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REFUSAL STRATEGIES OF PRESERVICE EFL TECHERS IN FOUR SPEECH ACTS: REQUESTS, SUGGESTIONS, INVITATIONS, AND OFFERS

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ABSTRACT

REFUSAL STRATEGIES OF PRESERVICE EFL TEACHERS IN FOUR SPEECH ACTS: REQUESTS, SUGGESTIONS, INVITATIONS, AND OFFERS

This study supports the idea that pragmatic competence plays a big role in language competence and performance (Crystal, 1997) and argues that EFL teaching contexts should include pragmatics. The study focuses on the relationship among refusal strategy preferences, and three social factors such as social status, social distance, and imposition. Moreover, this study investigates the frequency and shift of semantic formulas with regard to types of speech acts (request, offer, suggestion, and invitation).

Sixty two preservice EFL teachers at fourth grade and six native speakers of English participated in the study. All the participants were asked to fill out a background questionnaire, a written discourse test (WDCT), and a multiple choice discourse test (MDCT). The participants were asked to discuss the situations with a pair while doing the MDCT, which fills a gap in the Turkish literature.

The results of the WDCT revealed that excuse, gratitude, and regret were the most preferred strategies by Turkish participants respectively. Furthermore, the analysis showed that Turkish participants were sensitive about social status. Turkish participants employed (a) indirect strategies more while refusing a higher status person, and (b) negative willingness while refusing lower status person.

The results of the MDCT support the findings of the WDCT as Turkish participants mostly preferred the options with indirect strategies. Moreover, the

analysis of the transcripts of the discussions show that Turkish participants were sensitive about social variables.

Considering the results, this thesis may contribute to the understanding of refusals by Turkish speakers, and to decrease the possibility of misunderstandings in intercultural communication.

KEY WORDS: pragmatics, pragmatic competence, speech acts, refusals, social variables

ÖZET

İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENİ ADAYLARININ RİCA, ÖNERİ, DAVET VE TEKLİF TÜRÜNDEKİ DÖRT SÖZEYLEMİ REDDETME YÖNTEMLERİ

Bu çalışma edimbilim yetisinin dili anlama ve kullanma konusunda önemli bir rol oynadığını destekler (Crystal, 1997) ve İngilizce'nin yabancı dil olarak öğretildiği durumlarda edimbilimin yer alması gerektiğini savunur. Bu çalışma reddetme sözeylemi stratejileri tercihleri ve farklı sosyal değişkenler (sosyal statü, sosyal uzaklık, zahmet) arasındaki ilişkiye odaklanmaktadır. Ek olarak, bu çalışma reddetme stratejilerinin sıklığını ve en çok kullanılan anlamsal formülü farklı sözeylemleri (rica, teklif, öneri, davet) bakımından tespit etmeyi amaçlamaktadır.

Bu bağlamda, İngilizce Öğretmenliği Bölümü 4.sınıfta eğitim gören İngilizce öğretmeni adayı 62 Türk katılımcı ve anadili İngilizce olan altı kişi çalışmaya katılmıştır. Tüm katılımcılara arkaplan anketini, yazılı söylem tamamlama testini ve çoktan seçmeli söylem testleri uygulandı. Bütün katılımcılardan çoktan seçmeli testi yaparken bir eşle durumlar hakkında tartışmaları istenmiştir ki bu durum Türk literatüründeki bir boşluğu doldurmuştur.

Yazılı söylem tamamlama testinin sonuçlarına göre açıklama, şükran ve pişmanlık sırayla Türk katılımcılar tarafından en çok kullanılan stratejilerdir. Diğer önemli bulgu ise Türk katılımcılar sosyal statü konusunda hassastırlar. Türk katılımcılar dolaylı stratejileri kendilerinden daha yüksek statüdeki kişiyi reddederken kullanırken olumsuz isteklilik stratejisini daha düşük statüdeki kişiyi reddederken kullanmışlardır.

Diğer bir taraftan, Türk katılımcılar çoktan seçmeli söylem testinde de dolaylı strateji olan seçenekleri daha çok seçmişlerdir ve bu sonuç da yazılı söylem

tamamlama testinin bulgusunu desteklemektedir. Bunun yanında, transkriptlerin analizleri de bu katılımcıların sosyal değişkenlere dikkat ettiklerini kanıtlamaktadır.

Yukarıdaki sonuçlara bakarak, bu tez İngilizce öğretmeni adaylarının reddetme sözeylemi nasıl kullandıkları konusunda bilgi sahibi olmamıza ve kültürlerarası iletişimde oluşabilecek yanlış anlaşılmaları azaltmaya katkıda bulunacaktır.

ANAHTAR KELİMELER: Edimbilim, edimbilim yetisi, söz eylem, reddetme, sosyal değişkenler

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

Language learning is both a means of communication and a means of globalization. Nowadays, English is recognized as the global language, and accepted as the language of the world. Therefore, many people start to learn English at very early ages. Held, McGrew, Goldblatt, and Perraton (1999) state that "Globalization may be thought of initially as the widening, deepening and speeding up of worldwide interconnectedness in all aspects of contemporary social life" (p.2). Globalization is an inescapable process, and English is the global language (Crystal, 2003).

People from different cultures trying to learn English do not share the same characteristics. Namely, so many factors such as gender may fasten or unfasten language learning process. In view of the fact that each learner is separate with a different culture or different native language, each learner's language learning process is different from another. One factor influencing the process of language learning is the first language of learners. Each culture has its own appropriateness rules regarding the language use (Throssell & Zhao, 2016). Thus, social norms of using the target language need to be taken into consideration by language learners for an effective communication in interlanguage communication. In that respect, EFL/ESL teachers have a big responsibility in language classrooms to teach language learners how to use English in an efficient way. What a language learner does in his/her native culture might be misunderstood by a person from another culture, and, thus, offend the person from the other culture. This is the case, especially, when

people refuse someone. Misunderstandings can also occur due to linguistic competencies. However, there have been so many situations that cause communication breakdowns even though a language learner is very competent in grammar or vocabulary. With regard to this, pragmatics affects communication. By the help of pragmatic knowledge, speakers can have the ability to understand and interpret the function of the statements. In this study, the misunderstandings on the pragmatic level are to be investigated with regard to the speech act of refusal because people do not refuse a person by just saying 'No' in most situations in order to minimize the effect of the threat. In this sense, pragmatic competence plays a big role since language speakers should know "what refusal strategies they need to use", "where to use them", and "when to use them". If a language learner does not have pragmatic competence, they might transfer their knowledge in their first language to the second language which will probably end with communication breakdowns.

1.2 Significance of the study

This study can contribute to the field of language teaching and second language acquisition in different aspects. Regarding the communicative approach, there is not a direct relationship between language learners' proficiency level at second/foreign language and their effective use of language (Tanck, 2004). Thus, language learners might have serious problems while using the appropriate language even if they are advanced level students. Each culture has its own pragmatic rules of language use which are determined by social factors such as "what to say", "to whom", and "under what conditions". With regard to this, studies investigating the effects of social factors on the language use have great importance in the field of second language

acquisition. Even though numerous studies have been conducted on language speakers' grammatical knowledge, the number of the studies conducted on their pragmatic knowledge seem not to be sufficient (Gharibeh & Mirzaee, 2016). The current study can be accepted significant as it aims to fill this gap by using multiple data collection instruments.

The review of the literature shows that studies conducted in the field of pragmatics mostly focused on the speech acts such as requests, expressing gratitude and apologies (e.g., Aydın, 2013; Kılıçkaya, 2010) and especially, the refusal strategies that Turkish speakers use while refusing an offer or a request has not been studied in detail although interlocutors' awareness of the cross-cultural differences in the realization of the refusals might bring a lot of misunderstandings in communication. This study attempts to eliminate the barriers between people from different cultures. Most of the studies about refusal strategy have been done in various cultures, but these are very few in the Turkish EFL context (e.g., Bulut 2003; Tekyıldız 2006). The findings of the study can broaden the existing body of research in the speech act of refusal. Even though this study is not a cross cultural study, the data collected from six native English speakers also sheds light into the way that Turkish people realize refusal speech acts from a different perspective.

There are studies conducted on the relationship between the refusal strategy preferences and "social status" of the interlocutor (e.g., Aksoyalp, 2009; Hergüner, 2009) in Turkish contexts. However, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, there is a limited number of studies which investigated the influence of "power", "social distance", and "imposition" with different combinations in Turkish EFL context. Furthermore, this study supplies a more detailed information on pragmatic competence of advanced preservice ELT teachers with the multiple data collection

procedures. One of the instruments in the study is the MDCT, and the participants discussed the options and situations in pairs. The obtained data especially from the transcripts of the discussions will shed light into how Turkish speakers think in the situations with different combinations of social variables.

1.3 The theoretical basis for the study

This thesis has focused on the assumption that language is used to achieve communication between language speakers which is a dynamic process. In other words, traditional approaches to language and communication focused primarily on linguistic structures. However, the main assumption of the study is that learning a language is both having the linguistic forms and the function. The meaning can be affected by "the interpretation of the hearer", "the intention of the speaker", and "the meaning of the utterance". The meaning understood by the hearer is not always the same since it is affected by contextual factors.

Stalker (1989) states that communicative competence enables language speakers to use linguistic structures through their functions at pragmatic level such as apologizing and refusing. This competence requires both structural and functional knowledge. Some theories are related to the language use such as the speech act theory (Austin, 1975), as a subfield of pragmatics dealing with the fact that language units do not only give information but also carry out actions. We are concerned with the functions and aspect of language with speech acts as they show the connection between the linguistic forms and language functions in various contexts. To clarify, in terms of grammatical form, "I need money." is a statement, "Can you give me money?" is a question, "Give me money!" is a command. These three sentences have the same function, but different forms. Thus, the social environment has usually an

effect on the way that people refuse each other. With the refusal speech act, this study is concerned with the functional or "communicative competence" used to perform actions as refusing an "offer", "suggestion", "invitation", and "request".

This study focuses on refusals, especially the relationship among refusal strategy preference, semantic formulas and three social factors such as "social status" (higher, equal or lower status), "social distance" (close or distant relationship) and "imposition" (high imposition or low imposition) that affect their preferences while refusing something. Thus, the social environment has usually an effect on the way that people refuse each other. As mentioned before, instead of saying 'No' directly, people use "indirect strategies" to refuse in a more polite way. Thus, politeness is one of the factors motivating language learners to refuse indirectly. There have been some other theories proposed about politeness. However, politeness is limited to the politeness theory by Brown and Levinson (1987) in this study. This theory is a detailed work that tries to explain polite language behavior in different cultures. They used the term "face" which can be referred to as the "self-image" of a person and which was used by Goffman (1967) first by defining it as "Face is something that is emotionally invested, and that can be lost, maintained, or enhanced, and must be constantly attended to in interaction." (Brown and Levinson 1987, p. 61). They added that some acts might be face-threatening, and one of them is refusals.

All the theories which will be presented in the following chapters offer a foundation for this study of speech act of refusal as refusals can threat "face", and these theories guide people for successful communication.

1.4 Statement of the problem

Using the appropriate "linguistic form" in the correct context is an important skill that language learners should master. For example, how to refuse someone might be more crucial than the response itself in many situations because of the high possibility of misunderstandings between the interlocutors (Ramos, 1991). When a nonnative person refuses a native speaker in an improper way, the native speaker can get offended or may think that the refusal is not polite instead of thinking that that person might not be competent in the target language. This can affect the interaction in an undesirable way.

There have been some studies investigating how language speakers use refusals (e.g., Jasim, 2017; Jiang, 2015). However, there are not many attempts to investigate the use of refusals in Turkish context. Hence, more investigation should be done about the appropriate use of refusals in a second or foreign language. There might be so many reasons affecting Turkish speakers of English not being competent enough in pragmatics. One of the reasons is that teachers mostly do not focus on pragmatics at language classes (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999). Moreover, the exams applied in Turkey usually test and assess learners' vocabulary knowledge and grammar knowledge. In addition, language teachers themselves may be incapable of using the target language or applying their pragmatic knowledge in an efficient way. Damar and Ekin (2013) conducted a study by using a DCT to investigate EFL teacher trainees' pragmatic awareness. 30 EFL trainees did the DCT. Besides, they were asked to write reflection papers about their weaknesses and strengths about including pragmatics at their classes. Lastly, 10 teacher trainees were interviewed to investigate what problems they face in teaching pragmatics. The findings of the DCT indicated that the participants had pragmatic awareness. However, the findings of the interviews and reflection papers showed that EFL trainees could not show their

knowledge in practice. Recently, Terzi (2014) investigated pragmatic awareness of Turkish pre-service EFL teachers. The findings of the study showed that preservice English teachers are not competent enough in pragmatics. If teachers are not competent enough in teaching pragmatics or do not focus on pragmatic rules of the second language at their classes, it will inevitably be very hard for language learners to be competent in pragmatics. Thus, most Turkish EFL learners usually have a problem of uttering pragmatically correct statements even if these statements are grammatically correct.

1.5 Research questions

This study focuses on the preferences of refusal strategies of preservice EFL teachers. Besides, the study aims to investigate whether "social status", "social distance", and "imposition" have an effect on their preferences of strategies. The research questions are as follows:

1. What refusal strategies do preservice EFL teachers use in English?
2. What refusal strategies do preservice EFL teachers use in English based on the different types of speech acts?
    2.1. What refusal strategies do they use in the different types of speech acts when there are power differences?
3. What order of semantic formula is used most when there are power differences?
4. What semantic formulas do preservice EFL teachers prefer while refusing someone in the MDCT?
    4.1. What semantic formulas are preferred when there are power differences?

4.2. What semantic formulas are preferred when there are distance differences?

4.3. What semantic formulas are preferred when there are imposition differences?

1.6 Overview of methodology

The study was conducted with 68 subjects. 62 of them were Turkish speaking students who were preservice ELT teachers at a private university in İstanbul, and the other six participants were native speakers of American English who do not know Turkish at all.

The data were conducted in the academic education year of 2017-2018. A background survey including questions such as age, and gender about the participants, a WDCT, and an MDCT were employed. Moreover, participants were asked to work in pairs during the MDCT, and discuss about the situations and options in the MDCT.

The researcher started the process with the analysis of WDCT. The responses in each WDCT were analyzed according to the categorization of the Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990). They were categorized as “direct refusals”, “indirect refusals”, and “adjuncts to refusals”. Later, the most frequent order of refusal strategies (semantic formulas) were decided by content analysis.

Afterwards, the analysis of the data obtained from the MDCT was done. Some descriptive results were obtained to see whether the participants chose the most appropriate answers in the MDCT. However, the main objective by applying this instrument was not only to evaluate their pragmatic knowledge of the participants, but to see what semantic formulas they prefer as in the WDCT. Thus,

the semantic formulas that they preferred in different situations were investigated. The preferred responses were also categorized according to the categorization made by Beebe et al. (1990). As the other objective, a total of 31 discussions were transcribed and analyzed. Furthermore, content analysis were done to see the participants' perceptions about the context, and possible effect of the context on their choices.

1.7 Definitions of the significant terms

The terms used throughout the study are listed with their definitions below. The extensive definitions of these terms will be presented in the literature review chapter.

1.7.1 Mother tongue (Native language)

It is the language that a person [learns] first from his/her mother and it is the language that a person uses at home. Mother tongue and native language is used as synonymous throughout this study.

1.7.2 Sociopragmatics

It is the social use of the language. It is the ability to recognize the effect of context on the use of language, and to use the language appropriately in different contexts.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction to the study

Language is defined as "a system of communication consisting of sounds, words, and grammar, or the system of communication used by people in a particular country or type of work" in Cambridge Dictionary. A few words is not enough to define language. Because language is also a social matter since we use language to communicate with a social aim. It is affected by many social factors, so language cannot be separated from culture and our daily lives.

Throughout history, there have been various thoughts about language and grammar. In the past, linguists focused on grammar to define language. Chomsky (1965, p.163) states that " the syntactic and semantic structure of natural languages evidently offers many mysteries, both of fact and of principle, and any attempt to delimit these domains must certainly be quite tentative". Formalists such as Chomsky assume that people have an internalized knowledge of language. They see language as an ability of human beings, and aim to investigate language by focusing on the underlying knowledge of the utterances.

The other view about language is *functionalism*. Instead of focusing on grammar as a set of rules, functionalism sees language as a communication tool in a social context. Namely, it tries to understand and explain language with its function. As opposed to Chomsky, functionalist approaches to language state that language should be explained in its social context. Thus, it can be suggested that while formalists focus on the structure of the language to define it, functionalists try to define language from a functional view.

On the other hand, there are researchers focusing on the effects of context on the use of language. In the following years, linguists started to think that language is not independent of the context. Thus, pragmatics gained interest (Kasper, 2001).

Austin (1962) founded "speech act theory" (see Chapter 2.6). Then, Searle (1969, 1979) published "*Speech Acts"* in 1969 as the other milestone of pragmatics. Moreover, the contribution of Grice (1989) is important in with two concepts as "Cooperative Principle" and "Conversational Implicature". Grice stated that *inferences* as a crucial factor of pragmatic interpretation. By the help of inferences from the context, speakers can get more meaning than what actually is uttered. This is related to the theory of "Conversational Implicature". Moreover, "Cooperative Principle" supports the thought that the use of language should help the purpose of communication. For this aim, language users must be cooperative with each other as they cooperate to achieve mutual conversational ends.

That is to say, the theorists Austin, Searle, and Grice contributed to understanding meaning and language in a real context.

2.2 An overview of pragmatics

Charles Morris (cited in Verschueren, 1999, p.6) discriminates semantics, syntax, and pragmatics by using the term 'sign'. Syntax is defined with the relation between the signs and other signs (structure), semantics is defined with the relation between the objects and signs (meaning of syntactic elements) and pragmatics is defined with the relation between the signs and users of those signs (use of language). Salinas (2001) states that semantics gives meaning, syntax is the means to understand the meaning with grammar, lexicon, etc., and pragmatics is the one that makes both semantics and syntax make sense. Thus, pragmatics studies the meaning in context.

Some researchers have attempted to define pragmatics by focusing on various aspects. Crystal (1985) defines pragmatics as "the study of language from the point of view of the users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction, and the effects their use of language has on the other participants in an act of communication" (p.240). Levinson (1983, p.24) defines pragmatics as "the ability to utter sentences in the appropriate context". Likewise, Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993, p. 3) define pragmatics as the "the study of people's comprehension and production of linguistic action in context". The notion of context can be understood and defined in different ways. To give an example, while saying "What's up?" is seen appropriate if the interlocutors are close, saying that utterance is not accepted as an appropriate use if it is used in a job interview.

2.3 Pragmatic competence

Bialystok (1993) defined pragmatic competence as "a variety of abilities concerned with the use and interpretations of language in contexts, or most prominently the ability to use and interpret non-literal forms, such as metaphorical uses of language and indirect requests..." (p.43). Therefore, it is the ability to use the language with the illocutionary meaning. Illocutionary meaning is defined as the speaker's intention while using an utterance. Using language appropriately can be very difficult for second language speakers even if they are advanced language learners as stated before. For example, an advanced English speaker might refuse the invitation of his boss by stating "No. I can't attend your party". Even though it is accepted that this response is grammatically correct, this response is not appropriate in the context that it is used as the hearer refuses a "higher status" person. The findings of many studies

indicated that being a proficient learner in a language is not enough to be pragmatically competent (e.g., Savič, 2014; Tajeddin & Pirhoseinloo, 2012).

2.4 Interlanguage pragmatics

Cenoz (200) defines interlanguage pragmatics as "the way language learners acquire and use pragmatic competence" (p.127). Similarly, Kasper and Rose (1999) define the term as "the study of nonnative speaker's use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge" (p. 81). Lately, interlanguage pragmatics have started to gain interest. The reason might be that even if a second language speaker is proficient in that target language, he/she can still make mistakes while communicating because of due to not being competent in pragmatics.

As one of the milestones in this field, Blum- Kulka and Olshtain (1984) investigated two speech acts: requests and apologies. The participants were native and nonnative speakers of English. The researchers pointed out that there could be a universal categorization of refusal strategies as "direct strategies" and "indirect strategies". On the contrary, Blum- Kulka and Olshtain (1984) suggest a universal classification among all the languages on the world by adding that interlocutors can differ because of various personal variables such as power.

Speech acts are to be investigated because language learners should know how to use language to communicate.

2.5 Pragmatics and language teaching

Language learners need to have competencies at five different levels as phonology, morphology, syntax, pragmatics and discourse to be successful at second language. Non-native and native speakers have different systems of pragmatics as it is related

to the cultural norms. While one semantic formula in one language is accepted polite, the same semantic formula can be seen as a rude statement. Bardovi- Harlig (2001) states language learners can have pragmatic competence with instruction.

Knowing the appropriate grammatical structures and words of that language is only one part of second language acquisition, so language learners should also know how to use those grammatical structures and vocabulary. According to Hymes (1977) the performance of a second language learner is dependent on competence as the knowledge and the ability to use that knowledge. Besides, Bachman (1990, p. 87) suggests that competence includes "organizational competence" and "pragmatic competence". Thus, language learners should not only make language learners competent in linguistic rules such as vocabulary and grammar, but also make them competent in pragmatics as they need to use language appropriately. Literature review shows that knowledge of morphology and syntax are not enough; learners should have pragmatic knowledge, as well. Language learners having pragmatic knowledge know the differences between their native language and second language, and also the differences between these two cultures (Rajabi, Azizifar, & Gowhary, 2015). Since language is one of the inescapable components of a culture, language teaching should also include the correct usages of the speech acts at language classes regardless of the learners' proficiency level in the second language.

2.6 Speech act theory

As one of the theories focusing on meaning and function of the language, speech act theory is put forward by Austin (1962) and his student Searle (1985). Speech act is the functional utterance determined by the intended meaning and the effect of the utterance. As cited in Istifci and Kampusu (2009, p. 16), Schmidt and Richards

(1980) describe speech acts as "all the acts we perform through speaking, all the things we do when we speak and the interpretation and negotiation of speech acts are dependent on the discourse or context". Thus, speech act can be considered as an ability to promise, to request, to apologize, etc.

The classification of speech act comprises *performatives* and *constatives*. Austin defines 'performative utterances' as "…do not 'describe' or 'report' or constate anything at all, are not 'true or false" (1962, p.5).

Besides performative utterances, Austin also defines 'constative utterances' as the utterances such as definitions or assertions which do not denote an action, and have the possibility of being true or false. For example, uttering a performative is not just saying something but also performing an action as in "I order a pizza, please". On the other hand, uttering a constative is just saying something as in the example of "He is my elder brother" which can be true or false.

Austin first focused on the discrimination of constatives and performatives, but later argued that a constative utterance is like a subcategory of a performative utterance. There is not a significant difference between these two utterances as uttering a constative also means performing an act by stating it. Austin further claims that performatives can be felicitous or infelicitous (Justova, 2006). These conditions proposed by Austin (1962, p. 14-15) are as follows: There must be a procedure which has an effect including certain people. Besides, the interlocutors must understand the procedure completely and correctly.

Based on these felicity conditions, Austin changed his idea about classifying speech acts into two as performatives and constatives. Later on, his idea was replaced with "locutionary acts", "illocutionary acts", and "perlocutionary acts" performed simultaneously.

2.6.1 Direct and indirect speech acts

While speaking, we not only create sentences (locution), but also perform an act (illocution) (Barron, 2003). The intention of the speaker can be understood by illocutionary act.

There are two types of speech acts in terms of directness; (a) “direct speech acts” and (b) “indirect speech acts”. Speakers might prefer to imply the meaning instead of saying it literally because of different reasons. For example, “Give me some money, please” is a direct speech act in the form of a command, and the speaker means exactly what he says and this aim is transparent. A “direct speech act” also can be in the form of a question like “Could you lend me a pencil, please?” This utterance is a genuine question asking whether the speaker would like to give his/her pencil, and the utterance is in the form of question. As can be concluded from these two examples, the speaker must be careful while using “direct speech acts”, and should not be too direct in order not to offend the hearer especially if there are power differences the speakers and audience.

On the other hand, Searle (1969) adds that if the speaker does not say the literal meaning, but wants to utter an implied or different meaning, he/she uses “indirect speech acts”.

Searle (1975) described the term of “indirect speech act” as follows:

"In indirect speech acts the speaker communicates to the hearer more than he actually says by way of relying on their mutually shared background information, both linguistic and nonlinguistic, together with the general powers of rationality and inference on the part of the hearer. To be more specific, the apparatus necessary to

explain the indirect part of indirect speech acts includes a theory of speech acts [and] certain general principles of cooperative conversation ...” (p.31-32).

Searle’s widely known example of an “indirect speech act” is “Can you pass the salt?” This question can be understood as an ability question and can be answered as Yes/No. Furthermore, “It’s very hot here.” The speaker may want to make a request with this statement, and it can actually be interpreted as “Open the window.” (Justova, 2006).

Indirect speech acts, more specifically indirectness, is being understood or considered as the same as politeness. (Leech, 1983). Language speakers usually use “indirect speech acts” when they do not want to offend other people. People particularly use “indirect speech acts” in order not to be rude to the people who are of higher social status. However, indirect speech acts are not only employed to be more polite, but also to make their speech more powerful (Thomas, 1995). Besides, nonnative speakers might also overuse “indirect speech acts” in order to be polite (Dastjerdi & Farshid, 2011).

In conclusion, the decision to choose direct or indirect speech act depends on so many variables between the interlocutors such as the difference of social status or distance between the interlocutors, and the face threatening acts accepted in that language. If the hidden meanings are not uncovered and interpreted at a pragmatic level, they mostly cause misunderstandings between interlocutors. For instance, this situation mostly happens when people refuse each other in an indirect way rather than saying ‘No’ directly.

2.7 Politeness theory

This theory is based on the theory of Goffman (1967) who introduced the concept of "face". Goffman (1955) defines "face" as "the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact" (p.213). Each individual presents an image of himself/herself for acceptance by other people. Goffman focuses on the relation between individuals and society. Brown and Levinson (1987) based the theory of politeness on Goffman's work (1955, 1967).

Brown and Levinson (1987) associated the term of face with politeness. According to this theory, some speech acts can threaten the faces of the interlocutors. They introduced politeness with two parts: (a) positive face, and (2) negative face. 1. Positive face: It is "the want of every member that his (her) wants to be desirable to at least some others" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 62). It is the desire of appreciation by others.

2. Negative face" is "the want of every 'component adult member' that his actions be unimpeded by others" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p.62). Thus, it is the personal freedom of action. In other words, it is being free of obligations and impositions. As people, we want to do what we want, also want other people let us do it.

Brown and Levinson (1978) claim that some speech acts can threaten the speaker's or the hearer's face. It threatens mainly the hearer's face. The hearer's negative face is threatened because the refusal damages his freedom of decision. Besides, his/her positive face is damaged because of the not desirable answer. The face-threatening potential of a speech act is represented as its weightiness (W). In order to get the value of weightiness, "the power of the hearer over the speaker" (P), "the social distance between the speaker and the hearer" (D), and "the ranking of the

imposition" are calculated (R) resulting in the following formula (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 76):

"W(x) = D(S,H) + P(H,S) + R(x)"

The value of "W(x)" indicates the weightiness of the FTA. "Social status", "social distance", and "imposition" can be valued differently as these three factors are culture-specific (Brown & Levinson, 1987). As the weightiness increases, interlocutors increase indirectness in the utterances as shown in hierarchy of the politeness strategies (Figure 1).

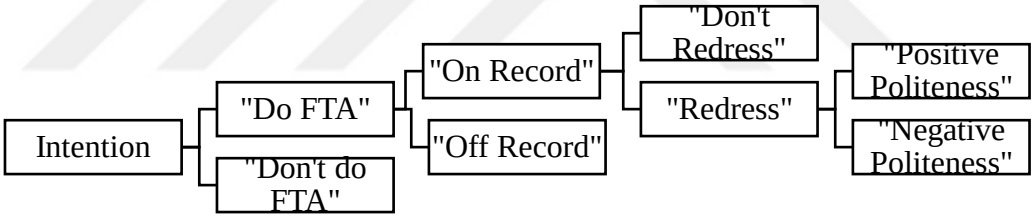

Figure 1. Five politeness strategies to perform FTAs (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p.60).

As the figure shows, people try soften the FTAs if they have to do it (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Four politeness strategies which are "bald on-record", "positive politeness", "negative politeness", and "off-record" are listed, and they are used when the FTAs are inevitable.

A.) Bald-on-Record: It is used to say something directly. This strategy is more straightforward, so the possibility to threaten the hearer's face is higher. The speaker

directly intents his/her meaning to the addressee as in the example of "Lend me your laptop". Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 69) state that this strategy can be acceptable when the hearer and the speaker "both tacitly agree that the relevance of face demands may be suspended in the interests of urgency or efficiency", or "where the danger to the hearer's face is very small".

B.) Positive Politeness: It is used to minimize the threat to the addressee's "positive face". It can be seen as a solidarity strategy. The addresser usually uses this strategy to minimize the distance. While mostly formal language is used in negative politeness strategies, informal language is used here as the addresser behaves the addressee as a friend by not threatening his/her face. Thus, this strategy is mostly chosen when the interlocutors have a close relationship such as friends.

C.) Negative Politeness: As the strategy to avoid FTS, is used not to threaten the hearer's "negative face". It can be seen as a deference strategy. The main focus is to assume that the addresser is not imposing on the addressee, or not interfering with the addressee's freedom. In other words, the addresser shows respect to the addressee's negative face wants. Thus, this strategy is mostly used when the interlocutors are not so close.

D.) Off-Record: An off- record strategy needs indirect use of language such as using metaphors to remove the possibility of imposition. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 69) give an example as "Damn, I'm out of cash, I forgot to go the bank today".

Even though this politeness theory was criticized by some researchers due to the possibility of not being applicable to all languages, it is mostly accepted as a milestone in the research of strategies.

2.8 Refusals

People have the right to say "No" to suggestions, offers, invitations or requests, but they usually think deeply before refusing someone because of the possibility of threatening not only their faces but also the interlocutors' faces. While refusing, the hearer may offend the speaker since the response is not like what is expected from the speaker. The speaker can also offend the hearer since the response of the hearer may be seen not polite enough. According to Eslami (2010) "What is considered as appropriate refusal behavior may vary across cultures, and pragmatic transfer is likely to occur as learners rely on their deeply held native values in carrying out complicated and face threatening speech acts" (p. 218). Thus, this speech act is mostly accepted as complex (Takahashi & Beebe, 1987).

Refusals require some degree of directness and indirectness depending on different variables. To clarify, people mostly use direct refusal strategies during a conversation with their family members whereas they prefer using more indirect strategies while speaking with people whom they do not know very well. Finally, refusals are accepted as an interesting area to be investigated because their content and form can differ according to the speech act of "invitation", "request", "offer", or "suggestion" and according to the culture in which they are realized (Beebe et al., 1990). To sum up, due to their complexity and face threatening nature, refusals need to be investigated from a cross cultural point.

2.8.1 Refusal strategies

Refusals are of great importance of daily life since people need to refuse invitations, offers, requests, and suggestions constantly (Sa'd & Gholami, 2017). Individuals use the speech act of refusal in each culture, without any exception. However, the use of refusals usually differ from culture to culture. Beebe et al. (1990) divided refusal

strategies into two categories as “direct refusals” and “indirect refusals”. Even though both of these refusal strategy types have subdivisions, the number of indirect refusals are much more than that of direct refusals.

There are various classifications of “direct” and “indirect refusals” (e.g., Liao & Bresnahan, 1996), one of the most commonly used and the revolutionary work in cross-cultural studies with refusals is the taxonomy made by Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz (1990).

The following taxonomy of refusals formulated by Beebe et al. (1990) was used in this study. The taxonomy has a lot of sub-categories with three main categories as “direct refusals”, “indirect refusals”, and “adjuncts to refusals”. As is evident from its name, direct refusals include the utterances such as “no”, “I can’t”, and “I will not” (Abed, 2011). On the other hand, individuals usually give excuses, show regret, make suggestions, and promise for a later meeting while applying indirect refusals (Abed, 2011).

Classification of Refusal Strategies by Beebe et al. (1990)

“Direct”

1. “Performative” (e.g., “I refuse.”)

2. “Nonperformative”

2.1. “No”

2.2. “Negative willingness/ability” (e.g., “I can’t” “I don’t think so”)

“Indirect”

1. “Statement of regret” (e.g., “I’m sorry. . .”; “I feel terrible. . .”)

2. “Wish” (e.g., “I wish I could help you. . .”)

3. “Excuse, reason, explanation” (e.g., “My children will be home that night.”; “I have a headache.”)

4. “Statement of alternative”

4.1. “I can do X instead of Y” (e.g., “I’d rather. . .” “I’d prefer. . .”)

4.2. “Why don’t you do X instead of Y” (e.g., “Why don’t you ask someone else?”)

5. “Set condition for future or past acceptance” (e.g., “If you had asked me earlier, I would have. . .”)

6. “Promise of future acceptance” (e.g., “I’ll do it next time”; ”I promise I’ll. . .” or “Next time I’ll. . .”)

7. “Statement of principle” (e.g., “I never do business with friends.”)

8. “Statement of philosophy” (e.g., “One can’t be too careful.”)

9. “Attempt to dissuade interlocutor”

9.1. “Threat or statement of negative consequences to the requester” (e.g., “I won’t be any fun tonight”)

9.2. “Guilt trip” (e.g., “I can’t make living off people who just order coffee.”)

9. 3. “Criticize the request/requester, etc. (statement of negative feeling or opinion); insult/attack” (e.g., “Who do you think you are?”; “That‘s a terrible idea!”)

9.4. “Request for help, empathy, and assistance by dropping or holding the request”.

9.5. “Let interlocutor off the book” (e.g., “Don’t worry about it.” “That’s okay.” “You don’t have to.”)

9.6. “Self-defense” (e.g., “I ‘m trying my best.” “I’m doing all I can do.”)

10. “Acceptance that functions as a refusal”

10.1. “Unspecific or indefinite reply”

10.2. “Lack of enthusiasm”

11. “Avoidance”

11.1. “Nonverbal”

11.1.1. “Silence”

11.1.2. “Hesitation”

11.1.3. “Do nothing”

11.1.4. “Physical departure”

11.2. “Verbal”

11.2.1. “Topic switch”

11.2.2. “Joke”

11.2.3. “Repetition of part of request, etc.” (e.g., “Monday?”)

11.2.4. “Postponement” (e.g., “I’ll think about it.”)

11.2.5. “Hedging” (e.g., “Gee, I don’t know.” “I’m not sure.”)

“Adjuncts”

1. “Statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement” (“That’s a good idea. . . “I’d love to. . .”)

2. “Statement of empathy” (e.g., “I realize you are in a difficult situation.”)

3. “Pause fillers” (e.g., “uhh”; “well”; “oh”; “uhm”)

4. “Gratitude/Appreciation”

So many factors might affect the preference of refusal strategies. Among these factors, “social status” and the closeness between the two interlocutors (i.e., social distance) are mostly accepted as the main two factors influencing directness or indirectness. Findings of many cross-cultural studies (e.g., Hassani, Mardani, & Dastjerdi, 2011) suggest that culture of the target culture is a factor influencing the choice of “direct strategies” or “indirect strategies”. More than that, as for nonnative English speakers, the cultural background of the speakers also affect refusal strategy use.

2.8.2 Research on refusals

Refusals have linguistic complexity as there is a disagreement between the speaker and the hearer (Siebold & Busch, 2015). Being inherently offending and complex, refusals have been investigated a lot (Levinson, 1983). Still, this area still needs investigation as so many cultural factors affect the use of refusals.

The speaker is the one who attempts to make the hearer do something, while the hearer is the one who has the right of refusal. Therefore, the speaker makes a "request", "invitation", "offer" or "suggestion", and the hearer is expected to refuse in the context of the study. Even though all the researchers share the idea that speech act of refusal is a face-threatening speech act for both the hearer and the speaker, there is not a widely accepted belief about how refusals threaten their faces (Siebold & Busch, 2015). Most of the researchers claim that refusals are more threatening for the hearers who perform the act of refusing. In Eslami's words (2012, p. 217) this is the "inherent risk of offending someone at the time refusing something". Besides, Brown and Levinson (1987) confirms the thought that the hearer is at risk because the hearer can offend the speaker by refusing him. As such, refusals threaten the hearer's "…need to be independent, to have freedom of action, and not to be imposed on by others" (Yule, 1996, p.61). Barron (2003) examined the threat from the side of the hearer, and suggested that the reason for the hearer's being at risk is because of the fact that the hearer's both "positive face" and "negative face" are threatened. In detail, there is a risk of damaging the hearer's "positive face" because his decline of the request is not the desirable and accepted answer. Besides, there is a risk of damaging the hearer's "negative face" since their freedom of decision can be damaged.

Beebe and Cummings (1985) made a study with refusals and their study is the first study done with refusals. They compared the data from the written discourse

tests and authentic telephone conversations. They identified the semantic formulas. The analysis of the data indicate that the number of the semantic formulas in the telephone conversations were higher. Later, many researchers used the cross-cultural methodology in their studies.

2.8.2.1 Social status, social distance, imposition, and refusal strategies

Beebe, Tahahashi, and Ullis-Welt (1990) made a longitudinal study and investigated whether there was a transfer between the native language Japanese and second language English. Thus, they initiated the use of cross-cultural methodology in the speech act of refusal. A DCT was used as the instrument. The findings indicate that American people mostly followed a similar formula while refusing "higher status" or "lower status" people. However, Americans changed the order of semantic formulas while refusing an "equal status" friend, which shows that the degree of familiarity (social distance) is an effective factor to employ the refusal strategies. Furthermore, Americans added "thank you" at the end of their sentences while refusing their friends, but they did not use this strategy while refusing others. The Japanese people who were in the "higher status" did not prefer using any apology or regret formulas while they were refusing the interlocutor of "lower status", but the participants used more polite formulas with the people of "higher status". Japanese participants reacted differently to "higher status" versus "lower status" position. In addition to these findings, while Americans were more specific about the reason of refusal, the Japanese were not specific about the place or time in their explanations.

Allami and Naemi (2011) conducted a study to investigate refusals. 30 Persian speakers of English were asked to fill out a DCT. Besides, 31 native speakers of Persian were asked to same DCT in Persian. The findings indicated that there are

significant differences between the two groups in the use of refusals. Iranian people tended to use more implicit communication style while Americans were more explicit in their refusals. For example, the excuses that Americans gave were more detailed compared to the excuses Iranian participants made. Furthermore, social status was an effective factor influencing the use of refusals. American participants mostly preferred the similar patterns for refusals regardless of the interlocutors' status level, while Iranians made shifts in the use of semantic formulas in the situations with different social status.

Imposition as the other social variable is the weight of the actions which threaten the freedom of action of the hearer. According to Brown and Levinson (1987, p.77) imposition is "a culturally and socially defined ranking of impositions by the degree to which they are considered to interfere with an agent's wants of self-determination or approval (his negative- and positive- face wants)". The rank of the imposition can be determined by the amount of time and effort that are needed to spend on the action. The studies in the field mostly indicate that degree of imposition affects the way that people refuse each other.

There are some studies done in Turkish EFL context as follows:

Bulut (2000) conducted a study to investigate the refusal strategies with regard to the "social status" and gender. The participants were native speakers of Turkish, native speakers of English, and advanced level Turkish learners of English. The instruments were a DCT and an oral role play. The analyses indicated that the three groups preferred the same strategies most even though the order changed. The most favored strategies were "excuse/reason/explanation", "nonperformative", and "attempt to persuade". Besides, gender was found not to be effective on the use of refusal speech act. However, "social status" played an important role.

Furthermore, Aksoyalp's (2009) was conducted on the preferences of refusal strategies of Turkish EFL learners with a DCT. There were two control groups: 16 native speakers of Turkish and 16 native speakers of English. Apart from these, two baseline groups, 120 Turkish speaking EFL students were in the third group. The analysis of the WDCT showed that there were both cross-cultural similarities and differences between the research groups. Besides, social status had an influence on the refusal strategy choices of Turkish EFL learners.

There is not much work in Turkish EFL context. The studies done in the Turkish EFL context contributed to the field a lot. Besides social status, social distance also attracted some researchers' attention. It is about how well the interlocutors know each other, and how familiar they are. Thus, it is about the intimacy between the interlocutors. Brown and Levinson (1987) assert that the more unfamiliar the interlocutors are, the more polite they are. The findings of many studies support this claim. Satıç and Çiftçi (2007) conducted a study to investigate the refusal strategies that Turkish EFL students prefer to see if "social status" and "social distance" have an effect on their preferences. The results showed that Turkish participants use "indirect strategies" more than "direct strategies". Besides, "social status" and "social distance" have an effect on their responses. The students stated that they try to behave quite politely if they are not familiar with each other.

The findings of these studies highlight the complex nature of social interactions, and politeness. The common point among the findings is that so many factors might affect the choices of participants while applying refusal strategies.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Participants

The sampling in this study is defined as convenience sampling. This sampling method involves selecting participants at a required place or time (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012). The subjects were composed of two groups: 62 preservice EFL teachers and six native English speakers. The main aim of the study is not to compare native English speakers and preservice EFL teachers. However, data were also collected from native English speakers to see possible differences between the users of these two different languages. Besides, the data obtained from the native speakers gave us baseline for the most appropriate answers in the multiple discourse completion test (MDCT).

There were two groups of participants in this study. The first group was composed of 62 preservice EFL teachers in a private university in İstanbul, Turkey. The data were collected in 2017-2018 academic year. All of the participants were at the fourth grade, so they were accepted as advanced users of English. This group is the main group from whom the data were obtained. These preservice EFL teachers share common characteristics: all of their mother tongue is Turkish and their foreign language is English, and they have relatively high proficiency in English. Furthermore, these participants learned English at language classes.

According to the background survey, their ages were so close. 52 students' ages were between 21 and 25, six students' ages were between 17 and 21, and only three students' ages were more than 26. The group consisted of 51 (82.25%) female and 11 (17.24%) male students.

A detailed information about the subjects were as follows:

Thirty seven students said that they attended a preparatory class before. While 33 of them attended the preparatory class at the university, four of them attended the preparatory class at high school.

The second group of participants included six native English speakers. The main aim to collect data from native English speakers was to elicit the target language baseline data. Their ages differed between 25 and 40. The group further consisted of one female and five male participants.

3.2 Data collection instruments

The instruments used to elicit data in this study are: (1) a background survey including a number of demographic questions (e.g., educational background, age, gender), a written discourse test (WDCT) including 12 situations and a multiple choice discourse test (MDCT) including 12 situations to see the preferred strategy for making refusals. In addition, to understand how sensitive the participants are to social variables such as “social distance”, “social status” and “imposition” when selecting the most appropriate refusal strategy. Participants did the MDCT by working in pairs. While the participants were discussing the situations and the options with their peers, their dialogues were recorded to elicit their general intuition how context might affect refusal strategies.

The background survey consists of questions related with the age, gender, social status, educational background, time spent by taking formal education of English.

The other data elicitation technique used for this study was a modified version of DCT used by Beebe et al. (1990). DCT was used to gather data from all of

the participants. Kasper and Dahl (1991) define DCTs as "written questionnaires including a number of brief situational descriptions, followed by a short dialogue with an empty slot for the speech act under study" (p. 221).

The use of DCT has been very controversial for many years even though it has been the most preferred method in speech act studies (Kasper & Dahl, 1991). Yet, DCT is chosen as it is piloted before, and since many studies done about speech acts have been conducted with this instrument, the findings could be comparable with the findings of those studies.

In DCT, there are 12 situations grouped under three speech acts: "three requests", "three invitations", "three offers", and "three suggestions". A request is the act of asking politely or formally for something (e.g., asking for someone to turn down the heating). Offers are defined as the act of asking someone whether he/she wants something (e.g., asking someone whether he/she wants a cup of coffee). Invitations are defined as the acts of inviting someone to somewhere or to do something (e.g., asking someone whether he/she wants to see a movie). Suggestions are defined as the ideas put forward by someone to make people think about it (e.g., to suggest a close friend eating healthy food). The participants are expected to refuse "a person of higher status", "a person of equal status", and "a person of lower status" in each group.

The other instrument is the Multiple DCT (MDCT). The MDCT includes 12 situations as open DCT does. Each situation has three options. The participants worked in pairs while doing the MDCT, and their discussions on the situations and options were recorded. It is hard to predict whether the participants perceived the scenarios in the same way the researcher coded them without making them discuss

the situations. As shown in Table 1, there are different combinations of social variables in the MDCT.

Table 1. Combinations of the Social Variables in the MDCT

"Situation"	"Power"	"Distance"	"Imposition"
1 "Request"	-	+	+
2 "Request"	+	+	+
3 "Offer"	+	+	-
4 "Offer"	-	-	-
5 "Request"	+	-	+
6 "Offer"	-	+	-
7 "Request"	-	-	+
8 "Request"	+	-	-
9 "Request"	+	-	+
10 "Request"	-	-	+
11 "Request"	+	-	+
12 "Request"	-	+	-

3.2.1 Validity and reliability of DCTs

A lot of instruments have been used to test the pragmatic knowledge of language learners for many years. Many researchers agreed that the most reliable and valid data can be collected from ethnographic observation since researchers have the opportunity of getting authentic data (e.g., Rose & Ono, 1995). However, the main limitation of ethnographic observations is that they are not practical enough since it is not easy for researchers to collect data from a lot of participants in short time. This

shortcoming of ethnographic methods have led researchers use alternative tools such as role plays and self- assessment tests. Among these tools, DCTs have been the most frequently used instruments in the field of pragmatics. DCTs are favorable because they "elicit something akin to real-world speech act performance and because they are still somewhat practical despite the need for rating- at least they can be administered to large numbers of test takers at the same time" (McNamara & Roever, 2006, p.60). As it is already defined in the previous chapter, subjects are asked to imagine that they are acting in the situation, and they are expected to write down or choose what they think that they would probably say in real life.

Even though the disadvantages of DCTs have been discussed in many studies, a number of factors that make this instrument the most attractive instrument in this field are listed by Beebe and Cummings (1985). DCTs are believed to be very effective and applicable. The first advantage of DCTs is that researchers can get a large amount of data in a short time. The other advantage is that researchers can understand which factors are likely to affect speakers' performance.

To sum up, there are many valid reasons that make this tool attractive for researchers although there are many claims that subjects do not use the responses that they give on DCTs in the same way that they use the language in real life. In addition to these advantages, the researcher tried to triangulate the data by using the MDCT to improve validity of the findings.

Both the WDCT and MDCT demonstrated reasonable internal consistency with Cronbach alpha coefficients of .72. and .70 respectively.

3.3 Design of the study

The main aim of the study is to investigate the influence of "social status", "social distance", and "imposition" on the refusal strategies. Hudson, Detmer, and Brown (1995, p.4) define "social status" as "the degree to which the speaker can impose his or her will on the hearer due to a higher rank within an organization, professional status, or the hearer's need to have a particular duty or job performed". Besides, "social distance" is the degree of familiarity between interlocutors. Moreover, the imposition is the degree of the cost of the services, and energy required by the request, invitation, offer, or a suggestion (Hudson et al., 1995). Thus, social factors like "power", "social distance", and "imposition" with regard to refusals were examined. This study is mostly based on qualitative analysis that describes data in non-numerical terms (Priest, 1996).

3.4 Procedures

Before applying the instruments to the sample, it was piloted before. Four English teachers helped the researcher. The application of both the WDCT and the MDCT were piloted with these four teachers. They were in two groups while they were doing MDCT. Thanks to the piloting, the researcher was able to see possible misunderstandings, and to estimate the appropriate time period needed for the instruments.

The study was conducted in the academic year of 2017 and 2018. Sixty eight participants in total participated in this study. As mentioned before, a background survey, a WDCT, a MDCT, and transcripts during the application of the MDCT were used as instruments.

First, the researcher mentioned the aim of the study, and the schedule of the study to the potential participants, and declared the schedule of the study. Then a

consent form were given to the participants. Later, they were asked to fill out the background survey. Immediately after the application of background questionnaire, the students did the WDCT on the same day. Forty minutes were given to them to fill in the blanks, but it was experienced that they finished earlier than expected.

Five days after the students did the WDCT, the MDCT was given to each student, and they were expected to choose the most appropriate option in 12 different situations. They did this questionnaire by working in pairs in 40 minutes, and their discussions were recorded. During the application of both DCTs, the researcher was at the class with them because of the possible misunderstandings about the situations. As seen from the Table 2, the period of data collection took more than a month.

Table 2. Time Schedule of the Study

Date	Application of Instruments
8 March 2018	The Background Survey The WDCT
12 March 2018- 10 April 2018	The MDCT (Recordings during the discussions)

3.5 Coding and ratings

Similar to the well-known studies (e.g., Beebe al., 1990; Kwon, 2004), main data were collected qualitatively. The raw data in the WDCT which were divided into separate formulas (idea units) and were coded as such. The semantic formulas might be a word, a phrase, or sentence (Ewert, 2008). Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford define semantic formulas as " the means by which a particular speech act is accomplished, in terms of the primary content of an utterance, such as a reason, an explanation, or

an alternative" (p.48).The semantic formulas written in the WDCT were coded in three broad categories as "direct strategies", "indirect strategies", and "adjuncts". After this general categorization, semantic formula was categorized in a more detailed way by using the categorization by Beebe et al. (1990). To give an example, the following response: "Well, sorry, I can't attend the party this weekend. I am going to see my grandpa on Saturday. We can hang out later" can be coded as "Well" [pause filler adjunct] "Sorry" [statement of regret] "I am going to see my grandpa on Saturday" [statement of reason] "We can hang out later" [alternative offer].

Another example obtained from another participant is "No, thanks. I have already eaten a lot" to refuse his friend's offer of a piece of cake. The coding of this statement is like the following: "No" [No] "Thanks" [Gratitude] "I have already eaten a lot" [Excuse/reason/explanation].

While some responses of the interlocutors had two semantic formulas such as "No, thank you", some responses had three semantic formulas such as "No, thanks. I have something to do at that time". This semantic formula can be coded as "No" [No] "Thanks" [gratitude] "I have something to do at that time" [statement of reason].

Later, the frequency of the refusal strategies was calculated. Then, the frequencies of the refusal strategies employed in each type of speech act (i.e., request, offer, invitation, suggestion) were calculated. Next, the frequencies of the refusal strategies used with regard to "the social status of the interlocutor" were calculated. Finally, the most frequent used semantic formulas for the four categories as "offers", "requests", "suggestions", and "invitations" were calculated. All of these calculations were done for both Turkish and English participants.

In the WDCT data, the researcher started to code each option in the situations in the MDCT to see the participants' preferences of semantic formulas. The most appropriate option had already been decided before together with the researcher, the advisor, and one of the native speakers. Afterwards, the researcher transcribed the recordings and coded the appropriate answers as 1, and the distractors as 0 on the Excel Sheet for the descriptive analysis.

The researcher continued coding some worthwhile information on Excel Sheet such as why they chose that option and excluded others, or which social variables the subjects paid attention to qualitative information.

During the process of coding, the researcher and the advisor worked together. Besides, a second coder who was a native English speaker helped the researcher to code 25% of the responses for inter-rater reliability. First, the native speaker and the researcher coded the data alone, and then they compared their coding. In the situations where there were disagreements, they discussed and came to an agreement.

3.6 Data analysis

After the coding of the instruments were completed, the researcher started to analyze the data in order to answer the research questions in this study.

To answer the first two research questions, descriptive analyses were done to calculate the refusal strategies that the participants employed. Later, the frequencies were calculated by grouping them into four categories as invitations, offers, requests, and suggestions to see for which type of speech act the participants employed more refusal speech acts. The variation of the frequencies of the semantic formulas by the "social status of the interlocutors" was also considered. For instance, an employer in the given scenarios represented "a person of higher social status", a close friend

represented “a person of equal social status”, and a shop assistant represented “a person of lower social status”.

To answer the fourth research question, qualitative analysis was done to see the most popular semantic formula for each situation given in the MDCT. Besides, the transcripts were analyzed qualitatively to investigate what semantic formulas they prefer when there are power, social distance, and imposition differences from a broader view.

The data obtained from the MDCT were analyzed by calculating the frequencies of the refusal strategies that participants chose. Besides, the transcripts were analyzed qualitatively.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

As mentioned before, two versions of DCT were used as data collection instruments in the present study: (1) the WDCT in which the participants were required to produce semantic formulas to refuse somebody and (2) the MDCT in which the participants were required to choose the most appropriate option to refuse someone in the given situations. In the MDCT, the findings obtained from the analysis of the transcripts are presented in this chapter to understand why the participants chose an option but eliminated the other two options.

As stated before, the main focus of this study was not to compare the choices of typical strategies preferred by two groups. However, the refusal preferences of native English speakers will also be presented and discussed since their preferences are also relevant to the objectives of the study. This study aims to identify the refusal strategies that preservice English teachers prefer, the most frequent semantic formulas that they use while refusing someone and the differences in the use of semantic formulas based on social variables. Thus, the results will be presented as grouped by social variables. That is to say, the items coded similarly will be presented together. In this respect, the findings address the following research questions:

For the WDCT:

1. What refusal strategies do preservice EFL teachers use in English?

2. What refusal strategies do preservice EFL teachers use in English based on the different types of speech acts?

2.1. What refusal strategies do they use as a response to different types of speech acts when there are power differences as a response to the interlocutors?

3. What order of semantic formula is used most when there are power differences?

For the MDCT:

4. What semantic formulas do preservice EFL teachers prefer while refusing someone in the MDCT?

4.1. What semantic formulas are preferred when there are power differences?

4.2. What semantic formulas are preferred when there are distance differences?

4.3. What semantic formulas are preferred when there are imposition differences?

First, the findings obtained from the WDCT will be presented. The frequencies of strategy used by both preservice EFL teachers and native speakers of English are presented. Then, the total frequencies of refusal strategies in the refusals of "requests", "suggestions", "invitations", and "offers" are presented. Furthermore, the percentages of the frequencies of both refusal strategies and the most frequent semantic formula in refusals of "requests", "suggestions", "invitations", and "offers" relative to interlocutors' status are presented respectively.

In the next section, the findings collected through the MDCT will be presented. As mentioned before, most appropriate answers were accepted as the correct answers. Some descriptive statistics (e.g., mean, standard deviation) will be presented firstly to see and evaluate overall performance in refusal speech act even though it is not one of the main objectives of the study. As mentioned before (Table

1), each situation was coded in terms of power, distance, imposition differences [+P/-D/+R]. That is to say, the situations with the same social distance or power will be presented in the same group to see what answers they gave. The participants' discussions were recorded and options would be helpful to understand why they chose one option as the most appropriate refusal but eliminated others.

4.2 Results of the WDCT

The findings obtained from the WDCT will be presented to answer the first three research questions.

Research Question 1: What refusal strategies do preservice EFL teachers use in English?

Table 3 below illustrates the percentages of the frequency of semantic formulae in three main categories as "direct refusals", "indirect refusals" and "adjuncts".

Table 3. Distribution of Refusal Strategies (direct, indirect, adjuncts) in the WDCT

	PETs		NSEs	
	Total Number	Frequency	Total Number	Frequency
Direct	207	11,33	31	14,76
Indirect	1198	65,60	128	60,95
Adjunct	421	23,05	51	24,28
Sum	1826	100,00	210	100,00

The results indicated that both PETs and NSEs utilized both direct and indirect strategies. For example, the following refusal to refuse a worker's request an increase in pay in Situation 1 written by a Turkish student is a direct refusal strategy:

(1) "Unfortunately, I cannot increase your salary. You know we are having bad times in our bookstore in terms of economical situations."

The first sentence in the refusal is a negative willingness. The participant also used an indirect refusal strategy in the same situation by adding "You know we are having bad times in our bookstore in terms of economical situations" which is a request for empathy.

However, the PET group used indirect refusals (65.60%) more than the NSE group (60.95%) did. Furthermore, it is observed that the NSE group (14.76%) employed direct refusals more than the PET group (11.33%).

Regarding the adjuncts as refusal strategies, the results indicate that 23.05% of the PTEs preferred to use adjuncts with a similar frequency to that of the NSE group with the frequency of 24.28%. For example, a Turkish student preferred to use an adjunct in Situation 1 by saying "I understand you, but…" (Statement of empathy).

In Table 4 below, the refusal strategies that the respondents gave are presented with their frequencies. [1]

Table 4. Usage Frequency (%) of Refusal Strategies in the WDCT

	PETs		NSEs	
	Number	%	Number	%
"Performative"	2	0,10	2	0,95
"No"	63	3,45	10	4,76
"Negative willingness"	142	7,77	19	9,04
"Regret"	171	9,36	16	7,61
"Wish"	24	1,31	3	1,42

[1] PETs: Preservice EFL Teachers, NSEs: Native Speakers of English

“Excuse/Reason/Explanation”	537	29,40	62	29,52
“Alternative (I)”	26	1,42	5	2,38
“Alternative (You)”	51	2,79	2	0,95
“Set conditions for future or past acceptance”	12	0,65	0	0,00
“Promise of future acceptance”	9	0,49	2	0,95
“Statement of principle”	9	0,49	0	0,00
“Statement of philosophy”	34	1,86	4	1,90
“Negative consequences”	14	0,76	4	1,90
“Criticize the requester”	30	1,64	3	1,42
“Request for help, empathy”	18	0,98	1	0,47
“Let the interlocutor off the hook”	60	3,28	6	2,85
“Self-defence”	5	0,27	1	0,47
“Lack of enthusiasm”	107	5,85	5	2,38
“Repetition”	1	0,05	0	0,00
“Postponement”	42	2,30	2	0,95
“Hedging”	48	2,62	2	0,95
“Positive opinion/agreement”	83	4,54	15	7,14
“Statement of empathy”	53	2,90	4	1,90
“Pause filler”	74	4,05	9	4,28
“Gratitude/Appreciation”	197	10,78	23	10,95

"Passive negative willingness"	9	0,49	0	0,00
"Saying I tried"	3	0,16	0	0,00
"Topic switch"	0	0,00	0	0,00
"Asking a question"	2	0,10	0	0,00
Sum=	1826	100	210	100

As seen in Table 4, the PETs employed 28 different refusal strategies while the NSEs employed 22 different strategies. Providing "excuse/reason/explanation" in their refusals was the most used strategy for both groups, and the frequencies are so close.

The second most frequently used strategy used by both groups was "gratitude/appreciation". The frequency of the usage of this strategy by the PET group (10.78%) is very close to the frequency of the NSE group (10.95%). The strategy of "regret" is the third mostly used one by the PET group (9.36%), while "negative willingness" (e.g., I can't come to the meeting) was the third most frequently used strategy by the English participants (9.04%). Besides, "negative willingness" was used by 7.77% by the PETs, while "regret" was used by 7.61% by the NSEs.

Besides the similarities, there are some differences. The NSE group preferred to use "positive opinion" by 7.14% which is more than the PET group who used this strategy by 4.54%. With regard to "postponement" (e.g., Can we do it later?), the PET group utilized it with a relatively higher frequency (2.30%) compared to the NSE group (0.95%). Additionally, "hedging" was utilized more by preservice EFL teachers (2.62%) than the native English speakers (0.95%). Moreover, "passive

negative willingness", "set condition for future or past acceptance", "saying I tried" and "asking a question" were only used by the PETs with a low frequency. Neither the PETs nor the NSEs used the strategy of "topic switch".

Research Question 2: What refusal strategies do preservice EFL teachers use in English based on the different types of speech acts?

Next, the frequencies of refusal strategies applied in the categories of requests, suggestions, invitations, and offers are presented in subheadings.

The following Table 5 indicates the frequencies of the refusal strategies for the categories of invitations, suggestions, requests, and offers.

Table 5. Total Frequency (%) of Each Strategy Used According to the Different Types of Speech Acts (Requests, Suggestions, Invitations, and Offers) in the WDCT

	PETs		NSEs	
	Total Number	Frequency	Total Number	Frequency
Requests	539	29,51	53	24,76
Offers	454	24,86	64	34,76
Invitations	462	25,30	45	21,42
Suggestions	371	20,31	38	19,04
Sum=	1826	100	210	100

As seen in Table 5, the PET group utilized refusal strategies mostly while refusing requests (29.51%) while the NSE group preferred to use refusal strategies mostly while refusing offers (34.76%). Moreover, preservice EFL teachers utilized strategies to refuse invitations with a relatively higher frequency (25.30%) compared to the native English speakers (21.42%). As to the use of suggestions, the table

presents that refusal strategies were employed by the least frequency by both the PETs (20.31%) and the NSEs (19.74%).

Research Question 2.1: What refusal strategies do they use in the different types of speech acts when there are power differences?

Research Question 3: What order of semantic formula is used most when there are power differences?

I will try to present the answers of the following two research questions in subheadings according to the speech act types.

4.2.1 Refusals of requests

The strategies utilized by the PETs and NSEs while refusing the requests made by various social status are demonstrated. The situations are given as follows:

Situation 12: The hearer refuses the request of his boss who asks him to stay longer at work. (The hearer is lower status)

Situation 2: The hearer refuses his classmate who wants lecture notes. (The hearer is equal status)

Situation 1: The hearer refuses one of his best workers who wants an increase in pay. (The hearer is higher status)

The next table named as Table 6 indicates the frequencies of refusal strategies employed while refusing refusals.

Table 6. Percentages of Semantic Formulas in the Refusals of Request (12, 2, 1) in Different Power Situations

	Participants

Refusal strategies	PETs (n=62)			NSEs (n=6)		
	"Higher"	"Equal"	"Lower"	"Higher"	"Equal"	"Lower"
"Negative willingness"	3,33	3,15	5,38	0,00	3,84	9,61
"No"	0,00	0,92	0,00	0,00	1,92	0,00
"Regret"	5,19	7,05	5,75	7,69	7,69	3,84
"Wish"	0,74	0,37	0,18	0,00	0,00	1,92
"Excuse/Reason/Explanation"	9,83	5,00	5,75	11,53	9,61	9,61
"Alternative (I)"	0,92	0,37	0,00	0,00	1,92	0,00
"Set Condition"	0,37	0,00	0,18	0,00	0,00	0,00
"Promise"	0,37	0,00	0,18	0,00	0,00	0,00
"Statement of principle"	0,00	0,37	0,18	0,00	0,00	0,00
"Statement of philosophy"	0,00	0,18	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
"Negative consequences"	0,18	0,37	0,00	1,92	1,92	0,00
"Criticize"	0,00	3,15	0,18	0,00	3,84	0,00
"Request for help"	0,00	0,00	2,41	0,00	0,00	1,92
"Self-defence"	0,00	0,00	0,74	0,00	0,00	0,00
"Lack of enthusiasm"	0,37	2,22	0,55	1,92	0,00	0,00
"Postponement"	0,92	0,00	0,92	0,00	0,00	0,00
"Hedging"	0,00	0,55	1,11	0,00	0,00	0,00

“Positive statement”	1,29	0,18	0,92	3,86	0,00	1,92
“Statement of empathy”	0,00	0,37	3,33	0,00	0,00	1,92
“Pause filler”	1,11	0,74	0,55	0,00	1,92	1,92
“Gratitude”	0,00	0,00	4,82	0,00	0,00	1,92
“Passive negative willingness”	0,18	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00

As seen from the table above, preservice EFL teachers in a private school in Istanbul used “excuse/reason/explanation” (9.38%) most to refuse “a higher status person”; nevertheless, while refusing “an equal status person”, they preferred “regret” (7.05%). “Regret” and “excuse/reason/explanation” were utilized most when refusing an employee (5.75%). On the other hand, the participants favored “excuse/reason/explanation” most (11.53%, 9.61% and 9.61% respectively) in all different power situations. As expected, both groups preferred “excuse/reason/explanation” most while refusing the request of “a higher status person”. For instance, some said “I have an important meeting” for Item 12 in which they refuse their boss who has higher social status.

“Negative willingness” is another frequently used strategy. The PET group used this strategy most when refusing a lower person’s request. For example, one participant wrote “I cannot make an increase in your salary.” The percentages of this refusal strategy while refusing an equal status person’s and higher status person’s request are close (3.15% and 3.33% respectively). Similarly, the NSE group favored this strategy most while refusing a lower person’s request. However, they did not prefer using this strategy at all to refuse a higher person’s request.

Another thing to consider is that while the PETs preferred to use the strategy of "positive statement" most to refuse the request of "a higher status person", the NSEs favored that strategy most to refuse a lower status person's request. Furthermore, "gratitude" was used most when refusing the request of "a lower status person" by the PETs (4.82%), but this strategy was not utilized while refusing "an equal status" or "higher status person". This preference is the same for the NSEs since they used this strategy only when they refuse the request of "a lower status person" (1.92%). Another similarity between these two groups is that they used the strategy of "criticize" most while refusing an equal person's request. To illustrate, one Turkish speaker refuses his friend's request of lecture notes by saying "You are always doing the same" in Situation 2.

The deeper analysis of the responses that the participants gave were coded again, and the most frequent order of the semantic formulas in different status situations are shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Order of Semantic formulas While Refusing Requests in Different Power Situations

	Participants				
	PETs (n = 62)			NSEs (n = 6)	
Semantic formulas					
"Higher"	"Equal"	"Lower"	"Higher"	"Equal"	"lower"
Regret - Neg.will.- Excuse	Regret- Excuse	Positive O.- Neg.will.- Excuse	Regret- Excuse-	Regret- Excuse	Positive O.- Neg.will.- Excuse

This table above indicates that Turkish group starts the refusal of a request from "a higher status person" with "a regret", then they continue with the strategy of "negative willingness" and end with an "excuse/reason/explanation". The example above illustrates the typical choice of the PET group:

(1) "I am sorry, but I can't. I have to take care of my children."

Similarly, the subjects across the two groups were found to express regret first before stating an "excuse". With respect to the Situation 2 in which the respondents have to turn down a request of lecture notes by "a person of equal status", most respondents started their refusals with a "regret" followed by an "excuse". The example indicates this most preferred order:

(2) "Sorry. But I don't have them, too."

Most Turkish and native speakers of English speakers began the refusal sequence with stating a "positive opinion", then continued with "negative willingness", and also expressing an "excuse" while refusing a lower person's request. In Situation 1, where they refuse a request of a raise in salary, one Turkish respondent wrote in the WDCT as follows:

(3) "I am very pleased with your work. Unfortunately, I cannot increase your salary. We are having bad times in our bookstore in terms of economical situations."

4.2.2 Refusals of suggestions

The situations are as follows:

Situation 6: The hearer refuses his boss who suggests organizing his desk. (The hearer is lower status)

Situation 5: The hearer refuses the suggestion of his friend who suggests to him a new diet. (The hearer is equal status)

Situation 8: The hearer who is an English teacher at a university refuses his students suggesting to him that he should practice more in conversation and less in grammar. (The hearer is higher status)

The next table named as Table 8 indicates the frequencies of refusal strategies employed while refusing suggestions.

Table 8. Percentages of Semantic Formulas in the Refusals of Suggestions (6, 5, 8) in Different Power Situations

Refusal strategies	Participants					
	PETs (n=62			NSEs (n=6)		
	"Higher"	"Equal"	"Lower"	"Higher"	"Equal"	"Lower"
"Negative willingness"	1,07	0,80	1,61	0,00	0,00	0,00
"Regret"	0,00	0,26	1,07	0,00	0,00	0,00
"Wish"	0,00	0,00	0,26	0,00	0,00	0,00
"Excuse/Reason/Explanation"	13,47	13,20	11,05	7,89	15,78	15,78
"Alternative (I)"	1,88	0,80	0,26	7,89	5,26	0,00
"Alternative (You)"	0,00	0,00	3,23	0,00	0,00	2,63
"Set Condition"	0,26	0,26	0,53	0,00	0,00	0,00
"Promise"	0,26	0,53	0,26	0,00	0,00	2,63

“Statement of principle”	0,00	0,80	0,53	0,00	0,00	0,00
“Statement of philosophy”	3,77	0,26	1,61	0,00	0,00	2,63
“Negative consequences”	0,80	1,34	0,00	2,63	0,00	0,00
“Criticize”	0,00	0,26	2,15	0,00	0,00	0,00
“Request for help”	0,00	0,26	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
“Hook”	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
“Self-defence”	0,26	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	2,63
“Lack of enthusiasm”	1,07	3,50	0,80	2,63	0,00	0,00
“Repetition”	0,26	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
“Postponement”	0,26	0,53	0,80	0,00	0,00	0,00
“Hedging”	0,80	2,42	2,42	0,00	2,63	0,00
“Positive opinion”	1,61	0,00	1,07	2,63	0,00	0,00
“Request for empathy”	2,42	0,26	3,77	0,00	0,00	5,26
“Pause filler”	0,26	1,07	0,80	2,63	2,63	5,26
“Gratitude”	4,31	2,42	2,15	5,26	2,63	0,00
“Passive negative willingness”	0,00	0,53	0,53	0,00	0,00	0,00
“Saying I tried”	0,53	0,26	0,53	0,00	0,00	0,00
“Asking a question”	0,00	0,00	0,26	0,00	0,00	0,00

The table above shows that the PET group favored “excuse/reason/explanation” (13.47%) most while refusing the suggestion of “a higher status person”. On the other hand, the NSE group used “excuse/reason/explanation” (7.89%) least when refusing a higher person’s suggestion. For the fifth item in which the interlocutors are “equal status”, and the

eighth item in which the requester is “lower”, the NSE group used “excuse/reason/explanation” (15.78%) frequently.

The NSEs stated their “negative willingness” which is one of the direct strategies only when refusing the suggestion of “a lower status person” with the frequency of 2.63%. Similarly, the nonnative speakers of English utilized that strategy in all three different situations, but used this strategy most to refuse a lower status person. The other direct strategy of saying “No” is used only by Turkish respondents. Another finding is that the PETs preferred to use the strategy of “criticize” most when they are refusing suggestion of a lower status person. However, the NSEs did not use that strategy in any situations. Furthermore, both the PET and NSE group favored “positive opinion” and “gratitude/appreciation” most in the situations where they refuse “a higher status” speaker.

The most frequent order of semantic formula employed while refusing suggestions are presented in Table 9.

Table 9. Order of Semantic Formulas While Refusing Suggestions in Different Power Situations

	Participants				
	PETs (n = 62)			NSEs (n = 6)	
Semantic formulas					
“Higher”	“Equal”	“Lower”	“Higher”	“Equal”	“Lower”
Gratitude-Excuse	Excuse-Lack of enth.	Excuse-Alt (you)	-	Excuse	-

The most frequent semantic formulas used in refusals of suggestions in three different situations including organizing the desk, a new diet, and practicing more in conversation are presented in the table above. There is not a typical order for the native speaker group. The table shows that "gratitude"-"excuse/reason/explanation" was favored most by Turkish speakers while refusing "a higher status person". An example semantic formula by a Turkish participant is presented above:

(4) "Thank you for your advice, but they are on my mind."

In Situation 5 in which the subjects refuse an equal person's suggestion, the typical order is "excuse/reason/explanation"- "lack of enthusiasm" for the PET group. An example is seen below:

(5) "I have already tried a lot of diets. I don't want to try it."

The table also shows that "excuse/reason/explanation"- "alternative (you)" was used most while refusing a suggestion from "a lower status person". An example to the third situation is as follows:

(6) "All the activities are planned according to your needs. First, you must learn grammar."

4.2.3 Refusals of invitations

Situation 4: The top executive refuses his boss's invitation. (The hearer is lower status)

Situation 10: The speaker refuses a dinner party of his friend whose husband/wife is not liked so much. (The hearer is equal status)

Situation 3: The president refuses a salesman from a company who invites him to a dinner to sign a contract. (The hearer is higher status)

Table 10 below indicates the frequencies of refusal strategies employed while refusing refusals.

Table 10. Percentages of Semantic Formulas in the Refusals of Invitations (4, 10, 3) in Different Power Situations

Refusal strategies	Participants					
	PETs (n=62)			NSEs (n=6)		
	"Higher"	"Equal"	"Lower"	"Higher"	"Equal"	"Lower"
"Negative willingness"	3,03	1,51	3,03	2,22	0,00	8,88
"Regret"	5,62	3,89	3,46	4,44	4,44	2,22
"Wish"	1,94	1,08	0,21	2,22	2,22	0,00
"Excuse/Reason/Explanation"	12,88	12,77	9,09	13,33	13,33	8,88
"Alternative (You)"	0,00	0,00	0,21	0,00	0,00	0,00
"Set Condition"	0,64	0,00	0,21	0,00	0,00	0,00
"Promise"	0,00	0,21	0,21	0,00	0,00	0,00
"Negative consequences"	0,00	0,21	0,21	0,00	0,00	0,00
"Request for help"	0,21	0,00	0,43	0,00	0,00	0,00
"Lack of enthusiasm"	0,86	0,21	1,29	0,00	0,00	0,00
"Postponement"	0,43	0,64	3,67	2,22	0,00	2,22

"Hedging"	0,21	0,21	2,81	2,22	0,00	0,00
"Positive opinion"	3,67	3,46	3,89	2,22	2,22	2,22
"Statement of empathy"	0,43	0,00	0,43	0,00	0,00	0,00
"Pause filler"	2,16	3,24	0,64	4,44	0,00	0,00
"Gratitude"	4,32	3,24	2,81	0,00	6,66	8,88
"Passive negative willingness"	0,00	0,00	0,21	0,00	0,00	0,00

The Turkish ELT speakers favored "excuse/reason/explanation" (12.88%, 12.77%, and 9.09% respectively) regardless of the interlocutors' social status in three situations. The table above shows that in Item 10 in which they refuse the boss's invitation to a party, the NSEs used "excuse/reason/explanation" (13.33%) as the PET group did. The PET group preferred to use "negative willingness" (3.03%) most while refusing the invitation of "a lower status person". Similarly, the native English speakers used this strategy most while refusing a lower status person (8.88%). Another similar finding between the two groups is that both the PET and the NSE group utilized the strategy of "regret" least while refusing a higher status person (3.46 % and 2.22 % respectively). However, the Turkish participants employed "hedging" with the frequency of 2.81 % to refuse "a lower status person", while the native English speakers did not prefer to use that strategy to refuse "a higher status person" with the frequency of 2.22%. Moreover, the PETs applied the strategy of "pause filler" most while refusing "an equal status person" (3.24%) while the NSEs used this strategy most while refusing "a higher status person" (4.44%). Another worthwhile thing to mention is that the Turkish speakers employed "gratitude" with the frequency of 4.32% to refuse "a higher status person" while the native English

speakers did not prefer to use that strategy to refuse "a higher status person" at all. Instead they used this strategy while refusing "a lower status person" (8.88%) and "an equal status person" (6.66%).

Next, the most popular order of semantic formula in different social status situations while refusing invitations are presented in the Table 11.

Table 11. Order of semantic formulas while refusing invitations in different power situations

	Participants				
	PETs (n = 62)			NSEs (n = 6)	
Semantic formulas					
"Higher"	"Equal"	"Lower"	"Higher"	"Equal"	"Lower"
Regret-Excuse-Gratitude	Gratitude-Excuse	Regret-Neg.will.-Excuse	Gratitude-Excuse	Gratitude-Excuse	Gratitude-

As seen from Table 11, the typical order of semantic formula while refusing "a higher status person" is "regret"-"excuse-gratitude" for the Turkish speakers. One example is seen below:

(1) "I am really sorry. We are flying to New York for the weekend. But, thank you."

Furthermore, the Turkish speakers used "gratitude"-"excuse/reason/explanation" order to refuse an invitation of a friend. An example is seen below:

(2) "Thank you. I have an important date that day."

To refuse a lower status person's invitation, the Turkish speakers employed the semantic formula of "regret"-"negative willingness"-"excuse/reason/explanation". One participant's example is seen below:

(9) "I am sorry. I can't. It is going to cost a lot to me."

The NSE group used "gratitude" to refuse the invitations of people who were "higher status", "equal status", or "lower status".

4.2.4 Refusals of offers

Situation 11: The employee refuses his boss who offers him an executive position in a different city. (The hearer is lower status)

Situation 9: The speaker refuses the offer of another piece of cake made by his friend. (The hearer is equal status)

Situation 7: The speaker refuses the cleaning lady who offers paying for the vase that she has broken. (The hearer is higher status)

Table 12 indicates the frequencies of refusal strategies employed while refusing offers.

Table 12. Percentages of Semantic Formulas in the Refusals of Offers (11, 9, 7) in Different Power Situations

	Participants	
Refusal strategies	PETs (n=62)	NSEs (n=6)

	“Higher”	“Equal”	“Lower”	“Higher”	“Equal”	“Lower”
“Performative”	0,44	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
“Negative willingness”	3,52	2,86	0,22	3,12	6,25	0,00
“Regret”	1,76	0,00	0,22	1,56	0,00	0,00
“Wish”	0,22	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
“Excuse/Reason/Explanation”	11,01	13,43	3,08	9,37	9,37	0,66
“Alternative (I)”	0,00	1,10	0,66	0,00	0,00	0,00
“Alternative (You)”	0,44	0,66	1,98	0,00	0,00	0,00
“Set Condition”	0,22	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
“Statement of principle”	0,00	0,22	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
“Statement of philosophy”	0,00	0,22	2,42	0,00	0,00	0,66
“Negative consequences”	0,22	0,00	0,00	0,00	1,56	0,00
“Criticize”	0,00	0,66	0,00	0,00	0,00	1,56
“Request for help”	0,22	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
“Hook”	0,00	0,00	13,21	0,00	0,00	9,37
“Lack of enthusiasm”	4,84	1,98	6,38	1,56	0,00	3,12
“Postponement”	0,22	0,66	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
“Hedging”	0,44	0,22	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
“Positive opinion”	0,00	1,98	0,00	0,66	3,12	0,00
“Statement of empathy”	0,44	0,00	0,66	0,00	0,00	1,56
“Pause filler”	0,66	2,86	1,98	0,00	1,56	0,00
“Gratitude”	6,16	13,21	0,44	0,66	14,06	0,00

"Passive negative willingness"	0,44	0,00	0,22	0,00	0,00	0,00
"Asking a question"	0,00	0,00	0,22	0,00	0,00	0,00

As indicated in the table above, 11.01% of the PETs gave "excuses/reasons/explanations" to refuse a higher person's offer of an executive position. The NSEs also employed this strategy most (9.37%) for the same condition. In refusing the friend's offer, "excuse/reason/explanation" was preferred most by both the PET group (13.43%) and the NSE group (9.37%). In refusing a lower person's offer to pay for the vase that she has broken, "letting the interlocutor off the hook" was utilized by 13.21% of the PETs. This strategy was utilized by the NSEs with a frequency of 9.37%.

Furthermore, as seen from the table above, the 6.16% of the PETs used the strategy of "gratitude/appreciation" to refuse the boss's offer. The NSEs employed it with a very low frequency (0.66%) in that situation. When refusing the offer of "an equal status person", 13.21% of the PET group preferred to use "gratitude". Similarly, the NSE group used it with the frequency of 14.06%.

Additionally, "let the interlocutor off the hook" was used most in Situation 7 among the other situations. The very similar point between the native English speakers and Turkish speakers is that they used this strategy only while turning down the offer of a lower status person. While Turkish participants used this strategy with a higher frequency of 13.21%, the native English speakers used it with the frequency of 9.37%. Moreover, the strategy of "regret" was used most by the PETs and NSEs most to refuse a higher status person' offer (1.76% and 1.56% respectively). To turn

the offer from an equal status person down, both groups utilized the refusal strategies of “positive opinion” and “pause filler”.

The order of the most favored semantic formula in the situations with different social status are presented in the Table 13.

Table 13. Order of Semantic Formulas While Refusing Offers in Different Power Situations

	Participants				
	PETs (n = 62)			NSEs (n = 6)	
Semantic formulas					
“Higher”	“Equal”	“Lower”	“Higher”	“Equal”	“Lower”
Gratitude-Excuse	Gratitude-Excuse	Excuse-Hook Lack of enth	Gratitude-Excuse	No-Gratitude	Hook-Excuse-Neg.will.

As shown in the Table 13, the semantic formula “gratitude”-“excuse/reason/explanation” is the most frequent semantic formula to refuse the offer made by “a higher status person”. To exemplify, one Turkish respondent refuses the offer of his boss as follows:

(10) “Thank you for your offer. But I don’t want to move to another town.”

In the other situation in which they refuse offer of “an equal status person”, most Turkish respondents began with “gratitude” and continued with an “excuse” as in the example below:

(11) “Thanks. I have just eaten three slices of pizza with French fries.”

Lastly, the most frequent formula for the Turkish preservice EFL teachers while refusing an offer made by "a lower status person" is "Hook"-"excuse/reason/explanation"-"lack of enthusiasm." An example is provided below: *(12)* "Don't worry. It is worthless. I do not want you to pay for it."

To sum up, the findings obtained from the WDCT illustrated the frequencies of refusal strategies that were used by both groups. There were both distinctions and similarities between the PET and NSE group. Both groups utilized indirect refusal strategy strategies with a higher proportion. In general, Turkish speakers utilized more "indirect strategies" than the native English speakers do, but they preferred to use "direct strategies" and "adjuncts" less compared to the English speakers. While declining requests, invitations and suggestions Turkish speakers used more refusal strategies than NSE group did.

It is also noted that that "excuse/reason/explanation" was used most among the other strategies in both groups with similar frequencies. Even though both Turkish and English participants favored "excuse/reason/explanation", the range of content of Turkish speakers was narrower and less specific.

Furthermore, the findings prove that power as a social variable affects the choice of refusals by both groups. "Negative willingness", which is one of the direct strategies, was used most while refusing "a lower status person" by both groups. In addition, "no", which is another direct strategy, was used most while refusing "an equal status person" especially when turning the offers down.

Additionally, the tables listed above indicate the most frequent order of semantic formula for each category with regard to "power", as well. The analysis of the data showed that the order and content of the semantic formulas are similar. The biggest difference between these two groups is that Turkish speakers used the formula of

“regret”-“negative willingness”-“excuse” while refusing a lower status person’s invitation, the English speakers preferred to use “gratitude”. However, it cannot be claimed that significant results were obtained about the most frequent semantic formulae for native English speakers since only six native English speakers attended the study.

4.3 Results of the MDCT

The other instrument that data obtained from is the multiple DCT (MDCT) including 12 situations as the WDCT did. However, the MDCT is different from the WDCT as there are only offers and requests in this instrument with regard to the three social variables. One of the significances of this instrument is that there are different combinations of different social variables as seen below:

Table 1. Combinations of the Social Variables in the MDCT

“Situation”	“Power”	“Distance”	“Imposition”
1	-	+	+
2	+	+	+
3	+	+	-
4	-	-	-
5	+	-	+
6	-	+	-
7	-	-	+
8	+	-	-
9	+	-	+
10	-	-	+
11	+	-	+

12	-	+	-

We cannot say that there is only one correct answer that every speaker of English or even native English speakers can agree with in the MDCT. However, the participants tried to choose the most appropriate answer among three options with two distractors. I worked with my advisor to choose the most appropriate answer for each situation. First, we broke down the responses in the options into the refusal strategies to analyze properly. Besides, we also tried to recognize the social variables in each situation which would help us evaluate the situations and options in a clear way. In addition, the answers of native English speakers were helpful in this process to decide the most appropriate answers. The findings after the analysis of the choices of the Turkish speakers are presented in Table 14.

Table 14. Choices of Turkish Participants in the MDCT

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
N	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31
Mean	0,32	0,61	0,80	0,77	0,48	0,25	0,35	0,67	0,54	0,41	0,51	0,54
Sum	10,00	19,00	25,00	24,00	15,00	8,00	11,00	21,00	17,00	13,00	16,00	17,00
%	31,25	61,29	80,64	77,41	48,38	25,80	35,48	67,74	54,83	41,93	51,61	54,83
SD	0,47	0,49	0,40	0,42	0,50	0,44	0,48	0,47	0,50	0,50	0,50	0,50

Table 14 shows the descriptive statistics for 62 students. The mean score for overall performance on the MDCT is 50% for Turkish EFL learners. This table above also shows that the Turkish speakers gave most appropriate answers at Item 3, Item 4 and Item 8. The common point in these three situations is that all these three situations are low imposition conditions. They chose the options with negative willingness and gratitude as the most appropriate refusal strategy. As they also stated

in the discussions, they did not prefer to make long detailed explanations or regrets in these situations.

Moreover, less than 50% of the students had difficulties in choosing the most appropriate options in the Item 1, Item 6, and Item 10. The common point in these three situations is that the respondents were required to refuse the requests made by "a lower status person". Turkish speakers stated in the recordings that they did not think that they needed to use a detailed excuse like a "lunch date", so they eliminated that option while native English speakers prefer that option as the most appropriate one. In Situation 10 in which they were to refuse a friend's request, nearly half of the Turkish speakers stated that they must be polite to their friends. Thus, they chose the option with a wish, regret, and an excuse. However, English speakers preferred to use direct strategies in that situation because they were asked to do extra chore (high imposition).

Another finding from Table 14 is that the Turkish participants mostly agreed on Item 3, Item 4, and Item 6 in which the respondents are expected to refuse an offer.

Research Question 4: What semantic formulas do preservice EFL teachers prefer while refusing someone in the MDCT?

4.1 What semantic formulas are preferred when there are power differences?

4.2 What semantic formulas are preferred when there are distance differences?

4.3 What semantic formulas are preferred when there are imposition differences?

As mentioned above, the correct answers were agreed on with the advisor and the help of the native English speaker. However, it cannot be claimed that all the

participants agreed on the same options when selecting the most appropriate refusals in the given conditions. Thus, their discussions with their peers were recorded to understand why they chose that option but excluded others.

The analysis of the transcripts of the recordings gave useful information about which social variables they paid attention to when selecting the most appropriate refusal strategy. Instead of presenting the findings item by item in the MDCT, the findings will be presented according to "social status", "social distance", and "imposition".

4.3.1 Power with the speaker

The speaker has high social status in these items. The speaker is the person who makes a request or an offer while the hearer is the person who refuses the request or offer. Thus, the respondents need to refuse the people who are "higher social status" in these situation. Firstly, it is worth mentioning that the students gave importance to power more compared to distance and imposition. After analyzing their preferences and transcripts, it was found that most of the students stated that they need to make explanations especially if they are lower social status. The participants also said that they prefer the options in which there is "a positive statement" such as "I'd like to help out" when there are power differences. Moreover, they stated that offering a solution to a person with a higher status is preferable in most situations. To exemplify, in Item 5, most students chose Option A because option A includes a nice solution such as giving them a card (alternative-you) and enough explanation. Moreover, the analysis of the transcripts showed that they prefer the strategy of wish while refusing a president.

On the other hand, especially the transcripts gave useful information about why they eliminated some options when they were "lower social status". More than half of the Turkish students thought that the sentences like "Would you mind asking someone else?" or "Can't you ask somebody else?" are rude while refusing "a higher status person". Similarly, they stated that "guild trip" and "set condition for past acceptance" are not polite enough. For example, most students eliminated the option in which there is "I wasn't informed." Furthermore, while answering Item 5, most students expressed that "I could have served you if you had brought it earlier." (set condition for past acceptance) is rude when refusing someone with lower status. These students supported their thought by adding that they have to be polite while talking with a valued customer even though they did not clearly say the word "power". Lastly, some students think that using the refusal strategy of "negative willingness" is not polite enough while refusing "a higher status person". For instance, in Item 11 in which the hearer who is "lower status" refuses the request of the president, some students (16%) clearly said that "I can't" (negative willingness) in Option A which the most direct statement among the other options is not polite enough.

The NSE group mostly shared the similar ideas with the Turkish students. They stated that they need to apply indirect strategies more since they have lower status. For instance, in Item 2 in which they refuse the manager, they said that "Would it be possible to do the tour another time?" is a good statement by adding that they are not closing the door on a future solution. Besides, they said that they must choose the options in which there are apologetic statements such as "I'm sorry". They also shared the similar though with the Turkish participants as stating that "I don't want any" is not polite enough.

4.3.2 Power with the hearer

The participating students are expected to do the act of refusing "lower status" interlocutors. The hearers (respondents) are "higher social status" in these items. It can be said that the students said the similar things that they said in the other six situations in which they are "lower status". For instance, in Item 12 "Will you ask somebody else?" (alternative-you) was found not polite enough. On the other hand, "Maybe you could ask someone else." (alternative-you) was accepted as a polite statement although these refusal strategies are in the same category of refusal strategy. Thus, preservice EFL teachers also paid attention to linguistics. While they accepted the statement polite, they accepted the other response which was in the question form was not polite. In addition, almost 12 students stated clearly that "I don't need it" (negative willingness) in Item 4 is not polite even if they are "higher status". Some students stated that the strategy of "guild trip" in Item 1 "You promised it would be ready, didn't you?" is not polite enough. Thus, they eliminated that option.

Furthermore, almost all Turkish speakers clearly stated that they did not accept the statement "I am in a hurry." (excuse) in Item 6 and Item 12 as an explanation. Even though they did not state it clearly, they might have accepted this statement as an escape from making an explanation to the speaker. Because they said that they did not have to make an explanation to the salesclerk since they believe that the salesclerk might insist if they make an explanation or behave them in a polite way in Item 6.

On the other hand, native speakers of English did not choose the options with "I am in a hurry" in Item 6 and Item 12. Most of the Turkish participants chose the

option with “I am in a hurry” in Item 6. However, English speakers chose Option C which is “I am sorry, but I’ve got a lunch date.” They chose the option with the excuse which can be accepted as more detailed.

4.3.3 Distant relationship

The interlocutors are nıt familiar in these situations. Thus, the interlocutors have a distant relationship such as the relationship between a job applicant and a manager. Almost all of the Turkish participants claim that they do not have to make an explanation if they are do not have a close relationship with the speaker. They support this belief especially if the hearer (i.e., the participant in the study) has higher power as in Item 6 and Item 12. On the other hand, in Item 3 in which they turn the offer down of a higher status person, they stated that they did not have to make an explanation just to refuse a gum. It might be about the low imposition in this situation.

4.3.4 Close relationship

The interlocutors are familiar with each other in “Item 4”, “Item 5”, “Item 7”, “Item 8”, “Item 9”, “Item 10”, and “Item 11”. In the seventh and tenth item, they are housemates and the respondents have higher social status. Most students stated that they would eliminate the options in which there are the strategies like set condition for past acceptance, criticize or negative willingness. Because they think that these strategies are not polite enough in close relationships. Additionally, the students preferred the options in which there is a solution (alternative- you). Because the speaker (i.e., the person who makes a request or an offer) is familiar with the hearer.

The NSEs mostly shared the similar thoughts with PET group. However, in Item 7 in which they refuse their housemate's request for a party at home, NSEs said that Option C is too polite because there are a lot of solutions in that option. However, nearly half of the PET group chose that option because the interlocutors are familiar with each other.

4.3.5 High imposition

These items include high imposition. For example, the participants have to refuse the request of the president of the club who asks the hearer plan a trip. The respondents did not clearly mention "imposition" in situations mostly except Item 10 which was coded as [-P/-D/+R]. Most of the students stated that they do not have to be very polite because of the extra chores. Thus, they eliminated the option with the strategy of wish. In contrast, most students chose the option in which there is the same strategy "wish" even if the imposition is high in Item 11 that is coded as [+P/-D/+R]. They said that they chose that option because they had to refuse the request made by a higher status person. Thus, it can be said that they tried to be more polite if they were lower status regardless of the degree of imposition. This shows us that they paid attention to power difference more than imposition even in high imposition situations.

4.3.6 Low imposition

Students did not clearly use the word "low imposition" in the situations. However, we can understand from their preferences and the transcripts that they were actually sensitive about the imposition. Almost all students think that they do not have to make any explanation to turn down an offer for a bubble-gum even if the addressee

has higher power in Item 3. They stated that turning down the offer for a bubble-gum is not a big deal. On the other hand, in the other situations which are coded as [+P/-D/-R] or [+P/+D/-R], the students preferred the options with a gratitude, excuse, or wish. When the imposition is low, the students were more inclined to choose the options with a gratitude.

To sum up the findings from the MDCT, first of all, we can say that this instrument gave the chance to understand the preferred refusal strategies under different combinations with power, social distance, and imposition. The transcripts gave valuable information about the way that Turkish people approach appropriate and inappropriate refusal strategies. Most Turkish students thought that guild trip and alternative-you which suggests the other person asking someone else are not polite even if the hearers who does the act of refusing are lower status. Besides, some native speakers shared the same thought with the Turkish students. The other important finding is that Turkish people did not accept "I am in hurry" as an excuse to be used to someone with higher social status. Rather, they preferred this statement while they were refusing the offer or request of salesclerks. They said that the salesclerks would insist, so they did not have to behave politely to maintain the distance between themselves as the respondents and the salesclerks. On the other hand, native speakers did not say anything like this about the salesclerks.

The transcripts also showed that Turkish speakers put emphasis on power more compared to social distance and imposition. As in the WDCT, they did not prefer the options with negative willingness while refusing a higher status person. Lastly, Turkish speakers gave more importance to close relationship than the English speakers even if they have higher power. They stated they need to make an

explanation or find a solution while refusing a housemate while native English speakers were more direct especially when the imposition was high.

4.4 Summary

The findings obtained from the WDCT show that PETs tended to favor indirect strategies as NSEs did. The number of the direct refusal strategies by native speakers of English is higher than the number of the direct strategies used by Turkish speakers. Additionally, Turkish speakers utilized refusal strategies most while they were refusing requests while English speakers used refusal strategies most to refuse offers. Both groups preferred to use "excuse/reason/explanation" and "gratitude" most. English speakers gave more details in their excuses. Furthermore, Turkish speakers favored regret while English speakers favored negative willingness as the third most frequent strategy. Although there are some differences in the order of most preferred semantic formulas, both groups generally shared similar refusal strategies.

Moreover, the findings show that social status was an effective factor for Turkish speakers while refusing someone. They employed indirect strategies more in the situations where they refuse higher status people such as presidents and employers, and negative willingness to refuse a lower status person mostly. This situation is also same for the NSEs. Another valuable finding is that Turkish speakers used positive statement most to refuse the request of a higher status person while English speakers employed that strategy most to refuse the request by a lower status person.

The findings from the MDCT indicate that half of the Turkish speakers were successful in agreeing on the most appropriate refusal strategy. The analysis of the

transcripts indicated that Turkish speakers were more sensitive about “social status” compared to “social distance” and “imposition”. The recordings indicate that they pay attention whether they act as the respondents with “lower status” or “higher status”.

They also mentioned the distance between the interlocutors especially when the interlocutors were familiar (i.e., close distance). On the other hand, most of them did not clearly mention the range of imposition although they agreed on the same option to refuse a low imposition situation. Instead, some participants said that they did not have to make long explanations in the situations in which the imposition was low. To clarify, nearly half of the students stated that “No, thank you” (i.e., a formula with a No and gratitude) were enough to turn down the offer of a gum although they were lower status as the refusers.

CHAPTER 5
CONCLUSION

5.1 Summary of the findings

The findings obtained from the WDCT indicated that both Turkish participants and native English speakers employed both "direct strategies" and "indirect strategies". Both groups employed indirect strategies more. These findings support the findings of other studies conducted in Turkish EFL context before (e.g., Aksoyalp, 2009; Satıç & Çiftçi, 2007). Refusals are mostly accepted as one of the speech acts that naturally threatens the speaker's or the hearer's face (Ellis, 2005). Thus, participants in this study mostly preferred indirect strategies.

People prefer using "indirect strategies" not only to be polite, but also to make their speech more powerful (Thomas, 1995). Additionally, using indirect strategies with a high frequency does not mean that the statements are pragmatically acceptable, or polite since they can overuse these strategies. Hence, it cannot be asserted that the more refusal strategies people use, the more polite their statements are. Turkish speakers might have thought that their refusals would be less offending when they employed indirect strategies.

Another finding was that Turkish speakers used "excuse/explanation/reason" with the highest frequency. The reason for the extensive preference of the strategy might be its being convenient in most of the situations. Besides, it can be a convincing strategy as the speaker would understand the hearer's situation. They also favored regret and gratitude as the other two most frequent strategies. This order of the most popular refusal strategies in the order of "excuse/reason/explanation"- "gratitude"- "regret" is the same for NSEs. Furthermore, the content analysis of the excuses indicated that Turkish respondents were not as specific as English speakers.

They did not state the time or place in their excuses. However, English speakers gave more details in their excuses in their refusals. For example, a Turkish participant wrote an excuse as “I have made plans for this evening” while a native English participant preferred to write “I am going to have dinner with my wife tonight”.

Furthermore, Turkish speakers also employed direct strategies, and mostly “negative willingness” such as “I can’t”. It was also observed that Turkish speakers used performative such as “I refuse” only with the frequency of 0.10% in their refusals. It was one of the least popular strategies among Turkish participants. This finding that almost all of the participants avoided using performatives supports the finding of Hassani, Mardani and Dastjerdi (2011). Likewise, they used “No” with a very low frequency (3.45%). Instead of utilizing direct strategies alone, Turkish speakers combined the direct strategies with indirect refusal strategies such as “I am sorry” (regret) or adjuncts to refusals such as “Thanks” (gratitude).

The data also showed that most participants utilized “direct strategies” more in the situations where the interlocutor are “lower” or “equal status” while they employed “indirect strategies” more to refuse “a higher status person”. Thus, it can be asserted that Turkish speakers were sensitive about “social status”. This finding is parallel to the findings of other studies (e.g., Allami & Naemi, 2010; Moody, 2011).

The results of the MDCT are parallel to the findings of WDCT. Turkish participants mostly did not choose the options in which there were only direct strategies such as “I don’t need it” (negative willingness) as the most appropriate strategy. The analysis of the transcripts gave the researcher information about why they did not prefer direct strategies. They stated that it is very rude to use a direct strategy without using an indirect strategy regardless of their status.

The other important finding is that Turkish speakers find the statements such as “Would you mind asking someone else?” or “Can’t you ask somebody else?” (alternative-you) rude. Most of the respondents added that using this strategy is not appropriate especially while refusing a higher status person while most Turkish speakers did not think that “Maybe you could ask someone else” (alternative-you) is a rude statement even though it is in the same refusal category with the previous ones in the question form.

The findings from the MDCT show that preservice English teachers had control over both pragmalinguistic aspects as social variables and linguistic factors together affect the degree of politeness and appropriateness because they explicitly consider “power”, “social distance”, and “imposition” have an effect on their preferences. Similarly, they thought that the strategy of “guild trip” is a face-threatening act especially when they were talking with “a higher status person” (e.g., a valued customer). They stated that that strategy might offend the speaker.

Turkish speakers clearly stated that they did not accept “I am in a hurry” (excuse/reason/explanation) as an excuse. They accepted that statement as an escape from making an excuse. They added that they did not have to make an explanation to a salesclerk in two situations. They believed that the salesclerks would probably insist if they made a clear explanation while native English speakers preferred to choose the options with a more detailed explanation such as a lunch date. This finding indicates that culture is very effective on their interpretation of politeness. Appropriateness rules show differences in different cultures (Farashaiyan & Muthusamy, 2017).

In line with the findings of the WDCT, the respondents preferred the options in which there are the refusal strategies of "excuse/reason/explanation" and "regret" in the MDCT, as well.

Turkish participants did not agree on the answers which were coded as the most appropriate answers. However, it was also noted that even native speakers of English had disagreements about the most appropriate refusal strategy. Thus, transcripts were helpful to see what factors they consider most when deciding on the refusal strategies. These preferences were more about the culture, but transcripts indicated that some respondents mentioned their personalities. For example, one Turkish respondent stated that she is a very shy person, so she cannot refuse her boss with a direct strategy even if imposition is high.

Overall, my findings are in line with what some researchers (e.g., Bulut, 2000; Çapar, 2014) found in their investigation because the participants were sensitive to social factors. Power was the only social variable that was investigated in the WDCT. The respondents used different semantic formulas in different situations. On the other hand, all three social variables were investigated in the MDCT. The respondents defended their ideas by mentioning all of the social variables, especially social status. The participants did not explicitly mention the effect of imposition, but the analysis of the MDCT and transcripts showed that they also paid attention to imposition.

5.2 Discussion

The analyses of both the WDCT and the transcripts of the MDCT were helpful in understanding what factors are important for the participants when using refusals and what motivates them in choosing the appropriate refusal strategies The tendency to

use indirect strategies in various combinations by Turkish speakers can be interpreted as an effort not to make the speaker offended. This finding of this study that the participants employed indirect strategies more supports the findings of the other studies done in the Turkish context (e.g., Aksoyalp, 2009).

The findings of the WDCT indicate that both groups used "excuse/reason/explanation" most. Although both groups favored "excuse/reason/explanation", the range of the content of English speakers' was broader. The NSEs gave information about the time and place in their excuses. The other most preferred strategies used by Turkish speakers were "regret" and "gratitude". These preferences of Turkish participants are parallel to the findings of other studies conducted in the Turkish context (e.g., Bulut, 2003; Çapar, 2014; Gungoremezler, 2014).

The other valuable finding obtained from the WDCT is that Turkish participants were sensitive about social status. Turkish participants mostly used "negative willingness", which is a direct strategy while refusing a lower status person. Besides, they preferred to use regret, positive opinion and gratitude more while refusing a higher status person. These findings indicate that they are sensitive to social status which are parallel to the other studies done in the EFL context (e.g., Allami & Naemi, 2010; Hergüner, 2009; Tekyıldız, 2004).

The analysis of the MDCT indicated the preference of the semantic formulas of the subjects in different scenarios. The results of their choices showed similarities with the results of the WDCT. For example, both groups mostly chose the options in which there are indirect strategies including a regret or an excuse. Transcripts of discussions were analyzed to see how they were thinking in the situations with different contexts. The analysis showed that Turkish speakers were sensitive about

the social variables. They used the notion of social status and distance in their discussions. On the other hand, they did not mention the range of imposition. However, their preferences in the MDCT and their discussions indicated that the range of the imposition actually affects the way that they refuse.

To sum up, most of the participants softened their refusals with "an excuse", or "a statement of regret". These strategies are used as softeners with the aim of saving the face of the speaker (i.e., the person who requests, offers, invites, or suggests) (Beebe et al., 1990). As a positive politeness strategy, "excuse/reason/explanation" possibly reduces the social distance between the interlocutor by contributing to the interaction (Sa'd & Gholami, 2017). The findings support the politeness theory of Brown and Levinson (1987). Brown and Levinson (1987) state that refusals are naturally face-threatening. There is not a common point about whether the speaker (the person who makes the offer or the request) or the hearer (the person who refuses) is at more risk in the speech act of refusal. However, the hearer is mostly believed to be at risk more because there is a high responsibility that the hearer is at more risk offending the speaker because the hearer does the act of refusing (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Similarly, Barron (2003) adds that the hearer's both positive and negative faces are at risk. The hearer's positive face is in danger because if he refuses the speaker, there will be a dispute between them. The participants can prevent FTAs with the help of politeness strategies. In other words, the hearer's positive face might be damaged because of not desirable answers. Besides, the hearer's negative face might also be damaged since his statement might be accepted impolite. Hence, the participants employed both negative politeness strategies to save the negative face of the hearer, and positive politeness strategies not to threaten the hearer's positive face. Face needs may change from culture to

culture. Because the way people refuse is affected by cultural differences, the possibility of misunderstandings or communication breakdowns is not low. These misunderstandings among the people from different cultures do not occur only because of linguistic factors such as syntactic and lexical factors. All of the Turkish participants are preservice EFL teachers in this study. However, some differences were found between the Turkish participants and native English speakers. Because refusals are both content and culture- dependent, and people do not say 'No' directly to refuse someone, but they use indirect strategies.

In real life conversations, people adjust the strength of face-threatening acts through three aspects which are called as "social distance", "social status", and "imposition".

5.3 Limitations of the study and suggestions for further research

The present study has some limitations that may be significant for future research. Firstly, data instruments used in this study are a WDCT and MDCT. The justification of the use of DCTs was mentioned in the previous chapter (Chapter 3.3.2) and participants' conversations during the application of the MDCT were analyzed later. However, DCT is mostly accepted to have many drawbacks in spite of being a practical tool. Ewert (2008) states that one major drawback of DCTs is that the responses of the participants might not be the same as naturally spoken data. Because what people say in those situations can be different in real life interaction. Additionally, Cohen (1996b) believes that more than one data instrument should be used in a study to investigate in a more detailed and reliable way. Thus, future studies can use other data collection methods such as participant observation.

To sum up, speech acts might be realized differently across cultures since meaning shifts from culture to culture. Nonnative speakers must be aware of sociopragmatic norms. Raising their awareness of pragmatics will probably solve many communication problems and misunderstandings between the interlocutors.

5.4 Pedagogical implications

This section discusses some possible pedagogical implications of the present study. As already mentioned before, foreign language teaching has recently focused on communicative approach. Thus, more research has been done on pragmatics, and pragmatic knowledge. Pragmatic competence facilitates to achieve the communication goals in intercultural communication successfully.

It is also possible that speakers are more likely to transfer their knowledge in L1 to the L2 if they are not pragmatically competent enough in the second language which will probably cause misunderstandings. Thus, teachers should not neglect pragmatic competence at language classes, and they should include pragmatic knowledge into the curriculum. The tasks focusing on the learner's attention on pragmatic forms, functions, and context might be helpful in developing language learners' pragmatic competence. Even though some researchers do not believe that pragmatic knowledge can be obtained explicitly, many researchers believe that language learners can be more competent with the help of instruction. Bardovi-Harlig (2001) states that speakers can be more competent with the help of instruction. On the other hand, English teachers themselves might not be competent in pragmatics as some studies have showed (e.g., Damar & Ekin, 2003). Teachers can be unwilling to develop in pragmatics professionally although results of studies

support the idea that instruction might be effective in pragmatics (Vellenga, 2011). To sum up, research in pragmatics and practice at language classes should match.

In the light of the findings, it may be suggested that teachers should design their courses by creating an authentic and contextualized setting especially for EFL learners. First, textbooks do not include pragmatic knowledge (Boxer & Pickering, 1995). Besides, Turkish students may not find the chance to have interaction with native English speakers, and the opportunity to know how to refuse appropriately. To compensate for these drawbacks, teachers should present them models of appropriate behavior by taking social variables into consideration. Hymes (1977) states that the performance of pragmatic competence is dependent on the ability to use the knowledge of pragmatics. Contextually appropriate input is needed to enhance their pragmatic knowledge, and language speakers should have the ability to use that knowledge at classes.

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