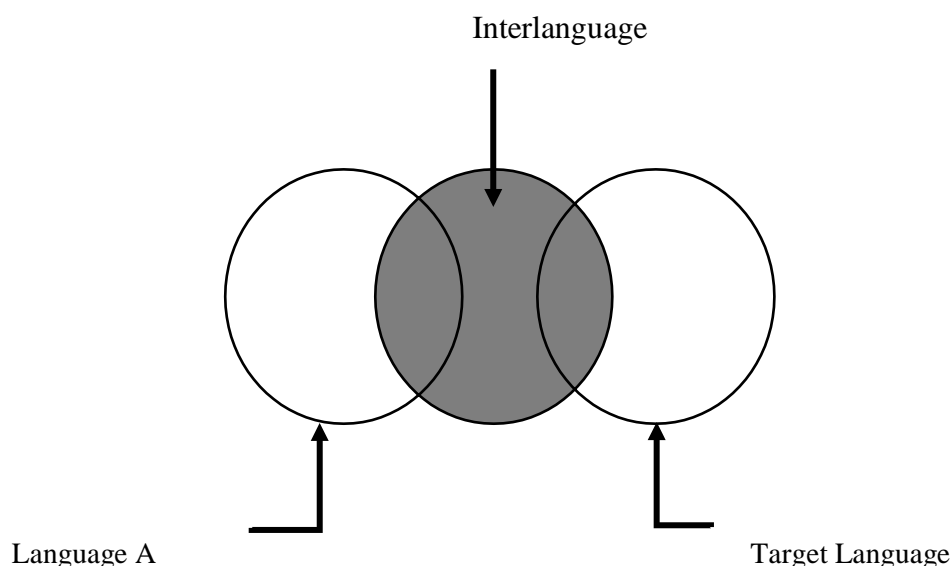


Figure 2.1. The Features of Interlanguage Corder (1973: 17)

Thus, Selinker (1972:209) states that the main characteristic of Interlanguage is that it is systematic, i.e., “governed by rules which constitute the learner’s internal grammar”. This system is idiosyncratic, i.e., each and every learner has his own system which is in some way or another different from all other learners’ systems.

Hence, Corder (1973: 18) suggests that it is “misleading to refer to idiosyncratic sentences of *the language learner as deviant*”. He also suggests “that it is undesirable to call them *erroneous* as it is to call the sentences of a child erroneous because it implies willful or inadvertent breach of rules which, in some sense, ought to be known” (ibid). Neither the child nor the language learner is yet a speaker of the social dialect involved.

The second main characteristic is that it is dynamic, i.e., it “changes frequently or in the state of flux, resulting in a succession of interim grammar” (ibid). It is “dynamic and preamble” as suggested by Alene Seelen (asking lot. com.characteristics-of-Interlanguage), meaning that “it serves as a bridge between L1 and L2 when learners lack knowledge and fine mastery of rules”.

This dynamicity is referred to by Corder (1977: 90) as being “a good oriented language system of increasing complexity” and by Nemser (1971) as an approximative system.

Corder (1975: 410) goes so far as to state:

That the learner is a “native speaker” of his peculiar language. In fact, he is probably the native speaker of it, through his language may share interesting properties with that of other people who share interesting properties with that of other people who are learning the same target language, particularly if they have the same language background as he has.

Up to this point, explaining the instability of the learner’s Interlanguage, Corder calls it “as a sort of hypothesis. It is hypothesis which he ...has creatively developed as a result of interaction with linguistic data of the language which he is learning” (ibid). The validity of the hypothesis the learner makes is judged by the teacher or other speakers about the “utterances which are generated by his peculiar Interlanguage grammar at a particular moment” (ibid).

2.1.3. The Elicitation of Interlanguage

“To elicit is to succeed in getting information or a reaction from someone, especially when this is difficult” (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English 2003: S.V. elicit). In the field of linguistics “elicitation is a technique familiar to the linguist working with native speaking informants and takes two forms: getting the informant to produce data of any sort or to produce data incorporating particular features which the linguist is interested in at the moment” (Corder, 1976: 69). The former method of investigation is called ‘clinical’ whereas the latter is called ‘experimental’ (Corder: ibid).

Thus, the clinical method “is used where the investigator has not yet any well-formed hypothesis about the nature of the language he is investigating and merely requires raw

data on which to make a start” (ibid). The experimental method, which is a ‘closely controlled procedure’ is used where “the linguist already has some preliminary hypothesis about the nature of the language he is describing and wishes to test it” (ibid).

Error Analysis is one of the techniques that falls under the canopy of the clinical type and which is “performed on any data elicited from the learner in, or outside, the classroom. The result of this analysis is utilized to generate hypotheses that are to be tested by means of the experimental method” (ibid). An elicitation procedure in general is “any procedure which causes a learner to make a judgment about the grammatical acceptability of a form or provokes him into generating a linguistics response” (Corder, 1973: 61).

In order for the “elicitation procedures to elicit the information sought by the investigator, the latter must have some prior hypothesis about the possible nature of the learner’s Interlanguage as a guide, otherwise he will simply be ‘shooting in the dark’ ” (ibid: 61f).

In order to be able to draw a full picture of the learner’s language, the researcher like any linguist attempting to describe a language not previously known, “makes use of two sorts of data, “*textual data*” which is related to the observation level of adequacy and “intuitional data” which is related to “the intuitional level of adequacy” (Corder, 1973: 59).

In other words, textual data gives us insight into the contents of the learner’s productive knowledge whereas intuitional data reveal the receptive knowledge of the learner. This is necessary because as Brown (2000: 33) puts it “most observational and research evidence points to the general superiority of comprehension over production: children seem to understand “more” than they actually produce”. This is so because there are

some features in the learner's mind that are sort of 'half-cooked', i.e., not yet internalized enough to be produced.

The learners are not confident enough of their adequacy to produce them. Bialystok (1979) calls these two types of knowledge as explicit knowledge and implicit knowledge respectively. Explicit knowledge according to Ellis (2004: 229) is the "knowledge of language about which users are consciously aware", whereas implicit knowledge as Bialystok sees it (1979: 82) is the knowledge used "without attention to the role or even the ability to state it."

The sections below deal with the procedures used for the elicitation of the language learner's language.

2.1.4. Procedures for the Elicitation of Interlanguage

"An elicitation procedure is any procedure which causes a learner to make a judgment about the grammatical acceptability of a form or provokes him into generating a linguistic response" (Al- Jumaily, 1982: 13 and Corder 1973: 61). One of the essential characteristics of such techniques is that they should not make it possible for the learner to *avoid* the structure being investigated "due to the fact that he is not sure of it or he does not feel like using it" (Al-Jumaily: *ibid*). Another important characteristic is that "they have to force the learner to produce enough instances for the structure to provide evidence for the research" (*ibid*).

Chaudron (2003:766ff) suggests two types of data collection procedures: naturalistic procedures and elicited production procedures. In the former, the researcher adopts the techniques used in the study of L1 acquisition, namely "observation of children's language use in play and normal with parents and others". Such studies include Leopold (1939) and Raven (1968, 1970) Chaudron (*ibid*) adds to these what he calls "well-known early SLA research" by Hakuta (1974, 1976) and Huang and Hatch

(1978).

Chaudron (2003: 772) describes elicited production procedures as techniques “that are designed to elicit learners’ productive language performance in a more concentrated and focused fashion, by providing some initial verbal or physical context selected by the researcher”. Under this heading Chaudron lists two types of procedure: structured interviews intending to elicit particular target forms, or topics, and communication tasks “with greater or lesser attention to meaning vs. form” (ibid).

A number of such tasks are suggested by Chaudron (ibid) such as “role plays, picture descriptions, and instruction giving, story- telling, discourse completion, stimulated recall, and other structure questionnaires and combinations of these” (ibid). Moreover, any investigator who deals with cross culture pragmatic study should have a comprehensive knowledge about the techniques for the elicitation of the two types of data mentioned above, thus, for this reason we are going to discuss the selected techniques for the elicitation in the following section.

2.1.4.1. Techniques for Eliciting Productive Knowledge

2.1.4.1.1. Direct Translation

Translating directly from L1 to L2 is a technique recommended by Corder (1973), Al-Jumaily (1982: 74f) lists four advantages of this method:

1. This technique “forces the subject to attempt to produce the target language structure”. Thus, the subject is put into a position where he has “to form a structure which he has not completely mastered” which enables the researcher to “gain insight into how the subject understands the language to operate and how he organizes new syntactic constructions in his Interlanguage” (Al-Jumaily, ibid: 74, see also Taylor 1975).
2. “The researcher is sure that the learner understands the semantics of the structure

he is required to produce” (Al-Jumaily: *ibid*).

3. The approach has proved useful “for diverting the ‘informants’ focus of interest from the object of the test and indeed in disguising this object” (*ibid*: 175 see also Quirk and Svartvik, 1966).
4. From a statistical perspective the approach is advantageous in that it enables the researcher to “zero on specifics syntactic rules which he would like to test”. This is so because “the investigator controls the number of obligatory occasions of the errors” (*ibid*. see also LoCoco 1974).

One of the supposed disadvantages of a translation task as Tylor (1975) reports is that it “loads a study in favor of transfer and interference” (Al-Jumaily, 1982: 75). However, empirical evidence provided by Tylor (1975) and Al-Jumaily (1982) is strong enough to establish “the power of overgeneralization over the transfer strategy to merit its use”. Another disadvantage of a procedure of this type is that of the untranslatability of structures and lexical items that have no equivalent in either the source language (SL henceforth), or the target language (TL henceforth). In this respect of these structures are the English progressive and perfective forms of the verb. Such shortcoming is not enough to belittle “the usefulness of this task for tapping the learners’ production grammar and explicit or other knowledge” (Al Jumaily, 1982: 76).

2.1.4.1.2. Recognition and Correction

In this task “the subject is given a sentence where there is a violation of a target language rule and asked to judge whether he finds it grammatically acceptable (right) or (wrong). If the sentence is wrong, the subject is asked to give what he thinks to be the correct version”. (Al-Jumaily 1982:77. See also Corder 1973: 61f). The selection of the “non-target-like structure is assumed to be based on information about the learner’s Interlanguage and on the learner’s mother tongue where the structure is

different from that of the L2. The merit of such a technique is that “the researcher not only gives the subject a chance to recognize his own ‘language’ but also leaves the door open for him to expose any aspect of his Interlanguage” (Al-Jumaily 1982: 77).

2.1.4.1.3. Discourse Completion Tests (DCTs)

Chaudron (2003: 780) suggests “role plays and discourse completion tests [DCT henceforth] as techniques which have been used predominantly in L1 research to elicit data on pragmatic abilities in verity of speech acts”. He cites the following works as examples of such research: “Blum-Kulka, Juliane House, and Gabriele Kasper (1989), Thom Hudson, Detmer, and Brown (1995), who provided a model for development of DCTs, and Kasper and Dahl (1991), who provided extensive views of research methodologies in L2 pragmatics” (ibid).

This instrument was originally developed by Blum-kulka (1982) for comparing the “speech act realization of native and non- native Hebrew speakers” (Blum-Kulka, et al., 1989: 13). Blum- kulka (ibid: 14) offers the following two examples for the elicitation of a request and an apology respectively.

“a. 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 weeks.”

“b. at the college teacher’s office.

A student has borrowed a book from her teacher, which she promised to return today.

When meeting her teacher, however, she realizes that she forgot to bring it along.

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

Miriam: _____

Teacher: OK, but please remember it next week.

2.1.4.1.4. Elicitation of Intuitional Data

As mentioned above the technique that has been used in collecting spontaneous speech is direct observation. This technique raises serious problems for the researcher. The most important are these two as outlined by AL-Jumaily (1982: 78):

- a. It is necessary “to collect a great deal of data, much of which is redundant, without even getting enough instances of the structure under investigation through the subject’s employment of different risk -avoiding strategies” such as avoidance and circumlocution.
- b. The researcher has to describe “an infinite amount of speech and still reflecting only part of speaker’s competence to comprehend the language exceeds his ability to speak it” (ibid see also Swain, et al., 1974 in this respect).

Thus, it is necessary for the researcher to obtain spontaneous data “while at the same time control the subject’s input” (ibid). Elicited imitation (EI) makes the best of fit here since as Gaillard (2014: 38) maintains that EI “employs two formats depending on the data collection goals”, the first of which is a naturalistic design format “in which test takers (mostly children) immediately repeat a preceding utterance spoken by another speaker in a natural setting without receiving specific instruction” (ibid). The second type “test takers are requested to repeat model sentences constructed to test specific structure, such as grammar, vocabulary, and syntax depending on the research focus.” (ibid). Naiman (1974) as reported in Al –Jumaily (1982: 78) points out that the fundamental claim of an individual elicited imitation is that “in order to imitate accurately a syntactic structure embedded in a supra-memory span sentence, he must first decode (interpret) the sentence”.

In order for the learner not to parrot-like repeat a sentence, the sentence has to be a little longer than his short-term memory span. Although Miller (1967) specifies this

span to be seven items plus minus two, he fails to specify what he means by item. Clark and Clark (1977) suggest that “six- word sentences with three major constituents should fall within the span”. Al-Jumaily (1982) successfully applied EI using the number of syllables as a measure of sentence length. Park, et al. (2020: 147) empirically proved that the impact of memory capacity on EIT performance tends to decrease as L2 experience will increase.

2.2. Approaches to Language Learning Theory

For comprehensive coverage and for the importance of understanding the study of human growth development of second language along with the basic principles and models of second language acquisition we had sought to extent the study beyond its limitations. Starting with tackling the different approaches to the learning of language with initially those of first language acquisition are going to be briefly introduced because they are the roots from approaches to second and foreign language learning stem. Buitrago (n.d. internet) suggests four fundamental theories of language learning:

1. Behaviorist
2. Mental (innatism)
3. Rational (cognitive)
4. Interactional

He points out that the first two “are mainly applicable to acquisition of native languages while the rest can accord for foreign languages acquisition”. Stern (1983: 30), however, maintains that there is a dialectical relationship between these four theories, i.e., to use his own words they “cannot be divorced from each other, because the objectives of second language learning are not necessarily entirely determined by native language competence inevitably serves as a foil against which to set second language learning”. Brown (2000: 21ff) implicitly agrees with Stern in adding what he calls Functional

Approaches to the Behaviorist and Naturist (Buitrago's rational) approaches to language learning. In this research, Brown's model is to be adopted with the first two approaches scantily discussed and the third one focused upon since it is the one directly related to the current research.

2.2.1. Approaches to First Language Learning

As just mentioned above, three approaches are going to be dealt with in this section. The discussion will be restricted to the identification of these approaches leaving the full picture to be provided in the next section which handles these approaches from a second or foreign language perspective.

2.2.1.1. The Behaviorist Approach

In a behaviorist or connectionist theory learning a language is a behavior similar to any other behavior of human beings and animals. In this theory it is believed that "infants learn oral language from other human role models through a process involving imitation, rewards, and practice. Human role models in an infant's environment provide stimuli and rewards" (Cooter and Reutzel, 2004). In other words, behavior takes place as follows: "a connection is established between a stimulus or stimulus situation (S) and organism's response (R) to this stimulus" (VanEls, et al., 1984: 26). The principles tenet of behaviorism represents an extreme position on a continuum of opposites namely: "that children come into the world with a *tabula rasa*, a clean slate bearing no preconceived notions about the world or about language, and that these children are shaped by their environment and slowly conditioned through schedules of reinforcement" (Brown, 2000: 22).

Reinforcement may be either positive (Reward) or negative (Punishment) even though the term "is often used exclusively in the sense of positive reinforcement" (VanEls, et al., 1984: 27), positive reinforcement could be taken as "increase the possibility of

occurrence of a response to a stimulus as a result of the fact that this response, being correct, is rewarded” (ibid). Thus, the response is adopted and becomes one in the system of response of the learner. If the reinforcement is negative, it may be conceived that the probability of occurrence of the response should be decreased “as a result of the fact that this response, being wrong, is punished” (ibid: 27).

2.2.1.2. The Innatist Approach

The innatist approach (Brown, 2000), mentalist (VanEls, et al., 1984) has its roots in the Chomskyan ideology in the second half of the last century. Since the publication of his *Syntactic Structures* in 1957 the field of language learning has been in turmoil about how language is acquired and /or learned. Rejecting the behaviorists’ claim “that language is learned by imitating, memorizing, and being rewarded for saying the correct things” (Dulay, et al., 1982: 6) and that “these processes do have some role in language learning”. (ibid), Chomsky maintains that “the central force guiding language acquisition is a language-specific mental structure or language acquisition device [LAD]” (ibid). This “biologically endowed innate language faculty (or language acquisition program” (Radford, et al., 2009: 7) makes it possible for the child “to make hypotheses about the structure of language in general, and the structure of the language it is learning in particular” (VanEls, et al., 1984: 28).

In other words, “the principles of the language acquisition device govern all human languages, and determine what possible form human language may take” (Dulay, et al., 1982: 6) (cf Chomsky, 1957, ch.1). This means that the child is born with the ability to learn any language it is exposed to irrespective of its ‘parents’ native language. Thus, if a child is born in China to Arabic speaking parents and left there immediately after birth, the child will eventually speak Chinese and not Arabic. Consequently, language acquisition in this approach is seen “to be an interaction

between the child's innate mental structure and the language environment" (Dulay, et al., 1982: 2).

2.2.1.2.1. Competence

We thought that it is necessary to start with competence before tackling the rest of the approaches since the discussion has been in the midst of first (behaviorist and innatist) and second (rational and functional) approaches. Competence is defined by Chomsky (1965) as the ideal native-speaker-hearer's knowledge of his own native language. Similar to de Saussure's *langue*, it is virtually non-existent since *langue* exists in the collective mind of the speech community and Chomsky "likened competence to an idealized [native] speaker-hearer who does not display such performance variables as memory limitation, distractions, shifts of attentions and interest, errors, and hesitation phenomenon, such as repeats, false starts, pauses, omissions and additions" (Brown, 2000: 31). Richard Nordquist (2019) explained that linguistic competence or grammatical competence is known as "the unconscious knowledge of grammar that allows a speaker to use and understand a language".

Almost similar to de Saussure (1916, 1954), who postulated the dichotomy of *langue* "a system of rules, meaning and structures that are the products of the human ability to create language and are shared by members of "a speech community" and *parole* which is "often equated with speech" (literariness.org/*langue* and *parole*), Chomsky distinguishes *competence* and *performance* where the former is "an idealized capacity that is located as a psychological or mental property or function", whereas the latter represents "the production of actual utterances" (Bilash, 2011: 32). Thus, *langue* is a social phenomenon located in the collective mind of the whole speech community, competence is a psychological property located in the mind of the ideal speaker-hearer of his native language.

2.2.1.3. Functional Approaches

In spite of the fact that Buitrago (n.d interent) above restricts the applicability to first language acquisition to the behaviorist and the mentalist approaches. Brown (2000) includes functional approaches to those applicable to this type of study. Since the nineteen seventies when the results of research have made, it's "quite clear that language functioning extends well beyond cognitive thought and memory structure" (Brown, 2000: 29).

The general conviction of communicative competence, i.e., performance plus social and pragmatic aspects of language are to be emphasized and not only Chomskyan linguistic competence. This gave rise to various models, one of which is Holzman's (1984) *reciprocal model* in which she maintains that "a reciprocal behavior system operates between the language developing infant-child and the competent [adult] language user in a socializing- teaching nurturing role" (p: 119). This means that an infant-child is placed in a closed room with only a television set turned on twenty-four hours a day the child will end up with no language to speak.

Further research by Berko-Gleason (1987) and Lock (1991) tackled "the interaction between the child's language acquisition and the learning of how social systems operate in human behavior" (Brown, 2000: 29). All in all, what is of interest to researchers here is the performance aspect of the language. According to Erwin (2001: 11f) a functional approach to language makes the following assumptions:

1. "Language is a social process". This means that any piece of language irrespective of the medium "serves a social function or has a social component". According to Van Herk (2012: 11) socio-linguistically speaking *language* means "language as it is actually used".
2. "Language is a system of choice, a resource for making meaning" Erwin (2001:

2). Context as well as the purpose for saying determines the choice. There are “factors that govern our choice of language in social interaction and the effects of our choice on others” (Crystal, 2006: 276).

3. “The word text refers to any organized pattern of meaning”. (Erwin: *ibid*)

4. “Spoken texts are just as complex as written texts.” (*ibid*).

5. “Any text created will be a product of its culture and its situation” (*ibid*). “Culture is what determines the *interpretations of the meaning* of other people’s behavior since it consists of not only things, people, behavior and emotion, but of an organization of these things” (Sheehan, 2016: 17, See also Good enough, 1964).

6. “The context in which language is used will determine its appropriateness.” (Erwin, 2001: 2). According to Nooruddin (2015: 13) “meaning and context are interdependent, i.e., meaning cannot be communicated without context, and context cannot be established without meaning”. Williams (2004: 7) claims that “meaning is thoroughly contextual”.

“Our language changes overtime and is changed by the way we use it” (Ewing, 2001: 2).

The sociolinguistic approach as well as the other approaches under this canopy “is empiricist-we only trust evidence that we find there in the real world” (Van Herk, 2012: 11).

The social interactionist approach “assumes that language acquisition is influenced by the interaction of a number of factors-physical, linguistic, cognitive, and social” (Cooter and Reutzel, 2004: 2). Figure (2.2) below sums up the information about the three approaches discussed above.

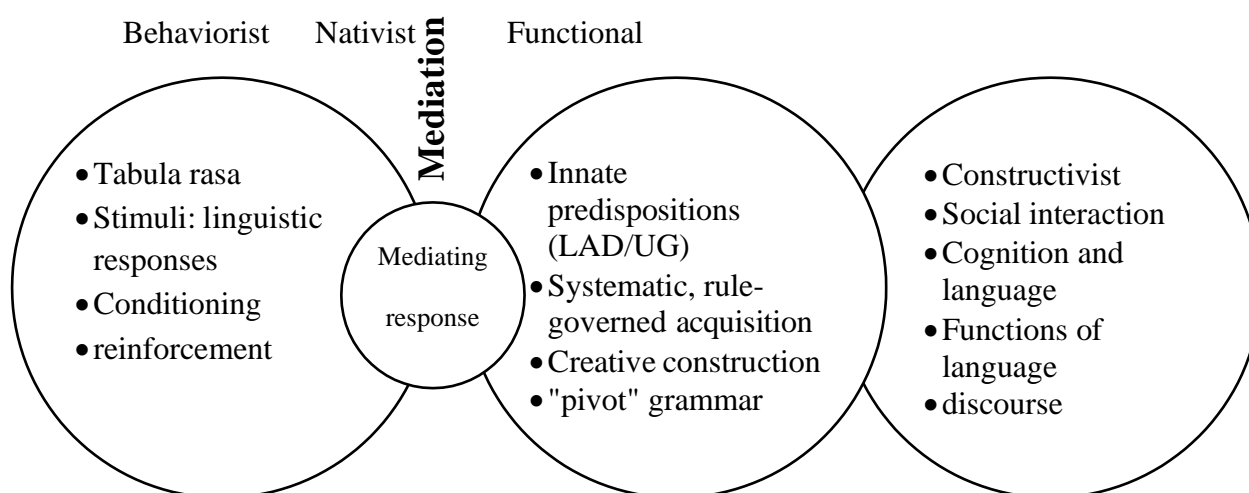


Figure 2.2 Theories of first language acquisition (Brown, 2000: 3)

2.2.1.3.1. Communicative Competence

Chomsky's concept of competence came under fire from the very first days of its emergence. The notion that linguistic knowledge of the native speaker is restricted to the ideal speaker-hearer knowledge of the system of the language was questioned immediately at birth. For instance, according to Cook (2003: 42) "A person who had only linguistic competence would be quite enable to communicate. They would be a kind of social monster producing grammatical sentences unconnected to the situation in which they occur". Language varies from context to context "not only in the sense that words can be combined together to form an infinite number of sentences or longer discourse, but also systematically, according to a range of factors such as age, sex, the background of the speaker, and the situation or social context where the language is used." (Wray and Bloomer, 2012: 93).

This brings to the mind the case of an Iraqi who, in an attempt to express his condolence to someone who had lost dear one, used expression (ان شاء الله كل سنة وعام) "God will it [This will happen] every year", an expression restricted to use in cases of wedding, festivity, rejoicing, etc.

Linguistically, the expression is faultless, what is wrong is that it used in the wrong context of situation.

Chomsky's theory instigated research into what actually makes up the capacity of the speaker to produce correct language expressions and identify such expression as well as his ability to use them in a proper way in different social contexts. The breakthrough came from the field of anthropology at the hands of the anthropologist Dell Hymes (1971) who introduced what has been known as "communicative competence". Hymes (1971,1972) "defined communicative competence not only as an inherent grammatical competence but also as the ability to use grammatical competence in variety of communicative situations, thus bringing the sociolinguistic perspective into Chomsky's view of competence" (Tuan, 2017: 440).

According to Diaz-Rico and Weed (2010: 58) "communicative competence is a feature of language user's knowledge that allows the user to know when, where, and how to use language appropriately", or more accurately "when to speak, when not, and... what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner" (Hymes, 1972: 277). A communication event in Hymes's conception is made up of sixteen components which he halved into his well-known eight letter acronym SPEAKING of which each letter is to be interpreted as follows:

-S is situation, setting and scene. It "refers to the time and place which is the concrete physical circumstances in which the speech takes place." (Zand-Vakili, et al., 2012: 27ff)

-P represents participants "refers to various combinations of speaker-listener, addressor- addressee, or sender-receiver" (ibid), or as Wood (2018) puts it "those people present in the conversation as well as audiences, bystander, or overhearers." (See also Jones (2012)).

-E is to be taken as ends which denotes "the conventionally recognized and accepted out- comes of an exchange as well as the personal goals that participation seeks to

accomplish on particular occasion” (Zand-Vakili, et al., *ibid*). In a nutshell, Ends refers to “goals, and outcomes of the event which can be different for various participants.” (Wood, 2018: 23).

-**A** represents the act sequence of speech acts that make up the event. “The order of speech acts greatly influences the speech event” (*ibid*).

-**K** stands for key which refers to the cues that, “in the course of social interaction, participants offer each other, as to how interpret the message content” (*ibid*). These include “the tone, manner, or spirit in which a particular message is conveyed” (Zand-Vakili, et al., *ibid*).

-**I** has to do with Instrumentalities, i.e., “choice of channel, such as oral, written, or telegraphic, and the actual form of speech employed, such as the language, dialect, code, or register that is chosen”. This is referred to by Wood (2018: 45) as “the media through which meaning is made such as whispering, shouting, singing or writing a message”.

-**N** is to be labeled as Norms which are “the specific behaviors and properties that attach to the speaking and also to how these may be viewed by someone who does not share them, like loudness, silence, and gaze return and so on” (Zand-Vakili, et al. *ibid*). Wood (2018: 55) calls them “common sets of understanding that participants bring to events about what be appropriate behavior.” and

-**G** which refers to Genre, i.e., “the clearly demarcated types of utterance, such as poems, proverbs, riddles, sermon, prayers, lecture, and editorials” (Zand-Vakili, et al., *ibid*). Wood (2018: 56) puts it in a different way stating that genre here means “the type of speech event, such as conversation, debate, or argument”.

On the basis of the motion of communication strategies proposed by Sauvignon (1972), Canale and Swain (1980) identified it “as *strategic competence* as one of the components in their well-known framework for communicative competence, along

with grammatical competence and sociolinguistic competence” (Sauvignon, 2008: 3, cf see also Canale, 1983). Consequently, Canale and Swain’s (p: 30ff) theory of communicative competence consists of the following components:

1. Grammatical competence which includes “knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence grammar, semantics, and phonology”. It is evident that the sentence of grammar is used here to refer to the discourse from the syntactic perspectives and also indicated in the second component.
2. Sociolinguistic competence which consists of “two sets of rules of use: sociocultural rules of use” which “will specify the ways in which utterances are produced and understood *appropriately* with respect to the components of communicative events” outlined by Hymes (1967,1968, p: 30). According to Canale and Swain (ibid) “the primary focus of attention of these rules is on the extent to which certain propositions and communicative functions are appropriate within a given sociocultural context depending on contextual factors such as topic, role of participants, setting, and norms of interaction” (ibid). The second component of the sociolinguistic component is that of the rules of discourse. Canale and Swain also maintain that to them the focus of these rules in the framework, they are advocating “is on the combination of utterances and communicative function and not on the grammatical well-formedness of a single utterance nor the sociocultural appropriateness of a set of proposition and communicative functions of a given context” (ibid).

Alptekin (2002: 58) takes discourse competence to mean “the ability to deal with the extended use of language in context”. This stand seems to be adopted by Halliday and Hassan’s (1976) on cohesion even though Canale and Swain declare their uncertainty about whether their rules will differ grammatical rules of cohesion and sociocultural

rules ‘with respect to coherence’.

3. Strategic competence, this component is composed of “verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence” (ibid). Moreover, there are two main types: The first one has to do with grammatical competence of which “how to paraphrase grammatical forms that one has not mastered or cannot recall momentarily” is an example (ibid). The second type falls within the realm of sociolinguistic competence of which “various role-playing strategies, how to address strangers when unsure of their social status” (ibid: 31f).

The discussion above lends to the conclusion that a language user must have the skills and attitudes to place an event in context, awareness of own ideological perspective and values and awareness of potential conflict and ability to establish common criteria, and where it is not possible because of incompatible in belief and value system, ability to negotiate agreement on conflict and acceptance of difference.

2.3. Theories and Model of Second Language Learning

As the study will go with the flow, in this section and the sections that follow only a selection of theories and models of second language learning is going to be dealt with. The discussion will extend to involve a model for each of the following approaches: the behaviorists, the innates, the cognition, and the functional. Theories such as the Interlanguage Hypothesis, the Approximative System Hypothesis and the Interlanguage continuum is felt to have been sufficiently dealt with in the section about language learners’ language above.

Before presenting the theories and models it is useful to point out that Richards and Rodgers (2001: 20ff) identify three different “theoretical views of language and the nature of language proficiency” which “explicitly or implicitly inform current

approaches and methods in language teaching”.

The structural view which is the most traditional of the three views “language as a system of structurally related elements for the coding of meaning” (ibid). The task of the language learners is to master the sound and grammatical elements of the system. An offspring of this approach is Audiolingual Method. Other methods include Total Physical Response, and the Silent Way.

1. The functional view sees language as “as a vehicle for expression of functional meaning” (ibid: 21). In this theory the focus is on “the semantic and communicative dimension rather than merely the grammatical characteristics of language” (ibid). This theory gave rise to the communicative movement in the teaching of language.

2. The interactional view envisages language “as a vehicle for the realization of interpersonal relations and for the performance of social transitions between individuals” (ibid). Content – Based Instruction is one examples of methods springing from this approach. Teaching methods related to this approach as Richards and Rodgers (ibid: 22) conclude, have not yet presented a model that has been “described in the same level of detail as those models that have been developed for structural and functional views of language theory”.

2.3.1. The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

The contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH), the strong arm of the Behaviorist Approach to language learning dominated the field of second and foreign language learning through the sixties and early seventies of the last century. The Hypothesis was put forward by Lado (1957) following the general paradigm of behaviorists psychology and the tradition of Charles Fries.

According to Al-Jumaily (1982: 24), the CAH rests on the following assumptions about the process of language learning:

1. Language learning is habit formation.
2. An old habit “that of using one’s [native] language, hinders or facilitates the formation of the new habit”, depending on the differences or similarities, respectively, between the old and the new.

The learning process is presented by Richards and Rodgers (2001: 57) in the following figure:

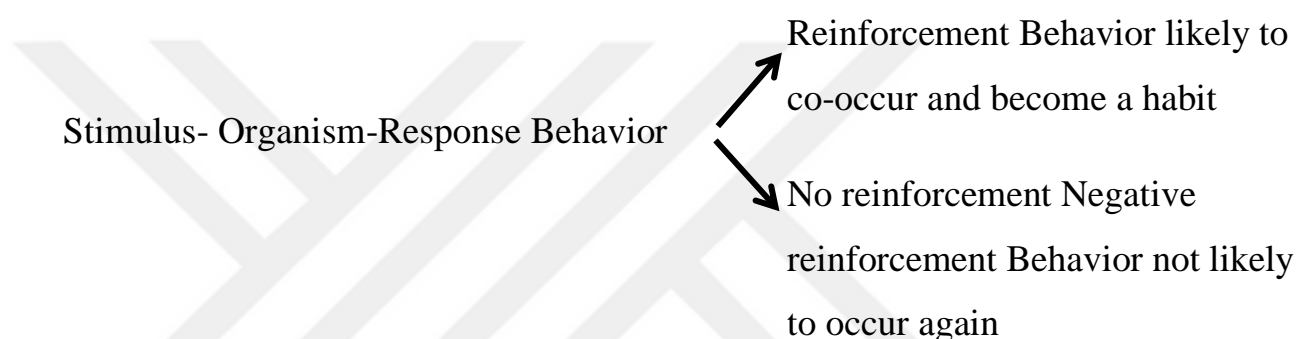


Figure 2.3. Learning in CAH Richards and Rodger (2001: 57)

Van Els, et al. (1984: 38) suggests three ‘fundamental and applied objectives that “have traditionally been attributed to CA [contrastive Analysis]”. These are as follows:

- a. Providing insights into similarities and differences between languages;
- b. Explaining and predicting problems in L2 learning;
- c. Developing course materials for language teaching.”

On the basis of these and on empirical research, Wardhaugh (1970) distinguished between two claims of CA:

- a. “a strong (*apriori*) claim: L2 learning problems can be *predicted* on the basis of linguistic differences between L1 and L2”.
- b. “a weak (*a posteiori*) claim: *some* observed L2 learning problems can be *explained* on the basis of linguistic differences between L1 and L2.” (Van Els, et al., 1984: 50)

The strong claim was challenged on the basis of these two observations: “a. CAs

predict, L2 learning problems which *do not occur*;

“b. CAs turn out not to predict learning problems which *do occur*”. (ibid).

The weak claim on the other hand “is well- protected from empirical falsification, since it is not based on readily fallible assumptions” (ibid.cf also Gas, 1979: 329). Later a moderate claim was assigned to CA by Oller, Jr and Ziahosseing (1970, 2006: 5) namely, “the categorization of abstract and concrete patterns according to their perceived similarities and differences is the basis for learning; therefore, whenever patterns are minimally distinct in form or meaning in one or more systems, confusion may result”.

The practical part of this approach is the audiolingual method was found to be questionable by both psychologists and applied linguists. J. B. Carrol a psychologist who was interested in language teaching maintained that the audio-lingual habit theory should undergo major revision “particularly in the direction of joining it with some of the better elements of the cognitive-code learning theory” (Carrol, 1966: 105). Applied linguists called “the whole audiolingual paradigm...into question. Pattern practice, drilling, memorization ...might lead to language-like behavior, but they were not resulting in competence” (Richarharels and Rodgers, 2001: 66)

2.3.2. The Creative Construction Hypothesis

Rooted in the Innatist or Nativist Approach and the Chomsky tradition and ideology, and based on the results of a series of works known as the Morpheme Order Studies, the Model was first advocated by Dulay and Burt (1974) in their seminal paper “You Can’t Learn without Goofing”. The main tenet of this model, also called L2 acquisition = L1 acquisition, is that in learning a second language learners make use of universal cognitive mechanisms of which reliance on the first language is not a central part. The model was later developed in collaboration with Stephen Krashen. Before introducing

the model, it is necessary to set the foundation on which it is set starting with Krashen's works.

Brown (2000: 277) describes Krashen's works saying "one of the most controversial theoretical perspectives in SLA in the last quarter of the twentieth century was offered by Stephen Krashen (1977, 1981, 1982, 1985, 1992, 1993, 1993, 1997) in a host of articles and books". The model has been given different names: The Monitor Model, the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis, and most recently the Input Hypothesis. The model is made up of five hypotheses. These are scantily but succinctly defined as far as possible. The five main hypotheses of Krashen's theory of second language acquisition are as follows (Schütz, 2019: internet):

1. "The Acquisition-learning hypothesis;
2. The Monitor hypothesis;
3. The Input hypothesis;
4. The Affective Filter hypothesis; and
5. The Natural Order hypothesis."

1. The Acquisition-learning distinction, according to Schütz (ibid) "is the most fundamental in Krashen's theory and most widely known among linguists and language teachers". In this theory Krashen (1981) maintains that "second language learners have two means for internalizing the target language". The first is acquisition which "is a subconscious and intuitive process of learning another language after the basics of the first have been acquired" (Brown 2000: 278 and Dulay, et al., 1984: 10). This process is "very similar to the process children undergo when they acquire their first language" (Schütz, 2019: ibid).

For acquisition to occur in meaningful interaction, action in the target language is

required, i.e., “natural communication in which speakers are concentrated not in the form of their utterances, but in the communicative act”. The second is learning “or what is generally known as ‘formal learning’, is a conscious representation of rules usually in a deductive pedagogically oriented context, (i.e., conscious attention to forms)” (Al-Jumaily, 1982: 29).

Krashen (1982) claims that these two processes are exclusive and that there is no interface between acquisition and learning. This claim “is used to strengthen the argument for recommending large doses of acquisition activity in the classroom, with only a very minor role assigned to learning” (Brown, 2000: 278).

.3. “The Monitor hypothesis explains the relationship between acquisition and learning and defines the influence of the latter on the former” (Schütz, 2019: 232).

Three internal factors are at work during the learning process; two of these “filter” and “organizer” are subconscious, whereas the third, ‘monitor’ is conscious” (Dulay, et al., 1982: 45). Conscious learning only serves as a Monitor, while the acquisition system imitates utterances. That is “our ‘formal’ knowledge of the second language, our conscious learning, may be used to utter the output of the acquired system, sometimes before and sometimes after the utterance is produced” (Al-Jumaily, 1982: 30; Krashen, 1981).

In second language performance both the acquired competence in the second language and the first language competence operate in the initiation of utterances as Figure (2.4) illustrates:

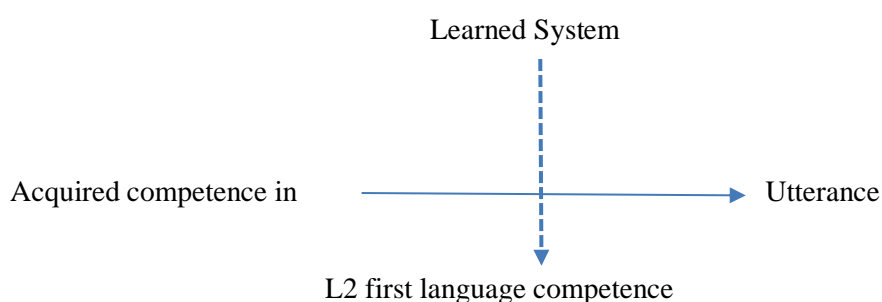


Figure 2.4. First language influence in second language performance
(Al-Jumaily, 1982: 31) (Krashen, 1981)

For the Monitor to operate the three conditions are set as follow:

- “a. That the performance must have time,
- b. that the performance must be focused on form or correctness, and
- c. that the performer knows the rule. (cf below for more information on the role of the Monitor in the learner’s performance).

3 The Natural Order Hypothesis. This hypothesis which Schütz (2014) considers a ‘less important’ one is set following earlier research on the order of morphemes in the performance of Hispanic learners of English using the Bilingual Syntax Measure (BSM) of these studies are Dulay and Burt (1974a and 1975). The main claim in this hypothesis is that there is “an L2 acquisition order which is characteristic of both children and adults and which holds for both oral and written modes, provided the focus of the learner is on communicating something” (Dulay and Burt, 1982: 56).

4 The Input Hypothesis. In this hypothesis Krashen claims that a vital “condition for language acquisition to occur is that the acquirer *understand* (via hearing or reading) input language that contains structure a bit beyond his or her current level of competence...If an acquirer is at level *i*, the input he or she understands should contain *i+1*” (Krashen, 1981: 100). This hypothesis is related to acquisition rather than learning.

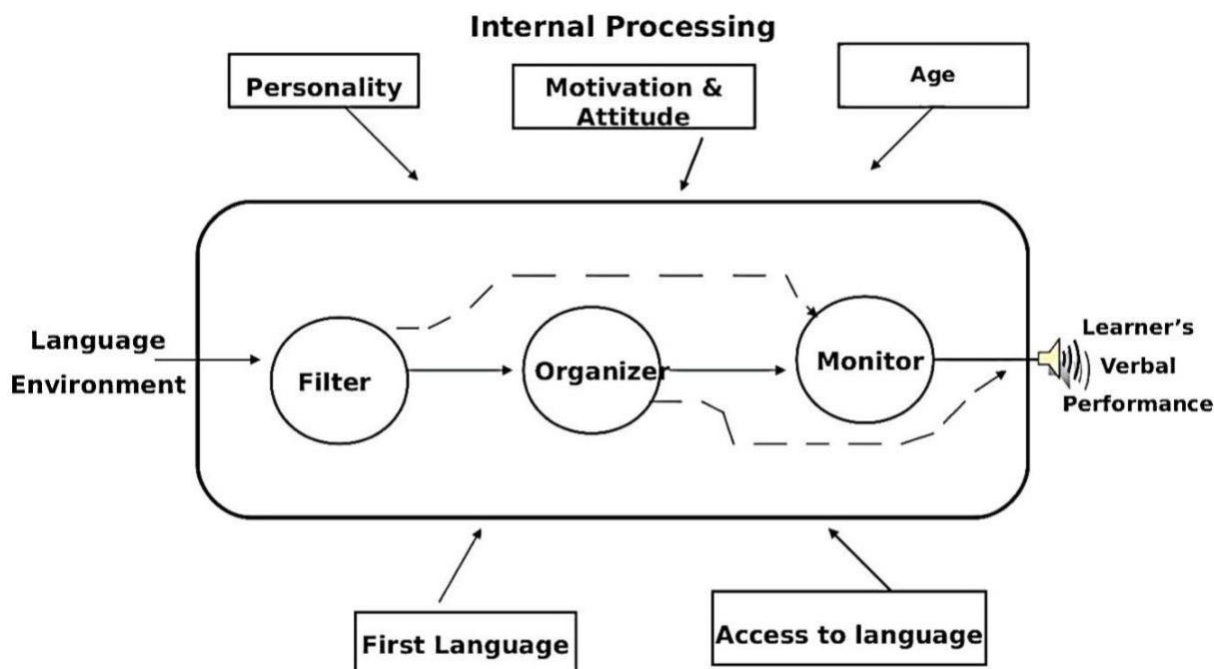
Krashen insists that the input should be comprehensible, i.e., belonging to level ‘*i+1*’ which means that “if a learner is at stage ‘*i*’, the acquisition takes place when s/he is exposed to comprehensible input that belongs to level ‘*i+1*’” (Schütz, 2019). From a pedagogical perspective an important contribution of this hypothesis “is Krashen’s recommendation that speaking not be taught directly or very early in the language classroom speech will emerge once the acquirer has built up enough input ‘*i+1*’” (Brown 2000: 278).

5 The Affective Filter Hypothesis. The Affective Filter here has to do with anxiety on the part of the learner. In Krashen's theory "the best acquisition will occur in environments where anxiety is low and defensiveness absent, i.e., in contexts where the 'affective filter' is low" (Brown 2000: 279). In Krashen's opinion, a number of 'affective variables' that included motivation, self- confidence, anxiety, and personality traits, play a facilitative, but non-caused, role in second language acquisition" (Schütz, 2019). With a low level of anxiety and extroversion, high motivation and self- confidence, and a good self- image learners have greater opportunities to succeed in acquiring language.

2.3.2.1. Working Model for Creative Construction

In their definition of the terms used in their book, Dulay, et al. (1982: 1) point out that they use the term *creative* to stress that "humans do not simply imitate what they hear" and that "they often use sentences they not heard before". The term *creative construction* is used "to refer to the subconscious process by which language learners gradually organize the language they hear, according to rules that they construct to generate sentences." (ibid). They add that "the form of the rules is determined by mental mechanisms responsible for human language acquisition and use" (ibid).

The model Dulay, et al. (1982) put forward embodies three internal factors. These variables are ‘filter’, ‘organizer’, and ‘monitor’. The first two are subconscious, whereas the third is conscious. Figure (2.5) illustrates the working model as posited by



Dulay, et al. (1982).

Figure 2.5. Working model for creative construction in L2 acquisition Dulay, et al. (1982: 46)

According to Dulay, et al. (ibid) the filter, previously called ‘socio-affective filter’ and ‘affective filter’ in previous writings of the authors, “is that part of the internal processing system that subconsciously screens incoming language based on what psychologists call “affect”: the learner’s motives, needs, attitudes, and emotional states” (p: 46). The filter’s role is to make decisions on the following:

- “1. Which target language models the learner will select;
2. Which parts of the language will be attended to first;
3. When language acquisition efforts should cease; and
4. How fast a learner can acquire the language” (ibid).

“Filtering is influenced by social circumstances such the school and characteristics of

the speech community that speaks the target language” (ibid). The organizer, previously called “cognitive organizer” by the authors, is the same as Chomsky’s (1965) “language acquisition device”(LAD) (ibid: 54). The organizer “is responsible for the learner’s gradual organization of the new language system” (Dulay, et al., 1982: 54). The effect of the organizer can be detected in the systematic errors in the learner speech as well as “the systematic progression of changes in interim rules, or transitional constructions that learners use before a structure is finally acquired” (ibid). Further evidence of the functioning of the organizer is “the common order in which mature structures are learned” (ibid).

The monitor in this model is “responsible for conscious linguistic processing”, i.e., learning as Krashen previously called it (ibid: 58). The formal knowledge “can be used to consciously formulate sentences and to correct one’s own speech and writing” (ibid: 59). The monitor also functions as editor “when a student attempts to edit compositions and correct ungrammatical sentences in language test items, as well as when the student spontaneously self-correct errors made during natural conversation”. Self-correction is not solely made by the monitor. Subconsciously acquired language may do the work “when one corrects a slip of the tongue “by feel” rather than by applying a rule.” (ibid). The monitor is also responsible for the use of the learner’s “first language structure to formulate second language sentences in particular situations” (ibid). Dulay, et al (1982: 60) call both “organizer and monitor...agents for the acquisition of linguistics knowledge”, albeit they are different.

They interact, sometimes smoothly and in complementary fashion, at other times in conflict. Both affects, to different extents and in different ways, the verbal performance of the second language learner. “Both are themselves affected by other factors such as personality and past experience” (ibid).

2.3.2.2.Cognitive Models of Language Learning.

In psychologists' and psycholinguists' opinion the learning of a second language means "the acquisition of complex cognitive skills" (Gitsaki, 1998: 94). From a general lexical perspective "cognitive" means "action or process of acquiring knowledge by reasoning or by intuition or through the senses" (OALD, 1989: sv. "cognition"). Cognition, in Belkhir's (2020: 3) point of view "refers to the process by which knowledge and understanding is developed in the mind. It is also meaning the use of conscious mental processes". To Nick Ellis (2019: 1) "cognition is not just in the head: it extends well beyond the skull and the skin".

The cognitive psycholinguist, Matlin (2005: 2) sees cognition as "a mental activity with various cognitive processes". She elaborates stating that, "cognition concerns the acquisition, storage transformation and use of knowledge, and includes a wide range of mental processes namely, perception, memory, imagery, language problem-solving, and decision-making" (ibid). Thus, a cognitive approach to her is "a theoretical stance that focuses mostly on people's knowledge and their mental behavior" (ibid). The most salient cognitive approach is that called by the name "McLaughlin's Attention Processing Model" (McLaughlin 1978, McLaughlin, et al. 1983, McLeod and McLaughlin 1986, McLaughlin 1987, 1990b. See also Brown 2000: 282ff, Nick Ellis 2019, and Belkhir2020.for a survey of the model). McLaughlin, et al.'s model avoids "any direct appeal to a consciousness continuum...and juxtaposes processing mechanisms controlled and automatic" (Brown 2000: 282). According to Gitsaki (1998: 94) "psychologists and psycholinguist viewed second language learning as the acquisition of complex cognitive skills". These complex skills involve some sub-skills that are included in the language learning process "are applying grammatical rules, choosing the appropriate vocabulary, following the pragmatic conventions governing

the use of a specific language” (McLaughlin, 1987: 134). These sub-skills become automatic with practice. (Posner and Synder, 1975).

In McLaughlin’s model-controlled processes are seen to be “capacity limited and temporary”, whereas “automatic processes are a relatively permanent” (Brown, 2000: 282, McLaughlin, et al., 1983: 142). Controlled processing is “typical of everyone learning a brand-new skill in which only a very few elements of the skill can be retained” (Brown: *ibid*). Automatic processing is performed through the capacity of the brain “to manage hundreds and thousands of bits of information simultaneously” (*ibid*). This multiplicity of data is automatized “by a process of restarting. “Both controlled and automatic processing” can occur with either *focal* or *peripheral* attention to the task at hand” (*ibid*). “Focal and peripheral should not be taken to tally with conscious and unconscious, because both of them may be conscious” (Hutstijin,1990). Table (2.1) illustrates possible language performance according to McLaughlin’s model.

Table 2.1 Possible second language performance as a function of information processing procedures and attention to formal properties of language (McLaughlin, *et al.*, 1983)

Attention to Formal Properties of Language	INFORMATION PROCESSING	
	Controlled	Automatic
Focal	(Cell A) Performance based on formal rule learning	(Cell B) Performance in a test situation
Peripheral	(Cell C) Performance based on implicit learning or analogic learning	(Cell D) Performance in communication situations

Brown (2000: 284) notes that the cells in the table (2.1) above “are described in terms of one’s attention to language forms (grammatical, phonological, discourse rules and categories, lexical choices, etc.). Thus, in a more advanced language classroom, if

“peripheral attention is given to forms” “focal attention” is...being given to meaning, function, purpose, or person” (ibid). According to DeKeyser (1997) “Child second language learning may consist almost exclusively of peripheral (cells C and D) attention to language forms. Most adult second language learning of language forms in the classroom involves a movement from Cell A through a combination of C and B, to D)”.

Table (2.2) illustrates the practical application of McLaughlin’s model as envisaged by Brown (2000: 285).

Table 2.2 practical application of McLaughlin's attention processing model (McLaughlin, *et al.*, 1983)

	CONTROLLED: New skill, capacity limited	AUTOMATIC: Well trained, practiced skill capacity is relatively unlimited
Focal Intentional Attention	A. Grammatical explanation of a specific point Word definition Copy of a written model The first stages of “memorizing” a dialog Prefabricated patterns Various discrete-point exercises	B. “Keeping an eye out” for something Advanced L2 learner focuses on modals, formation, etc. Monitoring oneself while talking or writing Scanning Editing, peer-editing
Peripheral	C. Simple greetings The later stages of “memorizing” a dialog TPR/Natural Approach New L2 learner successfully completes a brief conversation	D. Open-ended group work Rapid reading, skimming Free writes Normal conversational exchanges of some length

Another model that is classified under cognitive model is Ellen Bialystok’s (1978, 1982, 1983, 1990, 1991) model, which was earlier associated with Krashen’s innatist model (Al-Jumaily, 1982: 29), but has lately been seen to be part and parcel of McLaughlin’s cognitive model (Brown, 2000: 288). In introducing Bialystok’s model,

Al-Jumaily (ibid: 31) states “on the same theme [Krashen’s acquired and learned dichotomy] of attended and unattended inter-language”, Bialystok (1978) introduces her theoretical language learning which can be looked upon as an expansion of Krashen’s Monitor model”. Figure (2.6) below illustrates Bialystok’s model.

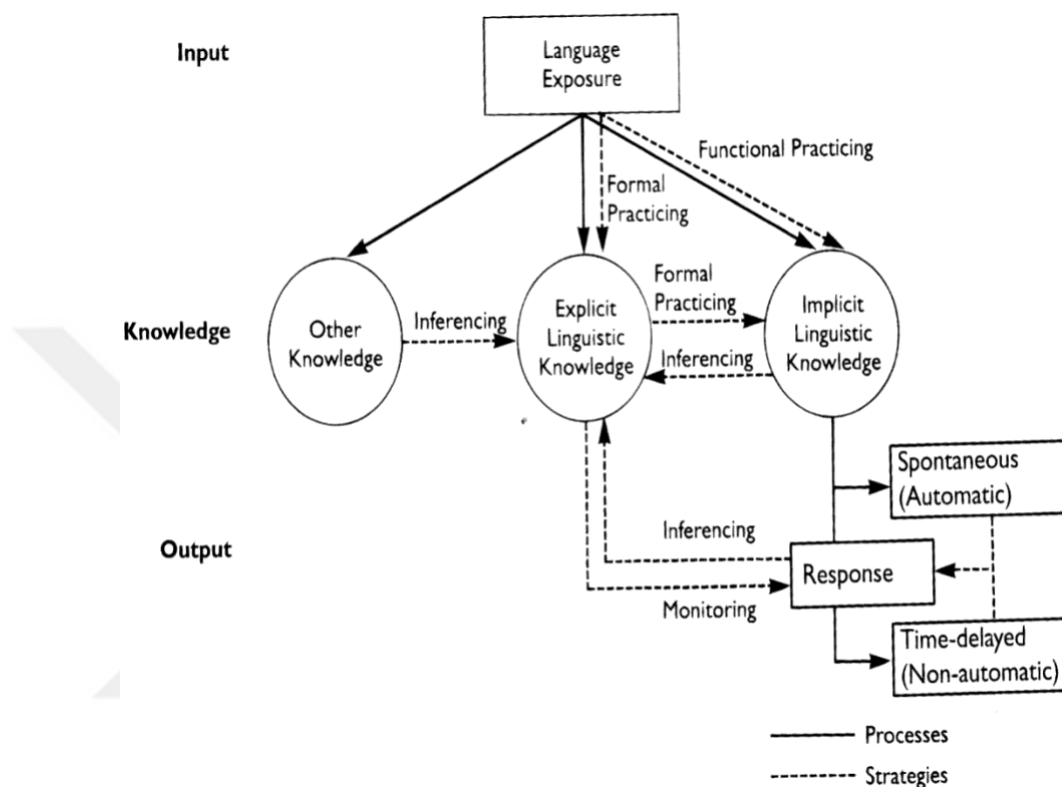


Figure 2.6 Model of second language learning (adapted from Bialystok, 1978: 71)

In order to explain both individual variations in achievement and differences in skill development for second language learners Bialystok proposes two types of linguistics knowledge, implicit knowledge and explicit knowledge. In this model “functional practicing” represents Krashen’s “acquiring” whereas “formal practicing” represents “learning” (Al- Jumaily, 1982: 32). Implicit linguistic knowledge contains automatic information that is used spontaneously in language task therefore this knowledge produces only Type I responses, i.e., spontaneous responses. Explicit knowledge, on the other hand, contains all the conscious facts that the learner has about target language. Thus, responses produced through this knowledge are Type II responses,

which are deliberate and occur after a delay. Other knowledge contains all other information the learner brings to the language task, such as “knowledge of other language, information about the culture associated to the target language, knowledge about the world and so on” (ibid). Bialystok and Sherwood-Smith (1985) added another dimension to the model as pointed out by Rojo López (1997: 370) “one of the main points which connects Bialystok and Sherwood-Smith’s approach with cognitive linguistic postulates is that their treatment of pragmatic competence. They consider pragmatic competence to be part of the learner’s knowledge of the language together with “grammatical competence”.”

By doing this “they abandon the Chomskyan view of competence” (ibid: 371). In this later model the authors “still posit two dimensions of language proficiency” but they are called “knowledge and control proficiency” (ibid). In addition to Bialystok, other have “proposed models of SLA using the explicit/implicit distinction” among whom are “Rod Ellis (1994, 1997), and Nick Ellis (1994a [2019])” (Brown 2000: 285).

2.3.2.3. A Social Constructivist Model: Long’s Interaction Model

Mathew Lynch (2018) states that social constructivism theory tells us “That all knowledge develops as a result of *social* interaction and language use, and is therefore a shared, rather than an individual, experience. Knowledge is additionally not a result of observing the world, it results from many social processes and interactions”. Adam (2006: 246) puts forward a number of principles “by which constructivist learning environments might begin to be designed”. He warns us that “such principles should not be taken as a list to be checked often by one until they are met, rather, they provide the means by which practice might be referenced” (ibid: 247). The principles are as follows:

1. Focus on learning not performance.

2. View learners as active co-constructors of meaning and knowledge.
3. Seek to engage learners in tasks seen as ends in themselves and consequently as having implicit worth.
4. English a teacher- pupil relationships built upon the idea of guidance not instruction. (Ibid: 247).

As such a model based on these principles, in contrast with ‘Krashen’s Input hypothesis and the cognitive models of SLA’ which “focus to a considerable extent on the learner...is the focus of observation and explanation” (Brown, 2000: 287).

Interaction is defined by Ellis (1999: 2) as “the social behavior that occurs when one person communicates”. Vygotsky (1987) provides a broader view of interaction stating that it takes place “when different modules of the mind interact to construct an understanding of or a response to some phenomena, hence proposing two kinds of interaction i.e., interpersonal interaction and intra personal interaction”

(Ghaemi and Nasir, 2014: 24). Gass and Torres (2005: 2) add a problem–solving role to interaction when they define interaction as “exchanges in which there is some evidence that a part of the speech has not been fully understood”.

Long starts, as it were, just from where Krashen left off. “As a social constructionist, Long, rather than being preoccupied with the learner as the preceding models did” (Firth and Wagner, 1997: 288)), emphasized “the dynamic nature of the interplay between learners and their peers and their teachers and others with whom they interact” (Brown, 2000: 287). While Krashen emphasized the necessity for input to be comprehensible. Long (1985, 1996) postulates that “comprehensible input is the result of modified interaction”. “Modifications are made to the interactional structure with techniques such as repetition, clarification checks and comprehension checks” (Yee, et al., 2016; internet). Long (1981: 261) posits that “face to face oral interaction and

communication could boost the proficient skill of language for the sake of helping learners to maximize acquisition of input for second language learning”. To Long (1983:127) input is “the linguistic forms (morphemes, words, utterances) the streams of speech in the air directed at the non-native speaker” whereas “the analysis of interaction means describing the functions of these forms in (conversational) discourse.”

A final word about Long’s model is re-iterated by Ghaemi and Saleh (2014: 30) who state that they tend to agree with Ellis’s (1991) suggestion “that Interaction Hypothesis has to be blended” with perspectives of socio-cultural theory proposed by Vygotsky and coin a new theory named “interactionist theory”. The rationale for that is that the new model will be broader than the old one in that the latter “considers one type of interaction i.e., meaning negotiation while the new theory concerns interaction more generally” (ibid).

2.4.View on Speech Acts

In this section the discussion will be focused on speech acts phenomenon or cultural pragmatics or even communicative competence as an alternative term which is widely used by many linguists and psychologists such as Tuan Vu Van (2017) in his study “Communicative Competence of the Fourth Year College Students: Basis for Proposed English Language Program” and Sauvignon, Sandra (1972) in his study “Communicative Competence: An Experiment in Foreign Language Teaching”. To this end, by using the term speech acts we tried to cover the actions of six pragmatic situations came as apology, phatic communion, invitation, ask for information, request and introduction. Hence, in the use of these linguistic forms with their functions we will try to construe on the appropriateness of the use of speech acts by the learners in two cross cultures. Moreover, from pragmatics view, we interpret the meaning of sentences

in terms of what the speaker intended to convey.

In very general terms, the use of the term speech acts covers not only intended meaning but also the action performed by speakers. Thus, the discussion in this study will condense six different speech acts.

2.4.1. Apologizing

Lexically speaking to apologize is to “say one is sorry” (Hornby 1989: sv. apologize). An apology is a statement to say that one is sorry for having done wrong or hurt sb’s feelings” (ibid: sv. apology). From a technical perspective an apology is basically a speech act which is intended to provide support for the H (hearer) who was actually maltreated by a violation X. In the decision to carry out the verbal apology, the S (speaker) is willing to humiliate himself or herself to some extent and to admit to fault and responsibility for X. (Olshtain, 1985: 156)

Thus, to use Brown and Levinson’s (1978) terms, apology is face-saving hearer wise and face-threatening speaker wise. In her study of apologies across languages Olshtain (1989) concludes that “there are very important intercultural differences that need to be investigated”. Cohen and Olshtain (1985: 175) assert that in studying apologies one “would want to compare situations with respect to types of participants their social status and familiarity, and the content i.e., types of severity of infraction”.

Chapman and Thoms, as cited by Marshall (2016) identifies “five languages of apology

- . Expressing regret
- . Accepting responsibility
- . Making restitution
- . Genuinely repenting
- . Requesting forgiveness.”

Holmes (1990: 158) puts forward a more detailed model of classification of apology strategies.

The model consists of four languages of apology:

1. “An explicit expression of apology.
 - a. An offer of apology/ IFID (Illocutionary Force Indicating Device).
 - b. An expression of regret
 - c. A request for forgiveness
2. An explanation or account.
3. An acknowledgement of responsibility.
 - a. Accepting blame
 - b. Expressing the deficiency
 - c. Recognizing H (hearer) as entitled to an apology
 - d. Expressing lack of intent
 - e. Offering repair / redressing
4. A promise of forbearance

In the research tool (see the Appendix), care is taken to provide the subjects with chances to produce the main five languages stated above.

In face-to-face and day-to-day interaction in Iraqi Arabic a performative verb or noun of apology is always involved. Thus, أنا أسف (ána ásgif- (lit) I am sorry), مع الأسف ma áwl ásaf –(lit) with sorrow), أعذر (á'tider- (lit) I apologize) are the most common strategies of apology. Intensity is expressed by using the adverbial, جداً (jiddan- (lit) very). In educated circles and very rarely مخلصاً (mukhlisan=sincerely) is used. In its counterpart, Turkish a performative verb or noun of apology commonly employs (Afedersiniz) to intend “excuse me”, in English, e.g., Afedersiniz, bir kahae alabilir miyim? To translate in English as ‘Excuse me, can I get a coffee, please?’ A synonym

for ‘Affedersiniz’ is “Kusura bakmayın”. The informal appropriate one is “Affedersin” which is used when asking question or giving apology, other words such as “Pardon” is for forgiveness but it is not formal or strong apology. Turkish people use it in a very casual way either as “excuse me” or “I’m sorry”, the other is the phrase “Özür dilerim” means in English “I’m sorry” and can be used in formal and informal situation. However, in Turkey if someone accidentally bumps into someone “özür dilerim” is preferable (youtube. Turkishclass101)

2.4.2. Phatic Communication

The term phatic communication was introduced by the anthropologist Bronislaw Malinowski to “Refer to LANGUAGE used for establishing an atmosphere or maintaining social contact rather for exchanging information or ideas” (Crystal, 1997). Malinowski calls the language used for this function as “free social intercourse” and puts forward “inquiries about health, comments on weather” as examples of this type of language (1936). Malinowski (ibid: 314) identifies the function of phatic communication saying that “it serves to establish bounds of personal union between people brought together by the mere need of companionship and does not serve any purpose of communicating ideas”.

Swift (2009) maintains that “phatic communication is characterized by not conveying meaning, by not importing information; thus, phatic utterances are described as procedures without propositional contents”. The language of phatic communication is commonly referred to “small talk and also groaning talking” (en.m.wikipedia.org.wiki.smaltatalk). Examples of phatic communion include:

2.4.2.1. Greetings

2.4.2.2. Bad weather, is not it?

2.4.2.3. Some weather we are having. (thought.com)

2.4.2.4. How are you? (ibid)

2.4.3. Invitation

The dictionary meaning of an invitation “is a request, a solicitation, or an attempt to get another person to join you at specific event” (vocabulary.com). From another perspective LDCE defines invitation as “a written or spoken request to someone, inciting them to go somewhere or do something” (s.v. invitation). An invitation can be delivered as a verbal request. Only verbal invitation is of interest in this research.

2.4.3.1. Giving Invitation

There are five ways for inviting people according to the Crown Academy of English (youtube.com.expressions for verbal invitation)

1. Would you like?

This is an excellent way to give an invitation. It may be followed by an action in the form of an infinitive:

e.g., 1. Would you like to have lunch with us? Or it may be followed by a noun phrase:

e.g., 2. Would you like a cup of coffee?

It is worth noting here that the latter expression is labeled *offer* rather invitation in some textbooks.

2. Do you want? This is also a good way to invite but one should note that it is slightly more informal than in number one above.

e.g., 3. Do you want to join us for lunch?

3. The use of imperative. One should be careful since this form is very direct. Some people think that it is quite forceful and some do not like it because it sounds to be like an order.

e.g., 4. Come to the restaurant with us?

4. Why do not you? This is also a very good way of giving invitation.

Why do not you come to Istanbul with us?

5. You must..... / You will have to....

This is used when the invitation is vague, i.e., no date and no time are specified. Vague expressions of time are used.

e.g., 5. You must visit us next year.

e.g., 6. You will have to join us for dinner sometime.

2.4.3.2. Accepting and Declining Invitation

According to speak confident English ([youtube.com](https://www.youtube.com)), there are three simple steps to prop:

1. Be thankful for the invitation.

e.g., 7. Thank you very much for that.

2. Make it clear that you are saying 'yes'.

e.g., 8. Count me in.

e.g., 9. I'd love to come.

3. Confirm the detail.

e.g., 10. I'll be there on Friday at 7.

e.g., 11. Is there anything I can do to help?

e.g., 12. Is there anything that I can bring?

2.4.3.3. Declining Invitation

Four steps are to be followed to politely decline an invitation:

1. Be thankful

2. Be clear

3. Be succinct

4. Be polite

The first step is handled above. So, we will start with no. 2

2. Be clear: Explain you are not able to go but use an apologetic tone.

e.g., 13. Unfortunately, I am not going to be able to make it.

e.g., 14. I wish I could but I have an important meeting at the office at that time.

3. Give a brief and distinct reason as shown in e.g., 14 above.

4. Be polite: Close with something positive.

e.g., 15. I hope you have a great time.

e.g., 16. I hope I can see you another time soon.

2.4.4. Asking for Information

Beare (2019: 1) maintains that “asking for information can be as simple as asking for the time, or as complex as asking for details about a complicated process”. It is always important to take into consideration the context of situation in the selection of the appropriate linguistic form. Beare (ibid) provides the following examples:

- “When asking a colleague use a slightly more informal form” and

- “When asking a stranger use an appropriately formal construction”

The appropriate structures for use at each of these levels are put forward by Beare (ibid: 11f) as follows:

1. Very informal situation

With a family member a direct question is the appropriate form. “Simple question structure: “Wh? + Helping verb+ Subject +Verb”.

e.g., 16. Where does he work?

e.g., 17. When will she come?

2. More formal structures: Forms of the structure below are used “for simple very day questions in stores, with colleagues at work and in other informal situations” (ibid: 2).

“Structures: Pardon me/ Excuse me +Can / Could you [(please)] tell me + Wh? +

Subject+ Verb?”

e.g., 18. Excuse me, could you tell me where I can find men’s wear?

e.g., 19 Pardon me, can you show me how these files are to be shelved?

3. Formal and more complicated question:

These forms are used “When asking complicated questions that require a lot of information. These should also be used when asking questions of important people such as your boss, on a job interview, etc.” (ibid).

“Structure: I wonder if you could tell me / explain / provide information on, etc.” (ibid)

e.g., 20. I wonder if you could tell me about the job’s requirements. “Structure: Would you mind +Verb + Ing” (ibid).

e.g., 21. “Would you mind going over the saving plans again?” (ibid).

2.4.5. Polite Requests

Politeness is a pragmatic mechanism in which a variety of structures, including non-verbal and prosodic features, work together to achieve the speaker’s intention of maintaining smooth communication (Trosborg, 1995).

So much has been written about this pragmatic phenomenon and what is left here can be regarded sufficient to point out that languages display many differences in politeness expressions. For instances, in English when you are indirect in your request you sound to be a politer, whereas in China the opposite is the case (cf Al- Taa`i (1998)). In English, the level of politeness varies from one structure to the other. Al-Taa`i (1998:38) reports that “there is an eight-level hierarchy based on three syntactic/ semantic features mood, modals, and tense of modals”. Carrel and Kronecker (1981) after editing the previous models came up with the following hierarchy illustrated in Table (2.3) below.

Table 2.3 Theoretical Hierarchy of Request Strategies (After Carrell and Kronecker (1981: 21))

Strategy#	Syntactic /Semantic features	Example
7.	Interrogative-past tense modal	Could you give me a pack of Marlboros?
6.	Interrogative-Present tense modal	Can you give me a pack Marlboros?
5.	Declarative-Past tense modal	Do you have a pack of Marlboros?
4.	Declarative-Past tense modal	I'd like a pack of Marlboros.
3.	Declarative-Present tense modal	I'll have a pack of Marlboros.
2.	Declarative-No modal	I want a pack of Marlboros.
1.	Imperative	Give me a pack of Marlboros.
0.	Imperative-elliptical	A pack of Marlboros.

It is worth to point out that the scale above arranged in a descending order of politeness.

2.4.6. Introduction

Introduction is “the act of formally telling people each other’s name when they first meet” (LDCE, 2003). One may introduce oneself to another person or two persons to each other. Self- introduction is any form of introduction that tells who you are (full name and no titles), what you do (what you are going to be if you are not working at the time), and what others need to know (some facts that will create a nice impression on the person you are interacting with (teacherjobfairs.com)).

In introducing two people to each other the etiquette as stated by Belludi (2008) is as follows:

1. First, state the name of the person that is introduced. This is (the higher-ranking person).

2. Second say:

I would to introduce _____? Please meet _____ or This is _____

3. Third state the name of the person.

2.5. Summary and Conclusion

Brown (2000: 288) provides a comparison between the three models in Table (2.4) below:

Table 2.4 Theories and models of SLA

INNATIST (Krashen)	COGNITIVE (McLaughlin / Bialystok)	CONSTRUCTIVIST (Long)
<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Subconscious acquisition superior to “learning” & “monitoring”✓ Comprehensible input (i+1)✓ Low affective filter✓ Natural order of acquisition✓ “Zero option” for grammar instruction	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Controlled /automatic processing (McL)✓ Focal / peripheral attention (McL)✓ Restructuring (McL)✓ Implicit vs. explicit (B)✓ Unanalyzed vs. analyzed knowledge (B)✓ Form-focused instruction	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Interaction hypothesis✓ Intake through social interaction✓ Output hypothesis (Swain)✓ HIGS (Seliger)✓ Authenticity✓ Task-Based instruction

In a nutshell, all post-chomskyan theories of language learning or acquisition have their roots in the Chomskyan theory of Language Acquisition Device (LAD) / Universal Grammar. To use horticultural terminology all these models are scions that through a process of grafting are traced back to the same roots dock. Starting with innatist models of creative construction followed by and then converged with Krashen's Hypothesis from which Bialystok starts albeit with different terminology and McLaughlin juxtaposed with still another terminology and which Long added modifications to the model. Rod Ellis's model tops the list with still more modifications to Long's Interactional Theory. What is of interest to us is the conclusion that in order to learn any new language the learner has to be aware of the target language pragmatics that include the culture of the language, the social rules, etc. In short, he has to learn what to say, when, where, to whom and how to say it.

CHAPTER III

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

In the following section data specification and collection are presented in addition to the selection of the subject of the research. The method of analysis including the adopted model as well as the statistics used in the analysis of the data is going to be presented.

3.1. Research Design

The research here involves the use of speech acts in three languages, one of native speakers of Turkish, the second of native Iraqi-Arabic speakers and the third of American English speakers, or more specifically the language commonly used by native speakers of English as the target language. Thus, two American native speakers were included for the reason that their inclusion were regarded as a model for making decision about the acceptability of the subjects' responses of nonnatives. Thus, they are meant to be as a yardstick to check the accuracy of our decision of findings and their inclusion as participants is not aim of the research and not for contrasting the performance of nonnative speakers. Moreover, in the selection of the aspects of use of speech acts to be investigated the researcher had sought those areas that might raise problems of the ESL or EFL learners due to the discrepancy between the NL and the TL with respect to social or/and cultural factors.

3.2. Instrument

In order to test the use of speech acts of Turkish and Iraqi EFL learners, it would be necessary to assess some varieties of speech acts. Hence, in this present paper, we will concern ourselves with a range of situations rather than one type of speech acts. The corpus comprises of 20 discourse completion tasks (DCTs), the situations of DCT were designed to elicit an appropriate speech act performance in different social sittings. "It

is to say that the DCT is probably the best tool to find out the prototypical patterns that speakers have in mind about the realization of a given speech act, both in their L1 and in the language they are learning” (Curell and Dalmau, 2007). Moreover, DCTs provides an adequate identification of native and nonnative pragma-linguistic features in speech acts realization. It will “enable the collection of strategies which reflect the formulas employed in everyday speech and which are comparable across cultures and across language” (ibid). Thus, the situations of DCTs are come to be as followed:

1. Introducing (peer to peer, older to younger, junior to senior, and self).
2. Apology (expressing regret, making restitution, genuinely repenting, requesting forgiveness, and accepting responsibility).
3. Phatic communion (small-talk).
4. Asking for Information.
5. Invitation (inviting and declining invitation).
6. Request (higher to lower, lower to higher and equals).

However, by adopting these varieties of speech acts we hoped to elicit more natural responses, and as we mentioned before more focus will be on the message rather than on the form. The chosen of twenty natural situations of speech acts was aimed to assess the learner’s ability of the use of speech acts in two nonnative learners. Up to this discussion, four situations were designed to assess ‘Introducing’ speech acts among nonnative speakers of English. They included peer manager to other (S-1, peer to peer), introducing yourself to the general manager of your company (S-4, yourself), introducing your friend a professor at the college of Education to your Dean of your company (S-11, junior to senior), introducing your grandfather to your new neighbors (S-17, older to younger).

Moreover, five situations were intended to assess the use of a stylistically appropriate

apology, they included as follows: expressing regret, making restitution, genuinely repenting, requesting forgiveness, accepting responsibility in the given context. Those were apologizing for forgetting to bring back your professor's book (S-3, genuinely repenting), you stepped on gentlemen's toes (S-7, expressing regret), forgetting an important meeting with your boss (S-10, requesting forgiveness), you broke your friend's camera (S-12, making restitution), the professor had not finished reading the paper of his students (S-15, accepting responsibility). And other situation was 'phatic communion' (S-2, small talk) that had intended to start a small talk as you want to start a conversation with an English man sitting next to you.

Furthermore, two speech acts situations were as 'asking for information', in which you were a stranger in a town and asking an old lady to show you the way to the Town Hall place (S-5), and the later as you were a student and your teacher had asked you to write an essay and you would like to know the limited number of words (S-19). The other three speech act situations were as 'invitation' two situations were as you'd like to invite your boss to dinner at your home (S-6, lower to higher) and the other was as you were planning an office party at the end of day's work on Friday and you would like a friend of yours from another office to come (S-9, equal), and the third one was 'a declining invitation' in which your neighbor had asked you to join to him to play a chess game (S-14 equal).

Additionally, the three request speech act situations were as 'higher to lower' in that you were an officer in the army and one of the soldiers in your command was about to leave and you wanted him to close the door (S-16, higher to lower) and the last two situations were as a junior employ and you wanted to ask your boss for a day off (S-18, junior to senior) and the other was equal peers

speech acts as you wanted to borrow your friend's note book (S-20). Thus, the full text

of the situations appears in the Appendix.

These situations were set up to elicit the appropriate use of speech acts of Turkish and Iraqi learners' responses of the target language. Hence, a single-response approach was used for the sake of expending and for time testing per student and to facilitate data analysis. The data produced by nonnatives in role DCT testing situations had to compare with data collected from natives in similar simulated situations, where natives would be given idealized responses.

3.3. Participants

The data examined in this paper were gathered from three groups. The total number of subjects were 62, 60 college students in their early twenties, 30 nonnative Turkish learners (17 female and 13 male), enrolled in fourth-level of ELT faculty at İstanbul Sabahattin Zaim University, and 30 nonnatives Iraqi-Arabic students (19 female and 11 male) in the same fourth-level of ELT at University of Babylon, Hillah, Iraq, and two native American speakers (one is in the age of thirty three works as a teacher of history in an elementary school in US and the second is in the forty four works as an engineer in Iraqi patrol company) serve as a model for native English speakers' responses of speech acts behavior. Their inclusion was meant to be a third group of the subjects for the reason that both the researcher and the supervisor are being nonnative speakers of the target language under investigation and the need arises here for a model for making decision about the acceptability of the subjects' responses of nonnatives. Moreover, with two of native speakers of the target language we seek to have reliable findings.

The Turkish Education systems consisted of a five-year primary education, three-years secondary, a three-year school education that designed to prepare the students for Higher Education, and four years in Higher Education level in English departments.

English is a compulsory foreign language, the curriculum was aimed to promote students' knowledge of general English and equipped them with the necessary skills to read and understand English publications in their subject area (Kirkgoz, 2007: 19 ff).

For Iraqi-Arabic Education system "English, the only compulsory foreign language taught in Iraqi school at present, was taught for the first time in state schools in 1873" (Al-Chalabi, 1976: 41). Thus, the official Iraqi Education cycle extends to 12 years, including 6 years of mandatory primary education, which starts from the age of six years, followed by three years of Intermediate school, then three years of secondary education and four years in high education exclusively in English in ELT college, English linguistic college, and English of Literature.

3.4. Procedure

The same instrument DCT was used to elicit data from all subjects and it was aimed to test the functional ability of a foreign language. Student were asked to provide an appropriate response for each situation. This procedure yielded a measure of use of speech acts by native speakers of Americans English to be as a basis for assessing nonnatives measure of their communicative competence in the use of speech acts of Turkish and Iraqi-Arabic students of English as a foreign language. Moreover, in order to determine whether deviations of nonnative English learners were due to the negative transfer of patterns or due to incomplete mastery of the target language patterns.

3.5. Data Analysis

The major aim of data analysis was to determine the possibility of assessing the pragmatic production of the use of speech acts of nonnative Turkish and Iraqi learners of English and to make decision on which one of them being more competent than the other in the pragmatic performing of speech acts. Thus, last target aim was to reveal

the deviation of their performing which due to some reasons. Hence, the American native speakers' responds came as a yardstick to assess the validity of the responses of nonnatives. Thus, the set below gathered all the responses of the two American native speakers:

1. Introduction

a. Introducing peer to peer

e.g., 1. Hi, I'd like to introduce you to Susan Hayward our sales manager at TESCO.

e.g., 2. Good morning. Mr. Davies, this is Ms. Hayward, sales manager at TESCO.

b. Introducing yourself

1. Hi, I don't think we've met before. I'm Paul an engineer with the company.

2. Good evening Mr. Taylor. My name is Paul Woods.

c. Introducing higher to lower

e.g., 1. Hi Sam. I'd like to introduce Michael Elbin professor at the college of education.

2. Dean White, this is professor Elbin.

d. Introducing junior to senior

e.g., 1. I'd like to you to meet Ruth Roberts our general director. Ruth, this is Helrn our new cashier.

2. Director Roberts, this is our new cashier, Mrs. Hunt.

c. Introducing old to young

e.g., 1. Grandad, these are my neighbors Cllare and Bill.

2. Clare and Bill, this is my grandfather.

2. Phatic communion

e.g. 1. Nice weather for ducks.

2. My word! This rain certainly is coming down hard. Is that Noah's Ark I see.

a. Apology

i. genuinely repenting

e.g. 1. I'm so sorry but I haven't.

2. Oh, I am sorry, professor. I have forgotten your book. Could I return it to you tomorrow?

ii. expressing regret

e.g.1. OH. I'm sorry. That was clumsy of me. Are you ok?

2. Oh, sorry. Excuse me.

iii. requesting forgiveness

e.g., 1. So sorry I'm late.

2. Excuse me, Sir. I am on my way to meeting.

iv. making restitution

e.g. 1. Mike, I'm really sorry but I broke your camera. What can I do to repay you?

2. Oh, Mike. I broke your camera.

c. accepting responsibility

e.g.1. Sorry, I didn't have time at the weekend. I'll get it back to you as soon as I can.

2. Hi Charlie. I don't have your paper graded yet.

b. Asking for information

e.g.1. Hi, sorry to bother you. Do you know where the town hall is?

2. Excuse me, ma'am. Can you tell me where the town hall is?

c. Invitation

i. Inviting

e.g., 1. We'd love to have you over for dinner sometimes. Are you free this weekend?

2. Mrs. Stone, my wife and I would like to have you over for dinner. Could you join us, please?

ii. Declining invitation

e.g., 1. Sorry, not now. I'm a bit busy.

2. Oh, sorry, I can't play now. Maybe another time.

d. Requests

i. Higher to lower

e.g., 1. Hi Mr. Williams. Are you free for a moment? Is it possible to take a day off next week?

2. Sir, I would like to request a day off to take care of some personal things.

ii. Lower to higher

e.g., 1. What's the word limit, please?

2. Excuse me, professor. How many words are required for this essay?

iii. Equals

e.g., 1. Can I borrow your note-book, please?

2. Hi Sandra, can I borrow your notebook?

All in all, the question of data analysis was how best to assess nonnatives pragmatic production of the use of speech acts and dig out to discover if there were some deviations in the rules of speech acts. The first and basic analysis technique was by gathering the responses of each group for each situation and analyzed them according to the theoretical study of speech act along with the comparison with native speakers' responds. Hence, to determine the actual test scores of the 60 nonnative English speakers, we gave the nonnatives (3) points for using a semantic correct appropriate formula in a given situation when our findings showed the group as a whole to

underuse this formula in comparison to native speakers, and (2) point for using a semantic formula having some grammatical mistakes, and (0) point for using irrelevant semantic formulas. The data were expressed in percentages, i.e., the percentage of respondents in a given group having 3 points for all situations will be 100% (20 situations multiplied 3 point is 100).

The data analysis included both evaluation of the use of speech acts by nonnatives and investigation the deviation of the rules of speech acts from native patterns and reveal whether the deviation would more likely be the result of negative transfer from patterns in the native language or developmental of lack of proficiency in the target language. For more clarification, the procedure that we used to assign scores to individual nonnative speakers of English was as follows; we gave nonnative learner's response three points for each time they used a correct semantic formula that our findings showed the group as a whole to under use in comparison to native speakers, and two points for each situation that has some deviations from linguistic forms in formula of speech act situation in the use of speech acts and zero point for irrelevant response.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND RESULT

This chapter aimed to present the analysis along with the results of the findings of use speech acts behavior in accordance to the Discourse Completing Task (DCTs) instrument in cross-cultural comparative study of discourse of two nonnatives English language learners of Turkish and Iraqi- Arabic learners.

4.1. Analysis of Speech Acts Situations

4.1.1. Analysis of Apology Speech Acts Situations

In apology speech acts situations, the subjects of two groups were given five situations to response, they embraced as genuinely repenting (S-3), expressing regret (S-7), requesting forgiveness (S-10), making restitution (S-12) and accepting responsibility (S-15). Thereupon each one of them is important and serves as a purpose. The full test of the situations appears in the Appendix.

4.1.1.1. Genuinely Repenting Apology Situation

It is claimed that “saying sorry is not enough” and “there should be a sincere drive to do better” (www.amp.mindbodygreen) concerning this act (S.3) ‘a postgraduate student who borrowed a book from his professor and he has forgotten to bring it back’, a formal apology is more acceptable than an informal one, and with comparison with the native speaker’s respond we obtained that native speaker preferred the strategy that most natives used in a given situation “I’m sorry but I haven’t” and a formal one as “Oh, I am sorry, professor. I have forgotten your book. Could I return it to you tomorrow”, while Iraqi-Arabic learners adhered to follow the basic structural conventions (expression of apology then declaration of repentance), the following are

some of the responses we received for the above situation from Iraqi-Arabic learners as a foreign language:

- I sincerely apologize I forgot to bring the book.
- I'm terribly sorry to forget to bring the book professor.
- I didn't bring it, I'm incredibly sorry.
- I apologize Sir, I'm still not done with it.
- I'm afraid I forgot it to bring it Sir.
- Sorry doctor. I do apologize. I have forgotten the book.
- I totally forgot, deeply apologize professor, I'll bring it next time.

From above we find that the formal strategy of apologizing was a dominant one and it clearly stated in (I do apologize, I apologize, I'm incredibly sorry, I'm terribly sorry, I'm sincerely sorry) as to sound more official and showing more respect. Yet it is necessary to say that most responses had to act in formality rather than informality (as native's response), and this might be assigned to the way of schooling instructions focusing more on structural strategy than social strategy and this remind us of Richards and Rodgers (2001:20) claimed that "language is a system of structurally related elements for the coding of meaning" in which the focus had paid to the grammatical elements more than on other components of communication. To add up to this point, is the social culture of Iraqi natives in expressing apology to a professor (in this sense) as it should be more formal as a strategy of showing more respect (positive transfer). Thus, in the above acts (3) points was scored for each one of them and for having (2) points were as in these responses:

- _ I am sorry sir I forgoton it I try to brought it in shortest time
- _ I have professor but it seems that I need it for another class that I am taking
- _ Yeah its in my bag outside, I were going to bring it

And for having zero as in “Tim should apologize to the teacher”, hence the mean score of this group was (0.93).

Turkish-nonnative learners preferred to use explicit devices for apology along with modification expressions. These devices were used to signal regret for forgetfulness to bring the book and then to placate the professor by bringing it back tomorrow as in:

_I'm sorry professor! I forgot the book at home, but I promise you I will bring it tomorrow. I hope it's not a problem.

_Sorry Professor Steven I know that I gave you a promise but I have forgotten.

_Oh, sorry I have forgotten.

_Sorry I forgot.

_Unfortunately prof. I forgot to bring it. But tomorrow definitely I will bring it.

_ Sorry sir, but...book? Did not we agree on the next weekend?

_ Thank you for your patience professor, I was so interested in the book that I wanted to spend a little more time with it, I really appreciate you sharing this book with me.

For these acts (3) point was given to each one of these responses, however the last two responses seemed to adopt the strategic component in dealing with the situation which is mostly neglected by teachers and courses designers, and for having zero as in:

_ Sorry, my cat ate it.

_ not yet sir. I was sick.

For these responses, having zero is due to not following the formal protocol of apologizing.

Furthermore, according to Blum-Kulka's framework apology, intensification is either internal or external, Turkish-nonnative learners used the same internal intensifier to apologize which was 'so' as in 'I'm so sorry professor' which was mostly preferred by Turkish-students, unlike Iraqi-Arabic nonnatives in using different intensifiers such as

very, really, extremely, etc. External intensifier of apology expression appeared in just only one performing of Turkish-students as in ‘I have been forgotten to bring it back, I am so sorry’. However, both groups performed well and some of irrelevant responses were out of score as in giving responses above, though the mean score of Turkish-nonnatives learners was (0.91).

4.1.1.2. Expressing Regret

In this situation (S.7) we asked the subjects to act as ‘you were standing in a crowded bus and accidentally step on a gentleman’s toes. Native speakers’ responses were as “Oh.I’m sorry. That was clumsy of me. Are you ok?”, and “Oh, sorry. Excuse me”.

Thus, the responses of Iraqi- Arabic learners were as follows:

- _ Oh! I’m so sorry. It’s the crowded / I hadn’t intended / I didn’t mean it
- _ I am sorry Sir. My bad / it just by mistake / I didn’t notice
- _ I’m so sorry my apologies.
- _ Excuse me, sorry
- _ I’m sorry i don’t pay attention.

And Turkish performing were as follows:

- _ Pardon me / oh sorry / sorry
- _ Ohh, I am so sorry, I didn’t notice you, sorry
- _ I really sorry. I didn’t mean to do that.
- _ I’m so sorry. You know. It is crowded.
- _ Oh shoot man sorry to ruin shoes great choice by the way looks perfectly paired with your outfit.

Concerning this act, both Iraqi-Arabic learners and Turkish-learners had adopted different stylistic expressions to express their sorriness and it was obvious that both of them as nonnative speakers were aware of the sociolinguistic need for apologizing,

what other thing was that the investigator perceived in the utterance of the Iraqi's response "i don't pay attention", the latter was precisely known the structure of present simple but he failed in using it in its appropriateness for the tense structural requirement, and this dilemma is clearly manifested in Iraqi nonnative speakers and especially in speaking aspect and its due to the evidence that "The English tense framework is famously troublesome for an Iraqi speaker to learn in light of the fact that tense essentially does not exist in their earlier semantic experience." (Maeen and Younus, 2019: 45).

Other attachment point is in the third and fourth Iraqi's responses, which they had carried the act of regret, the subject had applied the transferring sense of his native language, "Excuse me, sorry" means (اسف المعذرة) *which* reiterated the apology as a habit case in Iraqi culture , the same is true in the fourth act "I'm so sorry, my apologies".

What is interesting is that all responses had to be acceptable since the semantic meaning is in relation to the situations even if they deviated from the linguistics forms and this leads us to Hymes's notion of the importance of sociolinguistic competence. In the same discussion Turkish- learner in the fifth response "Oh shoot man sorry to ruin shoes great choice by the way looks perfectly paired with your outfit" expressed his interlanguage or idiosyncratic dialect in which the "interim system of L2 learners, which has some features of L1 and L2 plus some that are independent of the L1 and the L2" (Yule, 2006:244) and despite the deficiency of accuracy but it remained to be regarded as acceptable since it carried the meaning of the speech act behavior. However, we also found some of the responses that were not acceptable as an apology and thus we did not include in the speech act set as in "oh, Can I buy you a new pair of shoes?" and "Apologize to them and make sure they be ok". Thus, the mean score

of Iraqi responses was (0.86) and Turkish was (0.91).

4.1.1.3. Requesting Forgiveness

In requesting forgiveness apology act (S.10) “a secretary at a company, had arrived late for an important meeting and while she was hurrying along the corridor she came across her boss”. The casual responds of native speakers were as “So sorry I’m late” and “Excuse me, Sir. I am on my way to meeting”. Hence, Iraqi-Arabic learners had spilled up the responses into two parts, half of them applied the formal apologizing structure by apologizing and then giving reason or justification for being late and the second had to follow the same casual way of native speaker, examples of Iraqi’s responses are as follows:

- _ I apologized for my late arrival, my car was in a traffic jam.
- _ So sorry I’m late.
- _ Please accept my sincere apologies.
- _ Oh hi sir sorry I can’t breath because I was running the road were too crowded so that why I am late for the meeting.
- _ So sorry for my lateness, Mr. Hughs. Thank you so much for your patience. If you’d like to chat I can come find after the meeting?

In these utterances, the findings were more acceptable than unacceptable. However, in the last two points the subjects had to transfer their L1 to L2 “on the assumption underlying the notion of transfer is that learners will tend to employ the native-language forms in their second language utterances” (Cohen and Olshtain, 1983: 177), and this also due to Kellerman’s (1977) notion that such kind of transfer is either reason of insufficient knowledge of the TL, or that the second language learners believes that TL and SL are seemed to be identical in some features. Adding up to this point is that it is necessary to propose that we cannot consider it as a negative transfer but as a way

of progressing since the subject had the confidence in expressing himself socially.

According to Blum-Kulka's framework speech act apology, Turkish learner's responses were dealing more with explaining the cause of the offence either in explicitness as in 'the traffic was really bad today' or implicitness as 'there's traffic'.

The modification expressions of Turkish students were as in:

- Hi boss, sorry for being late, I promise It was my the last time.
- Sir, I am very sorry for being late, I promise it won't happen again!
- Theres no excuse for why I'm late for the meeting but I promise I will try not to make it happen again!

Though other acts had to come with modification or non-modification, either before or after the regret as in:

- I know that I am late I will make up for it, Please accept my apology.
- Thank you for your patience, I know I'm late so let's start right away.

However, the different strategies that the subjects followed were to be acceptable despite the deficiency of linguistic competence, hence, the mean score of Turkish-learners to this situation (0.80) and Iraqi-learners was (0.81).

4.1.1.4. Making Restitution

The subjects were asked to response on (S.12) "You borrowed a camera from your friend and unfortunately you had broken it, and when you met him he asked you to return the camera", most responses were informal and identical to native's response, and also less grammatical mistakes had be denoted, the subjects acted more logically, consistent and able to be understood, hence, on this process it is clear that three tenses (present, past and future) are required as in this act "I am sorry, I accidently broke it, I'll buy another one to you", and it seemed to be more closed to Iraqi- Arabic tenses structure, this made the process acted smoothly, unlike other schisms of tenses (perfect

and continues). Other evidence related to this point was the nature of this situation in which the situation seemed to approach the subjects themselves as being free to act as involvers. Some instances are as follows:

_ I'm really sorry. I broke it by mistake. I'll buy another one.

_ I am very sorry, but I broke it, I will buy you a similar one, don't worry.

_ Listen Mike, I'm terribly sorry but I dropped it and it broke and I promised that I'll buy you a new one.

_ I'm terribly sorry bro. I have broken it, but I'll bring a new one.

_ Oh Mike, I'm sorry. I broke your cameras by accident...I promise you that I'll buy another one. However, two responses had to be acted in a perfectiveness and others were unacceptable, thus the mean score was (0.92). On the second side, some Turkish learners performed this act by

emphasizing on expressing regret then on offering a repair as in:

- I am sorry I broke your camera I didn't mean to do, I'd like to buy a new one.

- Sorry I broke it.

- I regret to say that I break your cam man, but It was by mistake

Turkish learners acted well although some responses had to be a bit longer in giving an offer to repair it, but it seemed to reflect their strategic competence in dealing with this situation, some of the responses are as follows:

-I don't know how to tell you this but please don't freak out... I accidentally broke your camera! don't worry though i'll replace it as soon as possible!

-Hey mike the camera broke, don't worry I'll buy you a new one ASAP and if you need one now I'll find one that we can borrow don't worry mate that you again for the borrow btw.

-I know this will piss of you off really, but the truth is that the camera is broken now...

I promise, I will pay for it to you.

- I broke your camera and I was about to tell you and ask if I could bring it to be fixed before I return it to you?

- I am so sorry Mike but I have accidentally broken your camera. I would love to pay for the repairs.

- My mother went on a holiday and she locked down the house. So I'm staying with my cousin and your camera was at home. We have to wait for my mom. I was going to return it dude, but guess what? I forgot it. Tomorrow I'm gonna find you and I will return that damn camera. See you bro.

- I am really sorry you're your camera was broken unintentionally I can have it repaired or get a new one.

For this evidence Turkish nonnative learners were much keen on formulaic of making restitution by offering a repair or by intending a verbal redress. And for this situation Turkish learners had achieved the highest score (0.96) in this situation.

4.1.1.5. Accepting Responsibility

In this speech act (S.15) "Larry Stevens is a professor at a university. He has promised one of his students Charlie Brown to give him back his term paper after the weekend. The professor hasn't finished reading the paper", the subjects of the two groups were asked to act as the professor, and the findings revealed that thirteen of Iraqi-Arabic learners out of the thirty responded were closed to native's response as in:

- I am sorry, I haven't finished it.

- Charlie sorry. I couldn't finish reading the paper.

- Sorry I have not done.

Other responses had dropped the apology term and giving only reason as in:

- I'm still reading it and I am going to give you my opinion very soon.

- Hi Charl'. I knew you come to get your term paper, but it is not finished yet, so come next Monday to get it.

- Charl' I'm not done reading it yet. I'll give it to you next week.

It seemed that through performing this act as 'a professor' the subjects had felt more freely in expressing themselves as type of a reflection on the self-identity. Thus, Turkish learners were really competent in their performing as in those acting:

- Charlie I know I have told you that I will give your term paper back to you after the weekend but I couldn't. I will give it back to you as soon as possible, sorry

- Hi Larry as you know I have lots of issue to do that's why I couldn't finish your paper. But next time I hope I will

- Oh yes, Charlie! I've been meaning to finish reading your paper, but I want to be so thorough with it, so I'll ask for you another day?

-I have been dealing with some papers and I haven't finished your term paper yet, come back tomorrow.

- I am sorry for that but I haven't finished reading your paper yet. I will complete it as soon as possible and return it to you. Hence, the mean score of Iraqi learners was (0.92) and Turkish learners was (0.93).

4.1.2. Analysis of Phatic Communion

In Phatic Communion (S.2) or as Malinowski calls it "free social intercourse" or 'small talk' which is usually used to start a talk, thus in our speech act situation, the subjects were given a situation in which they asked to comment on bad weather as in "You are sitting on a bench in a bus stop waiting for the bus. It is raining heavily, sitting next to you an English gentlemanly want to start a conversation with him ", Iraqi-Arabic students seemed to have the proficiency level in acting this act and the mean scores was (0.91) some examples are as follow:

_Terrible weather, is not it?

_It's raining cat and dogs today, is not, it?

_Wow, the weather is having a rough time, is not it?

_It's raining frogs today.

_It's a really heavy rain.

However, some responses had less scores due to the deficiency of the grammatical competence precisely in punctuation marks such as style or form of addressing that is instead of Mr., Mrs., and Miss., they had used mr, mss, and mss with lower case, and other mistakes were appeared in dropping the question marks and commas in confirmation (tag) questions, though (2) points were given for this case, examples are as follow:

_Hello mr. How do you do? Can you tell me what time o'clock its now?

_didn't expect it to rain this heavy

_It's nice weather is n't it

_Does it always rain this heavy here?

Turkish-speaking learners had adopted the strategies of asking about time or commenting on the weather as in:

-It's raining cats and dogs, isn't it?

-Hi, do you know what time is it?

-What a rainy day?

However, some responses had acted the sense of negative transfer as in:

-Excuse me sir, I just want to tell that your vibe is making the moment seem like this is a scene from "Singing in the Rain"

-Excuse me, my phone is dead could you please tell me what time is it?

-if you want we can share my umberlla.

Moreover, some responses had got zero since they did not meet the criterion of starting a conversation as in “Hi, how do you do”, “starting with asking what time is or saying hi” and “hello”. Turkish learners got (0.74) for this situations and we considered that it might not due to the lack of knowledge or insufficient strategies but its might due to the Turkish culture or tradition. Turkish people did not like to start a conversation with a stranger since it regarded as a kind of disturbance, and other reason is that Turkey is a tourism country and many international people are around with different languages and this might create a barrier to start a talk with a stranger.

4.1.3. Analysis of Invitation

In invitation acts the subjects of two groups were given three situations, one is peer to peer invitation, the second is higher to lower invitation and the third one is declining invitation.

4.1.3.1. Peer to Peer Invitation

In a peer-to-peer speech act situation, the subjects were given a situation as in “You are planning an office party at the end of the day’s work on Friday. You’d like a friend of yours from another office, Andy Gray, to come”, Iraqi-Arabic students had to respond on this situation by using informal greeting such as “ Hello Andy, Hi Andy, Hey Andy, Andy” followed by “would you like to..., I’m inviting some friends..., Do you want ..., I am planning an office party..., I am goanna to have a party on Friday..., Would you like to come..., I’m having a party...,etc.”., which had to be similar to the native speakers of TL and close to systematic technical procedure of ‘peer to peer’ invitation. However, one of the responses had to act the negative transfer in the expression “what’s your saying” which is totally interference utterance that Iraqi speakers usually say it "ماذا تقول". Hence, this utterance usually used in informal situations, as a way of expressing confirmation, the full responded is “Hey Andy! How

is my friend doing? I'm having a party tonight and I'd like you to be there, what's your saying?", other one is "Hi Andy, I'm planning a party if you're interested, you can come", however, this utterance had to be acceptable but it clearly reflected the interference of L1 in the phrase 'you can come', "إذا لم يأت معكم نعال أو أحضر", hence, the mean score was (0.88).

Moreover, Turkish students had adopted the more casual performing along with more different expressions that seemed to be more natural in performing, instances are as follows:

- Hey Andy we are throwing a party...
- Hey buddy we are having a party on Friday. I want to see you. Will you come to my party?
- Andy why dont you come our office party. Lisa will be there.
- Andy we're holding a party? If it is ok please call me.

Furthermore, some responses were to be in formality as in "Hi Andy. Would you like to join us tonight", and the mean score was (0.88) for Turkish learners performing.

4.1.3.2. Higher to Lower Invitation

In higher to lower invitation of speech act situation, it is said that an excellent way and more formal one is to start with "would you like to---?", however, most responses of Iraqi-Arabic students were quiet competent in expressing this act, instances such as "Would you like to have dinner together at my home Mrs. Sarah Stone?" and as "Would you like to come and have dinner with me and my family Mrs. Stone?", though other responses appeared to be without the starting expression above but they succeeded in carrying the speech act behavior as in "Boss. Are you free tonight? Maybe we can have dinner tonight at my house?", hence, the question raised that one is being competent in linguistic structure of formal system is not enough in improving the

fulfilment of the CC of nonnative speakers, and what is important is the sociolinguistic competence. Thus, most responses were quite competent and the mean was (0.88).

Turkish learners had also applied the steps of inviting procedure some with greetings others with not and some with modification before and others with after, hence, the invitation expression would be as ‘would you like...?’. However, some responses had carried the transformational sense of L1, hence, the mean score was (0.91) some of responses are as follows:

-I have a delicious menu for the dinner, would you like to come over?

-Ms.Stone. I’d be glad if you could come to my home for dinner tonight.

-I was wondering if you would like to come to my house for dinner?

-Hey boss, you’ve been killing it with the decisions lately, everyone is happy in the company thanks to your decisions just like the motivation output is higher too, I would like to talk more with you over dinner if you’re available?

4.1.3.3. Declining Invitation

In declining invitation, the findings of Iraqi-Arabic learners were (0.91) and that most of the subjects had followed the regular steps of declining invitation by saying sorry, giving excuse, be succinct, and be clear such as “Sorry, I can’t come because I have work today.”, hence, out of thirty responses, four had to give a long excuse instead of a brief one as “I am sorry but I have some stuff I need to complete it. I will join to you in another time, enjoy with your time.”, and in “I’m sorry, but I’m not able to join you today, I have some errands to run, and I promised a friend that I should call this afternoon.”, and other “Sorry, I can’t I have a headache and I’m going directly to bed, another time perhaps.”, and this due to culture and social factors of Iraqi of giving a long excuse or reason as a kind of showing respect to other face. Though most of them didn’t use the fourth step of being polite as to close the declining invitation with

something positive as in example illustrated before (e.g., I hope you have a great time.), with Turkish students most responses were competent in following the steps of declining invitation and the mean score was (0.91), some performing are as follow:

-Sorry, I don't feel like playing today. Maybe next time?

-I really appreciate your kind invitation but I'm not in the mood for a game.

-Thank you but I don't now how to play it.

4.1.4. Analysis of Asking for Information

In this speech act situation Iraqi-Arabic students were more competent in this act than others act since the total score is (0.96), and most responses were in following the regular steps of a formal construction in using an appropriate way of asking 'an old woman to show a stranger the way to the Town Hall', instances are as "Excuse me. Could you tell me how to get ti the town hall, please?", "I'm so sorry to bother you but could you tell me where I can find the Town Hall? It's my first time here!". Moreover, Turkish learners used the "appropriately formal construction" (Bear, 2019: 1f) in following the "Structures: Pardon me / Excuse me + Subject+ Can / Could you [(please)] tell me +wh? +Subject+verb" (ibid).

Though examples of Turkish subjects are as follows:

-Excuse me ma'am, can you tell me where is the Town Hall, please?

-Excuse me, could you tell me how i can go to the town hall, please?

Yet other responses used the casual form of asking that is more like native speakers' responses along with more direct way, examples as:

-Where is the Town Hall?

-Hello madam, How can I go to town hall?

-Hi, Can I ask a question? I am new I dont know anywhere, how can I go to the town hall?

And it needs to comment on two responses which seemed to reflect personal factors in courtesy as in:

-A beautiful woman in a town means that you find compass so that you will never get lost again. Can you tell me where is the town hall?

-Excuse me miss, your dress is amazing, I'm looking for the town hall can you help me please? As a result, the mean score of Turkish learners was (0.97).

4.1.5. Analysis of Request

In a request act four situations (ask for order (S.8), higher to lower (S.16), junior to senior (S.18), equals (S.19) were given to the two groups to response.

4.1.5.1. Ask for Order Request

In speech act situation 'ask for order', the request situation was designed as "You are in a fast-food restaurant. You'd like to have stake and French fries. You to the waitress.", the first group of the participants of Iraqi-Arabic learners had to be closed to the native speaker's respond along with the obvious following to the basic rules of this concept, most responses were in following the syntactic and semantic features of request strategy, hence five subjects had used the interrogative-past tense modal see (Table 3.1) "Could you bring me / get me / a stake and French fries, please?", and one subject preferred the declarative-present tense modal "Do you have anything that has stake and French fries on the menu, if so I would like to order that, please, thank you", and seven of them used the declarative-past tense modal "I'd like to have a stake and a French fries, please,", two employed declarative-no modal "Hello, I want stake and French fries, if they're available in your restaurant.", and the remaining were like those "yes, with water please, yes, with low salt, yes, please bring me a plate of fries potatoes" as to be free from syntactic and semantic features and more closed to L1, though most subjects adhered to be polite in their request even with imperative and

imperative-elliptical modals we noticed the word “please” was applied in all acts. The result was (0.93).

On the other part, Turkish learners had also come to be in the following the syntactic and semantic features of request strategy and their performing were swung around the modals as it came with its peer but their acting were much competent than Iraqi learners and less grammatical mistakes had to be occurred and the result score had (0.96) come to prove the claim.

4.1.5.2. Higher to Lower Request

In higher to lower speech act request and as “You are an officer in the army. One of the soldiers in your command. Private Phill Bush is leaving your room and you want him to close the door as he leaves”, fifteen responses of Iraqi-Arabic learners were closed to the direct speech act as in “Close the door”, and nine of them were performed with interrogative-past tense modal as in “Could / Would you close the door, please?”, and one comes as interrogative-present modal “Excuse me. Can you close the door, please?” which had to be acted as a negative transfer in that “Excuse me” has the translated meanings as (من نضلك/إذا نسرح) and it is usually used in a special appropriate context of Iraqi tradition, e.g., Excuse me, could you show me the way to the Istanbul Sabahattin Zaim University, please? the subject in his using of “Excuse me” tried to act politely but in fact he employed his L1 to L2 since the translation of the word is المذره-muedharat and not من نضلك, hence, Arabic language is a rich language and it has for one word many related meaningful words. Thus, for “Excuse me” there are many expressions such as نسرح المذره, عفوا, اعدhhtherni, عذري, in which each one has an appropriate context, another act which performed the translation of L1 to L2 is in “Would you take the door behind you?”, the expression of “take the door behind you” is totally Iraqi-Arabic colloquial

language as comes to mean “close the door”, we also noticed that Iraqi-Arabic learners pointedly focused on politeness concept as in the previous situation though the result in this act was (0.96).

Turkish-speakers students preferred the direct speech act in that twenty-six of them used the direct act as in “Close the door” and the remaining responses were swinging between interrogative-past tense modal as in “Could / Would you close the door, please?” and interrogative-present modal “Excuse me. Can you close the door, please”, though the mean score was (0.94)

4.1.5.3. Junior to Senior Request

In junior to senior speech act, the situation was “You are a junior officer at an office. You want to ask your boss Barry Willam for a day-off”, in this act Iraqi-Arabic learners were abided to use the eight-level hierarchy based on three syntactic / semantic features mode, modal, and tense of modal see Table (3.1), examples were given by this group are as “May I have / can I get a day off?”, “I’d like to ask for a day off?” and “Hi, my boss I want a day off if it is possible.”.

All responses were in indirect way as to sound more polite, and here again most subjects endeavored to give excuses that were in fluctuation between sickness, doctor’s appointment, house emergency, and family emergency. Instances such as “I want a day off because my son is ill.”, “Sir can I have a day off, I have an emergency/ it’s my mother funeral/ a dentist appointment.”, and most long excuse carried the strategy of speaking that some people usually adopted and it reflect the translation of L1 to L2 “Hi Mr. Willams. My family’s are coming to visit me in a few weeks, and I’d like to take a family off so I can pick them up at the airport and spend some extra time with them while they’r in the town. I checked the calender and I didn’t see any big due dates, or meeting that day. Is it allright if I take a day off? Is there a time-off from that

I should submit to the secretary?”, hence, the mean score (0.86).

Turkish students’ responses were in the same level of Iraqi-Arabic’s responses in using (May I / I want /if I could / I would like to /do you mind), though giving reasons were less than Iraqi students and most responses had to be closed to the native speakers responses and others were out of score, though the mean score was (0.89).

4.1.5.4. Lower to Higher Request

For lower to higher request, native speaker response was as “What’s the word limit” which has to be more direct, Iraqi-Arabic learners and Turkish learners had to be also closed to the syntactic/semantic features of polite request along with (Wh-Q formula) expressions like “How many words are required”, “How many words it should be”, the mean score of Iraqi-Arabic is (0.97) and Turkish learners is (0.91).

4.1.5.5. Equals Request

In equals request, native speakers had to adopt the interrogative-present tense modal as in “Can I borrow your note-book, please?” and that twenty two responses of Iraqi-Arabic learners and eighteen responses of Turkish learners were much like the native’s response, though seven of Iraqi and eight of Turkish students used interrogative-past tense modal as “Could I borrow your note-book, please?”, and one Iraqi’s response carried the declarative-no modal as “Sandra please, I want to borrow your note book, I will return it back later.”, and three of Turkish learners used the same as “Hey Sandra, I need your note book.”, hence, the mean score of Iraqi learners was (0.98) and for Turkish learners was (0.98).

4.1.6. Analysis of Introduction

In introducing speech act situations, four situations were given to response by the two groups introducing peer to peer (S.1), introducing yourself (S.4), introducing junior to senior (S.11), introducing lower to higher-ranking (S.13), introducing older to younger

(S.17).

4.1.6.1. Peer to Peer Introduction

In this act both groups performed the act perfectly though some responses out to be irrelevant and the mean score of Iraqi-learners was (0.86) and Turkish-learners (0.94), however, most Turkish responses were quite sound to native speakers' responses and identical to introduction formula.

4.1.6.2. Introducing Yourself

In the speech act situation concerning introducing yourself, Iraqi-Arabic learners presented the basic protocol of introducing (full name, what you do, and what others need to know). However, twenty-one of the subjects had to be identical to native speaker's response. And what is interesting in this act is that culture transition had clearly acted, Iraqi speakers of nonnative language reflected his /her culture by expressing courtesy after applying all the rules of protocol of introduction, such instance "Nice to meet Sir, I am Paul Wood, a civil engineer at your company, Sir it's great to finally meet the man behind all of the great ideas, I heard about for so long." , and other response "Hello, nice to meet you Mr.Taylor it's my pleasure to work with you in your company. I hope will do a wonderful job", hence the mean score was (0.88).

On the other hand, Turkish learners had also followed the protocol formulas of introducing yourself as in "Hi Mr. Taylor, I am Paul Wood, a civil engineer", "Hello Mr. Taylor, let me introduce myself , my name is Paul Woods. I am a civil engineer of the company", however, some responses had acted the role of transformation of mother language as in "So that why you are drinking an 100 year old wine and I can only drink a beer because I am the engineer and you are the manager of this company. Paul Woods, nice to meet you", and "Hey isn't that the famous Robert Taylor the greatest

manager of this company has ever seen, I'm Paul Woods. Nice to meet you", though the mean score was (0.78). The two groups introduced themselves efficiently, their adequacy in following the steps of introducing were more impending to native speakers.

4.1.6.3. Introducing Junior to Senior

For the introducing junior to senior act, "You are a senior officer in a supermarket. Introduce the new cashier, Helen Hunt, to the general director, Ruth Roberts.". In this situation which holds the point of a junior to senior, most Iraqi-Arabic responses showed that the subjects were competent in this regard, such instance as "Mr. Robert, this is Helen Hunt a new cashier at our supermarket.". However, some responses had been in clashing between brief and long one as in "Mr. Roberts, this is the new cashier Helen Hunt" and "Hi Mr. Roberts, this is Helen Hunt, The new cashier, she is very intelligent and hard working.", the mean score was (0.88).

Turkish students expressed this act perfectly and the mean score was (0.94), examples are as follows:

-Ms Roberts, this is our new cashier Helen Hunt

-Mr. Robert, I would like to introduce you to our new cashier Helen.

4.1.6.4. Introducing Higher to Lower

In this situation "You are a professor at the college of Arts, you'd like to introduce your friend Michael Elbin, a professor at the college of Education to Sam White, the Dean of your college.", twenty four subjects of Iraqi-Arabic learners got plus (3point) on this act and six of them had got (2point), however, most of responses had been identical to native speaker and followed the introducing protocol, but in those were getting (2 point) had some deviations in their grammatical competence exclusively in punctuation, hence, the means of Iraqi-Arabic learners was (0.93). Turkish students

'responses in this act interfered between following the protocol technique and deviation the rules of it, though the result was (0.88).

4.1.6.5. Introducing Older to Younger

In introducing older to younger "You want to introduce your grandfather to your new neighbors Clare and Bill Speed.", in this act most Iraqi-Arabic learners had to be fluctuated between briefly and verbosely expressions as in "Grandpa. Mr. And Mrs. Speed are our new neighbors.", "Grandpa, Mr. And Mrs. Speed are our neighbors, they are really nice and helpful.", and other "Clear, Bill, I'd like you to meet my grandfather, Grandpa, these are my new neighbors Clear and Bill Speed. They just moved in last week! They've been completed the rose bush you planted at the corner of our garden.", Hence the mean score on this situation was (0.98) and for Turkish learners was (0.89). However, Turkish learners seemed to adopt more casual and informal way as in:

-Hi Speeds, say hello to my grandfather.

-Hello this is my grandfather.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter presents and discusses the results of this study in accordance with the research questions and gives the conclusion of the findings of this study.

5.1. Discussion of the Results

In this study, having well-defined speech act situations allowed the researcher to be able to measure the ability to use speech acts by different groups of learners. However, by working within situations we were able to identify the similarities and differences in the use of speech acts in the cross cultures pragmatic production along with explaining and predicting problems in L2 learning. Thus, we found that in apology five speech act situations both groups performed well though some deviations from the cultural patterns of native English speakers seemed to be a result from negative transfer than on a misperception of how to use the formulas in English. Hence, Iraqi-learners were less likely to express the apology of regret than Turkish learners (0.86 Iraqi vs. 0.89 Turkish) and the same with accepting responsibility (0.92 Iraqi vs. 0.93 Turkish) and for making restitution (0.92 Iraqi vs. 0.96 Turkish). However, the conversely appeared with genuinely repenting apology (0.93 Iraqi vs. 0.91 Turkish) and with requesting forgiveness of apology, the mean scores were as (0.81 Iraqi vs. 0.80 Turkish).

Furthermore, both groups appeared to deal with the situations by using strategic procedure in handling the act rather than following the apology protocol patterns. Hence, some of the nonnatives of two groups may not have been proficient enough in English to readily include the expected semantic formulas in their responses in the testing situations but they had appeared to serve the situations purpose through their performing.

For examples, “Thank you for your patience professor, I was so interested in the book that I wanted to spend a little more time with it, I really appreciate you sharing this book with me” and the other one “Sorry Sir, but... book? Did not we agree on the next weekend?”. The average score was (0.89 Iraqi vs. 0.90 Turkish), see (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1 Frequency distribution of the five apology formulas by situations	SEMANTIC FORMULAS	Nonnative Iraqi-Arabic learners (n:30)	Nonnative Turkish learners (n:30)
SITUATION			
Apologizing on not bringing the professor's book	Genuinely repenting	0.93	0.91
Stepping on gentleman's toes	Expressing regret	0.86	0.89
Arriving late for an important meeting	Requesting forgiveness	0.81	0.80
Broking your friend's camera	Making restitution	0.92	0.96
A professor didn't retain back a student's term paper	Accepting responsibility	0.92	0.93
Average		0.89	0.90

In phatic communion, Iraqi students performed well although some responses had some grammatical mistakes precisely in punctuation marks as in one of the examples “hi miss could you please show me the way to the twan hall.”, and this supported the notion that “natural communication in which speakers are concentrated not in the form of their utterances, but in the communication act” (Al-Jumaily, 1982:29). Another point is that we asked the subjects to comment on bad weather in order to start a small talk but we noticed that some of the two groups students had commented on asking about the time as in “sorry Miss, Could you tell me what time is it now?”, and this state had reconsidered us to Vygotsky’s (1987) view of interaction as “when a different

modules of the mind interact to construct an understanding of a person to some phenomena, hence proposing two kinds of interaction i.e. interpersonal interaction and personal interaction” (Ghaemi and Nasir, 2014:24) and for Gass and Torres’ point of view, interaction can be defined as “exchanges in which there is some evidence that a part of the speech has not been fully understood” (2005:2). To this end the two points of view might clarify this problem and as Krashen emphasized on the necessity for input to be comprehensible, students might fully understand the situation and acted according to their interpersonal communication or they did not comprehend the situation and responded accordingly.

Turkish-students appeared to have less scores though much of responses had scored full marks but others appeared to be irrelevant and out of English pattern of native speakers as in “hi, where are you from?” or just like “i fell not good today”, and “if you want to share my umberella”, however, other had to be carried the negative transfer of social factors, thus, the mean score (0.91 Iraqi vs.0.74 Turkish) see (Table 5.2).

Table 5.2 Frequency distribution of phatic communion formula by situations

SITUATION	SEMANTIC FORMULAS	Nonnative Iraqi-Arabic learners (n:30)	Nonnative Turkish learners (n:30)
Starting a conversation by commented on the weather	Peer to peer	0.91	0.74

For invitation speech acts situations, the two groups acted well even though their performing swung between formal and informal way along with interference and negative transfer by giving a long excuse. Besides, in creative constructive hypothesis learners may believe that L2 acquisition= L1 acquisition, that is in learning a second language learners make use of universal cognitive mechanisms in communication. Hence, the peer-to-peer invitation (0.88 Iraqi vs. 0.88 Turkish) and declining invitation

situations (0.91 Iraqi vs. 0.91 Turkish) the mean scores of two groups had to be equal and for higher to lower speech act the result came as (0.88 Iraqi vs. 0.91 Turkish), Turkish learners had scored higher than Iraqi learners in inviting the boss to a dinner, though some deflections were also accord in Iraqi learners' responses.

Moreover, the highest score was settled to declining invitation in that both groups were relatively closed to the native English responds, as shown in Table (5.3).

Table 5.3 Frequency distribution of the three main invitation formulas by situations

SITUATION	SEMANTIC FORMULAS	Nonnative Iraqi-Arabic learners (n:30)	Nonnative Turkish learners (n:30)
You invited your friend to an office party	Peer to peer	0.88	0.88
You don't like to accept your friend invitation	Declining invitation	0.91	0.91
Inviting your boss to dinner at your home	Higher to lower	0.88	0.91
Average		0.89	0.90

It is important to say that both of them followed the syntactic-semantic formulas, however, in some situations the problem appeared to be on negative transfer rather than on grammatical competence, for example in Iraqi's side "I'm cooking my very special recipes tonight at dinner. I will be really happy if you joined me tonight and telling me about your honest opinion about my cooking cuz I trust your test", another response by Turkish learner is "Hey boss, you've been killing it with the decision lately, everyone is happy in the company thanks to your decicions, just like the

motivation output is higher too, I would like to talk more with you over dinner if you'r available".

Furthermore, there were situations where students appeared to deal with the situation by using strategic procedure in handling the situation rather than following the apology patterns. For examples, "Thank you for your patience professor, I was so interested in the book that I wanted to spend a little more time with it, I really appreciate you sharing this book with me" and the other one "Sorry Sir, but... book? Did not we agree on the next weekend?".

In asking for information see (Table 5.4) both groups were extremely competent in speech acts realization and the highest score was for Turkish in comparison with Iraqi score (0.96 Iraqi vs.0.97 Turkish).

Table 5.4 Frequency distribution of ask for information formulas by situations

SITUATION	SEMANTIC FORMULAS	Nonnative Iraqi-Arabic learners (n:30)	Nonnative Turkish learners (n:30)
Asking an old woman about the direction of the Town Hall	Peer to peer	0.96	0.97

For request speech act situations, in ask for order situation both groups followed the syntactic and semantic features of request strategy and their performing were swung around the modals and for higher to lower, the direct way of request was a dominant one though the transformation and interference appeared in some responses, and concerning junior to senior situation the indirect strategy was a predominant one as to show the politeness sense though both sides endeavored to give excuse and for lower to higher request and equal request most responses were competent. However, the result was in ask for order (0.93 Iraqi vs. 0.96 Turkish) and with junior to senior speech act (0.86 Iraqi vs. 0.89 Turkish) while other situations as in higher to lower (0.96 Iraqi

vs.0.94 Turkish) and with lowest to higher (0.97 Iraqi vs. 0.91 Turkish) less low score of Turkish- students, hence the equal request the two groups scored the same mean score which was (0.98).And the average score for this situation was (0.94 Iraqi vs. 0.94 Turkish), the same scores were equal for both groups and by the findings we concluded that both of them performed well despite the deviations of linguistics forms see (Table 5.5).

Table 5.5 Frequency distribution of the five main requests formulas by situations

SITUATION	SEMANTIC FORMULAS	Nonnative Iraqi-Arabic learners (n:30)	Nonnative Turkish learners (n:30)
Asking the waitress to have stake and French fries	Ask for order	0.93	0.96
An officer in the army asked his soldier to close the door	Higher to lower	0.96	0.94
A student asked his professor about the words required to write an essay	Lower to higher	0.97	0.91
Borrowing a note book from your friend	Equals	0.98	0.98
Asking a day off from your boss	Junior to senior	0.86	0.89
Average		0.94	0.94

Furthermore, in introduction formulas most learners of the two groups had followed the protocol formulas of introducing though some acts carried the sense of culture transition by expressing courtesy after applying the rules of protocol of introduction. the highest scores of Turkish-learners' responses appeared in peer-to-peer speech act (0.86 Iraqi vs. 0.94 Turkish) and with junior to senior (0.88 Iraqi vs. 0.94 Turkish), while in the three remaining situations Iraqi-speaking learners scores were the highest as in older to younger speech act (0.98 Iraqi vs. 0.89 Turkish) and for higher to lower the scores result was (0.93 Iraqi vs. 0.88 Turkish). Thus, the average score of two groups

was (0.91 Iraqi vs. 0.89 Turkish), Iraqi-speaking learners had got the highest score in introduction speech act see (Table 5.6).

Table 5.6 Frequency distribution of the five main introduction formulas by situations

SITUATION	SEMANTIC FORMULAS	Nonnative Iraqi-Arabic learners (n:30)	Nonnative Turkish learners (n:30)
Introducing your friend, a sales manager to your own manager	Peer to peer	0.86	0.94
Introducing yourself to your general manager company	Introducing yourself	0.88	0.78
Introducing a professor of the college Education to your Dean of your college	Higher to lower	0.93	0.88
Introducing a new Cashier to general director	Junior to senior	0.88	0.94
Introducing your grandpa to your neighbor	Older to younger	0.98	0.89
Average		0.91	0.89

To conclude, both groups were relatively competent in the use of speech acts of the target language though there were a variance proportion among situations as we explained above. Thus, the findings showed that the total percentage of Iraqi-speaking learners scored higher than (0.92) Turkish-speaking learners (0.89) as it shows in the table below.

Table 5.7 Total Average

Table	SPEECH ACTS SITUATIONS	Nonnative Iraqi-Arabic learners (n:30)	Nonnative Turkish learners (n:30)
1	Apology	0.89	0.90
2	Introduction	0.91	0.89
3	Request	0.94	0.94
4	Phatic communion	0.91	0.74
5	Ask for information	0.96	0.97

6	Invitation	0.89	0.90
Total		0.92	0.89

5.2. Pedagogical Implications

This study is a contribution to more detailed analysis of interlanguage and cross-cultural pragmatics. It may also help in producing a clearer picture of differences in the use of speech acts and help to understand the nature of stylistic variation across cultures. For this study there are pedagogical implications for ELT language classes that may be useful for students and teachers in ELT classes. Hence, this study revealed that the use of speech acts should be taken more into consideration in language teaching and learning since speech act covers a wide range of linguistic forms with their functions that is as what people use language for, in which situations are to be more gentle or more polite in our society, when to use direct or indirect speech acts and what is the crucial distinction in the use of these two types of speech acts in cross cultures pragmatic production, what are the social factors and culture traditions of the L1 and L2 languages and how the distinction between them may affect the use of speech acts in different cultures possessing different rules of appropriateness. The emphasis on the importance of cross-cultural speech acts studies should be enhanced by the teachers as well as by learners. All these assumptions could assist teachers to help their students in ELT classes to be competent in the target language.

Furthermore, this study detected that to be competent in the target language teachers and students should focus more on the importance of the use of speech acts as a social phenomenon, that they should have knowledge about native speakers' pragmatic speech acts in a natural environment and not only knowledge of the structural protocol of speech act that widely teach in schools and institutions, for instance, what are the casual ways of speaking in social context.

Up to these discussions, teachers should pay more attention to interlanguage system or

interlanguage pragmatics which has been defined as the study of non-native speakers and how this inherent variable may affect the basis of all L2 production and how it may naturally develop and become a more effective means of communication which will cause different types of deviations in the production of speech act. Moreover, teachers should also dig out to discover the reasons behind this deviation from the target language and whether they are due to the situation or grammatical and lexical factors. Furthermore, teacher should provide their students with ability to have the four components of communicative competence in their processing of learning and gives the importance for each one of them and not only linguistic forms. Finally, students in ELT classes as foreign speakers should have a complete knowledge about interlanguage system, elicitation techniques, approaches of second language.

5.3. Limitations of the Study

This study is a contribution to more detailed analysis of interlanguage and cross-cultural pragmatics. Although this study has achieved its main objectives but there are some limitations to this study. The key limitation is that it was carried out at only two foundation universities in İstanbul Sabahattin Zaim Üniversitesi, Turkey and University of Babylon, Iraq in ELT departments.

Subjects were 62 in total, 30 students from each part and 2 native American speakers serve as models for validity of findings. Thus, we believed that different results could have arisen if the participants were more than sixty subjects. Second, we only examined learners' use of speech acts in twenty situations. Examining a more inclusive use of speech act in more than twenty situations would provide a better picture of language learners' pragmatic competence. Moreover, depending on only one instrument which is Discourse Completion Tasks had the advantage of promoting the findings of this study but interviews elicitation technique could be more magnitude to

the study that is we could not adopt because of the Corona pandemic.

5.4. Suggestions for Further Research

This research study puts forward some recommendations for further research in the field of ELT. Firstly, with the importance of being competent in the target language through the use of speech acts or any other phenomenon the need required further studies concerning this aspect. Since the ability to perform speech acts in the target language is an important component of language competence, further studies on how this ability can be improved in second language learners are required. Also, further studies may include a large number of students and different speech acts situations in order to achieve the validity and reliability of the study.

Secondly, as this study was conducted with two cross- cultures in ELT departments in Turkey and Iraqi universities in fourth year level, their perceptions and reflections may be related to this particular learning environment. Hence, for further studies the research study and its implementation could be carried out for any level of learning in ELT departments or for the reinforcement of reliability and validity the inclusion of all levels will be more significant.

Thirdly, depending on more than one technique for elicitation learners' productive language performance on pragmatic abilities in variety of speech acts will achieve more reliable data, such techniques as structured interviews, role plays and along with DCT or any other structure questionnaires, and the combinations of them will provide extensive views of research methodologies in L2 pragmatics. Finally, on the basis of these recommendations above the findings of this study should be considered as suggestive rather than definitive and more studies need to be conducted to find out how these findings can be enriched by using alternative research setting, data collection tools and other research methods. This study is mainly expected to

contribute to the literature with regard to effects of the use of speech acts.

5.5. Conclusion

Our study aimed to investigate if the two cross-cultures nonnatives of Turkish-speaking learners of Istanbul Sabahattin Zaim University and Iraqi-Arabic-speaking learners of University of Babylon were competent in the use of speech acts of the English language, or if one of them was more competent than the other or if one of them had deviated from the rules of the target language in the production tasks.

The elicitation instrument we adopted in using Discourse Completion Task had served the purpose for assessing the use of speech acts of the two groups. And as Levenston (1975) had also done by focusing on a variety of speech acts rather than one type of speech acts, our range of selections came as five situations of request (ask for order, higher to lower, lower to higher, equals, and junior to senior), five situations of introduction (peer to peer, introducing yourself, higher to lower, junior to senior, and older to younger), three situations for invitation (peer to peer, higher to lower, and declining invitation), five apology situations (genuinely repenting, expressing regret, requesting forgiveness, accepting responsibility and making restitution), one of phatic communion situation and one ask for information.

Hence, our selection of this choice had built on this instrument since speech acts included real- life interaction and required not only knowledge of language but also appropriate use of that language within a given culture. Furthermore, the subjects had produced a corpus of (1200) speech acts situations relanced on a range of discourse behavior rather than one discourse situation. And by the findings we concluded that both groups were extremely competent in performing the discourse situations despite the ascending and descending in their percentage of performing among the situations, though after calculated the percentage we found that Iraqi-speaking learners were

higher in just only (3) points than Turkish-speaking learners.

The results indicated that the subjects had used formal and informal strategies graded from a simple to an intensified one. Moreover, despite the differences in responses, Iraqi learners preferred the formal and indirect strategy more than Turkish learners while Turkish learners were in favor to the casual form (close to native's responses) and direct way. Thus, Iraqi learners used a range of strategy rather than a single one as in the majority of Turkish learners' responses.

Another point which was not the main purpose of the study but we felt it should be recalled for the usefulness in implications of second or foreign language learning-teaching. The problem was that Iraqi learners had more mistakes concerning linguistics forms than Turkish learners especially in punctuation aspect and this might due to the attention that had been paid in recent time to communication approach than to have a full mastery upon the language forms, focusing on communication competence more than linguistic competence. Moreover, from Interlanguage pragmatics perspective the phenomenon of transfer had investigated in the pragmatic production of the use of speech acts and by the findings we concluded that the transfer from Turkish and Iraqi first language does occur. Thus, by the findings of this study we concluded that both groups Turkish- speaker learners and Iraqi-Arabic learners of English as a foreign language were extremely competent speakers of the target language and each one of them were in discrepancy in percentage between one situation to another or being equal in performing speech act realization, some deviations occurred in a small proportion of nonnatives due to cultural transition and social factors.

We concluded that despite the discrepancy in percentage among situations, it is important to say that the deviations appeared in a small promotion of nonnatives due to cultural transition and social factors and to this point, we agreed with Corder (1973:

18) in his point of view in “it is misleading to refer to idiosyncratic sentence of language learner as deviant” or erroneous “because it implies willful or inadvertent breach of rules”.

Finally, it is important to say that we should draw readers’ attention to the speech acts of the TL in each context need to work on and the future classroom instruction should be directed at those speech acts that language learners performed relatively poor. Alternatively, the speech act where learners perform well or close to native speaker may require less attention.

If more evidence is collected from language learners with different L1s, the findings may also reveal the speech acts that are universally easier to acquire regardless of students L1. It will in turn help SLA researchers map out the acquisition difficulty of each speech act.

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Appendix
Discourse Completion Task (DCT)
Student Questionnaire

Part 1: Background Information:

1. Age: -----
2. Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female
3. Nationality: ☐ Turkish ☐ Iraqi ☐ Other -----
4. Native Language: ☐ Turkish ☐ English ☐ Arabic -----

5. Class: BA ☐ 1st year ☐ 2nd year ☐ 3rd year ☐ 4th year

Part 2: Complete each of the following texts with what you think is the best expression.

1. You are the manager of a marketing company. You want to introduce Susan Hayward, the sales manager at TESCO, to your own sales manager, Alan Davies.

You: _____

2. You are sitting on a bench in a bus stop waiting for the bus. It is raining heavily. Sitting next to you an English gentleman. You want to start a conversation with him.

You: _____

3. Jim Price is a postgraduate student at a university. He borrowed a book from Professor Steven Corder promising to return it after the weekend. Today is Monday. Price has

forgotten to bring the book. He runs into Prof Corder in the corridor. Corder:
Jim, have you brought the book?

Jim: _____

4. You ate Paul Woods a civil engineer at a company. At accompany party you
come across Robert Taylor the general manager of the company. You'd like to
introduce yourself.

You: _____

5. You are a stranger in a town. You are looking for the Town Hall. You don't
know where it is. An old woman is coming along.

You: _____

6. You'd like to invite your boss. Sara Stone, to dinner at your home.

You: _____

7. You are standing in a crowded bus. You step on gentleman's toes.

You: _____

8. You are in a fast-food restaurant. You'd like to have stake and French fries.

You (to the waitress):

9. You are planning an office party at the end of the day's works on Friday.
You'd like a friend of yours from another office, Andy Gray, to come.

You:

10. Jill Shearer is a secretary at company. She arrives late for an important meeting. While hurrying along the corridor to the hall she comes across her boss, Mark Hughes.

Jill:

1. You are a professor at the College of Arts. You'd like to introduce your friend Michael Elbin, a professor at the College of Education to Sam White, the Dean of your college.

You:

2. You borrowed a camera from one of your friends, Mike Mcleod. You broke it. You meet Mike at school and he asks to return the camera because he needs it.

You:

3. You are a senior officer in a supermarket. Introduce the new cashier, Helen Hunt, to the general director, Ruth Roberts.

You:_____

4. Your neighbor is asking you to join him in a game of chess. You don't feel like _____ going. You:

5. Larry Stevens is a professor at a university. He has promised one of his students, Charlie Brown, to give him back his term paper after the weekend. The professor hasn't finished reading the paper. It is Monday and Charlie is at the teacher's office.

Prof:_____

You are an officer in the army. One of the soldiers in your command, Private Phil Bush is leaving your room. You want him to close the door as he leaves.

You:_____

6. You want to introduce your grandfather to your new neighbors Clare and Bill Speed.

You:_____

7. You are a junior officer at an office. You want to ask your boss, Barry Williams for a day off.

You:_____

----- You are a student at a university. Your teacher has asked to write an essay on a
----- certain topic. You'd like to know the number of words required.

You: _____

----- You are at a college. You want to borrow your friend's, Sandra Lopez note-book.

You: _____



PERSONAL INFORMATION

Name: Raghad

Last Name: Mezaal

Nationality: Iraqi

EDUCATION

Degree	Institution	Year-of-Graduation
Diploma	Teachers Training Institute	1993
BA	University of Babylon	2020
MA	Iraqi Institute for Higher Studies	2017
MA	Istanbul Sabahattin Zaim University	2021

WORK EXPERIENCE

English Teacher (1993-2007)

Director of British Languages Institute (2013-2021)

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

English and beginner level in Turkish

INTEREST

Writing and Reading