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Doctoral Dissertation

The Use of Pragmatic Strategies by Nonnative English-
Speaking Teachers of English as a Foreign Language in
Turkey and Native English-Speaking Teachers of
English as a Second Language in the USA

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ABSTRACT

THE USE OF PRAGMATIC STRATEGIES BY NONNATIVE ENGLISH-SPEAKING TEACHERS OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN TURKEY AND NATIVE ENGLISH-SPEAKING TEACHERS OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE IN THE USA

Mehmet Kanık

This dissertation investigates the pragmatic competence of Turkish teachers of English as a foreign language. For this purpose, a discourse completion questionnaire with eight situations targeted to elicit apology speech acts is given to 100 American teachers of ESL and 100 Turkish teachers of EFL. The apologies provided by the two groups are thoroughly analyzed and categorized into apology speech act realization strategies. Next, the data is analyzed statistically using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 16.0. The data is analyzed in terms of strategy use and distribution of tokens across strategies with Pearson's chi-square test. The length of the apologies and the average number of strategies and sub-strategies per apology speech act are analyzed using independent samples t-test. The results of the statistical analyses reveal that the two participant groups differ in all categories of comparison, though to different degrees. When the results of the tests are interpreted, it is observed that there are essential differences in four areas: 1) the patterns of common strategy use, 2) distribution of tokens across strategies, 3) the use of individual strategies and 4) structural characteristics of apology speech act sets. The results have implications for improving language teaching, teacher training programs and materials. In particular, these implications can help language teachers be a better model of native-like language use and also provide students with necessary exposure to native language use.

ÖZ

TÜRKİYE'DE YABACI DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETEN TÜRK İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLERİYLE AMERİKA'DA İKİNCİ DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETEN AMERİKALI İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLERİNİN EDİMSSEL STRATEJİ KULLANIMLARI

Mehmet Kanık

Bu doktora çalışmasında İngilizce'yi yabancı dil olarak öğreten Türk öğretmenlerin edimsel yetileri araştırılmıştır. Bu amaçla, özür söz edimini ortaya çıkarması hedeflenen sekiz durum içeren bir söylem tamamlama testi 100 Amerikalı ve 100 Türk İngilizce öğretmenine uygulanmıştır. İki gruptan elde edilen özür söz edimleri dikkatle analiz edilip özür söz edim gerçekleştirme stratejilerine ayrılarak kategorize edilmiştir. Daha sonra elde edilen bu veriler *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* adlı istatistik programı kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Verilerden strateji kullanımı ve belirtkelerin strateji kategorilerine dağılımları Pearson Ki-kare testiyle analiz edilmiştir. Özürlerin uzunluğu ve kullanılan ortalama strateji sayıları da bağımsız örneklem t-testi kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Sonuçlar, iki katılımcı grubun tüm karşılaştırma kategorisinde farklılık gösterdiklerini ortaya koymuştur. Sonuçlar yorumlandığında, dört alanda temel farklılık olduğu gözlenmiştir: 1) yaygın stratejilerin oluşturduğu özür kalıbı, 2) belirtkelerin strateji kategorilerine dağılımı, 3) strateji kullanımı ve 4) söz edim setinin yapısal özellikleri. Sonuçlar, dil öğretim ve öğretmen yetiştirme programları ve materyallerini geliştirmek açısından uygulama boyutu taşımaktadır. Özellikle, bu uygulama boyutu yabancı dil öğretmenlerine daha iyi bir dil modeli olabilmeleri ve de öğrencileri gerekli anadil kullanımına maruz bırakabilmeleri konularında yardımcı olabilir.

PREFACE

In our global world today, it is almost impossible for a person to avoid communication with people outside their language and culture group. In the context of Turkey, the instances of such communications have been increasing in number in recent years, which will probably only increase even more during the course of integration with the European Union. Such cross-linguistic interactions require more than linguistic knowledge. In such instances, the knowledge of language use could be more important than general linguistic competence, because it could be more important to be “appropriate” than “accurate” in many situations. In order to adapt to this situation, people need the knowledge of language use defined by pragmatics.

However, it is more difficult for an EFL learner to develop pragmatic competence than an ESL learner because there are fewer opportunities of exposure to language use in the context of EFL. For this reason, language teachers and the materials they choose become very important. If language teachers are not equipped with sufficient pragmatic competence, the chances for their learners to acquire pragmatic knowledge will be low. On top of that, teachers with a lack of pragmatic competence may not choose appropriate materials to complement the pragmatic competence of their learners. As a consequence, this study aims to investigate the pragmatic competence of Turkish teachers of English as a foreign language.

Needless to say, realizing this study has not been easy and I felt the help and support of plenty of people throughout the study. I am indebted to all who provided help and support with their invaluable ideas, suggestions and time.

I would first like to thank my dissertation advisor, Professor Tülin Polat for inspiring and supporting me throughout this study. She has always been there for me whenever I needed her invaluable advice, support and encouragement. Her knowledge and expertise have played an important role in shaping this dissertation.

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ABBREVIATIONS

A1	Alerter 1
A2	Alerter 2
A3	Alerter 3
A4	Alerter 4
A5	Alerter 5
A6	Alerter 6
BICS	Basic interpersonal communicative skills
χ^2	Chi-square
CALP	Cognitive academic language proficiency
CCSARP	Cross-cultural study of speech act realization patterns
CNN	Central News Network
CP	Cooperative principle
CV	Curriculum Vitae
D	Social distance between the speaker and the hearer
D1	Downgrader 1
D2	Downgrader 2
D3	Downgrader 3
D4	Downgrader 4
D5	Downgrader 5
D6	Downgrader 6
D7	Downgrader 7
D8	Downgrader 8
DCQ	Discourse completion questionnaire
DCT	Discourse completion task/test
df	Degree of freedom
EFL	English as a foreign language
ELF	English as a lingua franca
ENL	English as a native language
ESL	English as a second language
EU	European Union
FTA	Face-threatening act
GCI	Generalized conversational implicatures
H	Hearer
IFID	Illocutionary force indicating device
L	Language
L1	Native language
L2	Second language
M	Mean
MCQ	Multiple-choice questionnaire
N	Number
NEST	Native English speaking teachers
NNEST	Non-native English speaking teachers
NNS	Non-native speaker
NS	Native speaker

NumAlert	Number of alerters
NumberS	Number of strategies in the head act
NumDown	Number of downgraders
NumUp	Number of upgraders
p	Probability
P	Relative power of speaker with respect to hearer
PCI	Particularized conversational implicatures
PTS	Pilot test situation
PTS1	Situation 1 of the pilot test
PTS2	Situation 2 of the pilot test
PTS3	Situation 3 of the pilot test
PTS4	Situation 4 of the pilot test
PTS5	Situation 5 of the pilot test
PTS6	Situation 6 of the pilot test
PTS7	Situation 7 of the pilot test
PTS8	Situation 8 of the pilot test
PTS9	Situation 9 of the pilot test
PTS10	Situation 10 of the pilot test
PTS11	Situation 11 of the pilot test
PTS12	Situation 12 of the pilot test
PTS13	Situation 13 of the pilot test
PTS14	Situation 14 of the pilot test
PTS15	Situation 15 of the pilot test
PTS16	Situation 16 of the pilot test
R	Absolute ranking of imposition
S	Speaker
SD	Standard deviation
Sig.	Significance
SLA	Second language acquisition
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
Std. Deviation	Standard deviation
S1	Strategy in the head act 1
S2	Strategy in the head act 2
S3	Strategy in the head act 3
S4	Strategy in the head act 4
S5	Strategy in the head act 5
S6	Strategy in the head act 6
S7	Strategy in the head act 7
S8	Strategy in the head act 8
S9	Strategy in the head act 9
S10	Strategy in the head act 10
S11	Strategy in the head act 11
S12	Strategy in the head act 12
S13	Strategy in the head act 13
S14	Strategy in the head act 14
S15	Strategy in the head act 15
S16	Strategy in the head act 16

S17	Strategy in the head act 17
S18	Strategy in the head act 18
S19	Strategy in the head act 19
S20	Strategy in the head act 20
S21	Strategy in the head act 21
S22	Strategy in the head act 22
S23	Strategy in the head act 23
S24	Strategy in the head act 25
S26	Strategy in the head act 26
S27	Strategy in the head act 27
SI	Situation I of the main study
SIA1	Situation I Alerter 1
SIA2	Situation I Alerter 2
SIA3	Situation I Alerter 3
SIA4	Situation I Alerter 4
SIA5	Situation I Alerter 5
SIA6	Situation I Alerter 6
SID1	Situation I Downgrader 1
SID2	Situation I Downgrader 2
SID3	Situation I Downgrader 3
SID4	Situation I Downgrader 4
SID5	Situation I Downgrader 5
SID6	Situation I Downgrader 6
SID7	Situation I Downgrader 7
SID8	Situation I Downgrader 8
SIS1	Situation I strategy in the head act 1
SIS2	Situation I strategy in the head act 2
SIS3	Situation I strategy in the head act 3
SIS4	Situation I strategy in the head act 4
SIS5	Situation I strategy in the head act 5
SIS6	Situation I strategy in the head act 6
SIS7	Situation I strategy in the head act 7
SIS8	Situation I strategy in the head act 8
SIS9	Situation I strategy in the head act 9
SIS10	Situation I strategy in the head act 10
SIS11	Situation I strategy in the head act 11
SIS12	Situation I strategy in the head act 12
SIS13	Situation I strategy in the head act 13
SIS14	Situation I strategy in the head act 14
SIS15	Situation I strategy in the head act 15
SIS16	Situation I strategy in the head act 16
SIS17	Situation I strategy in the head act 17
SIS18	Situation I strategy in the head act 18
SIS19	Situation I strategy in the head act 19
SIS20	Situation I strategy in the head act 20
SIS21	Situation I strategy in the head act 21
SIS22	Situation I strategy in the head act 22

SIS23	Situation I strategy in the head act 23
SIS24	Situation I strategy in the head act 24
SIS25	Situation I strategy in the head act 25
SIS26	Situation I strategy in the head act 26
SIS27	Situation I strategy in the head act 27
SIU1	Situation I Upgrader 1
SIU2	Situation I Updrader 2
SIU3	Situation I Upgrader 2
SIU4	Situation I Updrader 3
SIU5	Situation I Upgrader 3
SIU6	Situation I Updrader 4
SII	Situation II of the main study
SIIA1	Situation II Alerter 1
SIIA2	Situation II Alerter 2
SIIA3	Situation II Alerter 3
SIIA4	Situation II Alerter 4
SIIA5	Situation II Alerter 5
SIIA6	Situation II Alerter 6
SIID1	Situation II Downgrader 1
SIID2	Situation II Downgrader 2
SIID3	Situation II Downgrader 3
SIID4	Situation II Downgrader 4
SIID5	Situation II Downgrader 5
SIID6	Situation II Downgrader 6
SIID7	Situation II Downgrader 7
SIID8	Situation II Downgrader 8
SIIS1	Situation II Strategy in the head act 1
SIIS2	Situation II Strategy in the head act 2
SIIS3	Situation II Strategy in the head act 3
SIIS4	Situation II Strategy in the head act 4
SIIS5	Situation II Strategy in the head act 5
SIIS6	Situation II Strategy in the head act 6
SIIS7	Situation II Strategy in the head act 7
SIIS8	Situation II Strategy in the head act 8
SIIS9	Situation II Strategy in the head act 9
SIIS10	Situation II Strategy in the head act 10
SIIS11	Situation II Strategy in the head act 11
SIIS12	Situation II Strategy in the head act 12
SIIS13	Situation II Strategy in the head act 13
SIIS14	Situation II Strategy in the head act 14
SIIS15	Situation II Strategy in the head act 15
SIIS16	Situation II Strategy in the head act 16
SIIS17	Situation II Strategy in the head act 17
SIIS18	Situation II Strategy in the head act 18
SIIS19	Situation II Strategy in the head act 19
SIIS20	Situation II Strategy in the head act 20
SIIS21	Situation II Strategy in the head act 21

SIIS22	Situation II Strategy in the head act 22
SIIS23	Situation II Strategy in the head act 23
SIIS24	Situation II Strategy in the head act 24
SIIS25	Situation II Strategy in the head act 25
SIIS26	Situation II Strategy in the head act 26
SIIS27	Situation II Strategy in the head act 27
SIIU1	Situation II Upgrader 1
SIIU2	Situation II Upgrader 2
SIIU3	Situation II Upgrader 3
SIIU4	Situation II Upgrader 4
SIIU5	Situation II Upgrader 5
SIIU6	Situation II Upgrader 6
SIII	Situation III of the main study
SIIIA1	Situation III Alerter 1
SIIIA2	Situation III Alerter 2
SIIIA3	Situation III Alerter 3
SIIIA4	Situation III Alerter 4
SIIIA5	Situation III Alerter 5
SIIIA6	Situation III Alerter 6
SIIID1	Situation III Downgrader 1
SIIID2	Situation III Downgrader 2
SIIID3	Situation III Downgrader 3
SIIID4	Situation III Downgrader 4
SIIID5	Situation III Downgrader 5
SIIID6	Situation III Downgrader 6
SIIID7	Situation III Downgrader 7
SIIID8	Situation III Downgrader 8
SIIS1	Situation III Strategy in the head act 1
SIIS2	Situation III Strategy in the head act 2
SIIS3	Situation III Strategy in the head act 3
SIIS4	Situation III Strategy in the head act 4
SIIS5	Situation III Strategy in the head act 5
SIIS6	Situation III Strategy in the head act 6
SIIS7	Situation III Strategy in the head act 7
SIIS8	Situation III Strategy in the head act 8
SIIS9	Situation III Strategy in the head act 9
SIIS10	Situation III Strategy in the head act 10
SIIS11	Situation III Strategy in the head act 11
SIIS12	Situation III Strategy in the head act 12
SIIS13	Situation III Strategy in the head act 13
SIIS14	Situation III Strategy in the head act 14
SIIS15	Situation III Strategy in the head act 15
SIIS16	Situation III Strategy in the head act 16
SIIS17	Situation III Strategy in the head act 17
SIIS18	Situation III Strategy in the head act 18
SIIS19	Situation III Strategy in the head act 19
SIIS20	Situation III Strategy in the head act 20

SIIS21	Situation III Strategy in the head act 21
SIIS22	Situation III Strategy in the head act 22
SIIS23	Situation III Strategy in the head act 23
SIIS24	Situation III Strategy in the head act 24
SIIS25	Situation III Strategy in the head act 25
SIIS26	Situation III Strategy in the head act 26
SIIS27	Situation III Strategy in the head act 27
SIIU1	Situation III Upgrader 1
SIIU2	Situation III Upgrader 2
SIIU3	Situation III Upgrader 3
SIIU4	Situation III Upgrader 4
SIIU5	Situation III Upgrader 5
SIIU6	Situation III Upgrader 6
SIV	Situation IV of the main study
SIVA1	Situation IV Alerter 1
SIVA2	Situation IV Alerter 2
SIVA3	Situation IV Alerter 3
SIVA4	Situation IV Alerter 4
SIVA5	Situation IV Alerter 5
SIVA6	Situation IV Alerter 6
SIVD1	Situation IV Downgrader 1
SIVD2	Situation IV Downgrader 2
SIVD3	Situation IV Downgrader 3
SIVD4	Situation IV Downgrader 4
SIVD5	Situation IV Downgrader 5
SIVD6	Situation IV Downgrader 6
SIVD7	Situation IV Downgrader 7
SIVD8	Situation IV Downgrader 8
SIVS1	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 1
SIVS2	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 2
SIVS3	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 3
SIVS4	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 4
SIVS5	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 5
SIVS6	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 6
SIVS7	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 7
SIVS8	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 8
SIVS9	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 9
SIVS10	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 10
SIVS11	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 11
SIVS12	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 12
SIVS13	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 13
SIVS14	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 14
SIVS15	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 15
SIVS16	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 16
SIVS17	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 17
SIVS18	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 18
SIVS19	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 19

SIVS20	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 20
SIVS21	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 21
SIVS22	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 22
SIVS23	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 23
SIVS24	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 24
SIVS25	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 25
SIVS26	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 26
SIVS27	Situation IV Strategy in the head act 27
SIVU1	Situation IV Upgrader 1
SIVU2	Situation IV Upgrader 2
SIVU3	Situation IV Upgrader 3
SIVU4	Situation IV Upgrader 4
SIVU5	Situation IV Upgrader 5
SIVU6	Situation IV Upgrader 6
SV	Situation V of the main study
SVA1	Situation V Alerter 1
SVA2	Situation V Alerter 2
SVA3	Situation V Alerter 3
SVA4	Situation V Alerter 4
SVA5	Situation V Alerter 5
SVA6	Situation V Alerter 6
SVD1	Situation V Downgrader 1
SVD2	Situation V Downgrader 2
SVD3	Situation V Downgrader 3
SVD4	Situation V Downgrader 4
SVD5	Situation V Downgrader 5
SVD6	Situation V Downgrader 6
SVD7	Situation V Downgrader 7
SVD8	Situation V Downgrader 8
SVS1	Situation V Strategy in the head act 1
SVS2	Situation V Strategy in the head act 2
SVS3	Situation V Strategy in the head act 3
SVS4	Situation V Strategy in the head act 4
SVS5	Situation V Strategy in the head act 5
SVS6	Situation V Strategy in the head act 6
SVS7	Situation V Strategy in the head act 7
SVS8	Situation V Strategy in the head act 8
SVS9	Situation V Strategy in the head act 9
SVS10	Situation V Strategy in the head act 10
SVS11	Situation V Strategy in the head act 11
SVS12	Situation V Strategy in the head act 12
SVS13	Situation V Strategy in the head act 13
SVS14	Situation V Strategy in the head act 14
SVS15	Situation V Strategy in the head act 15
SVS16	Situation V Strategy in the head act 16
SVS17	Situation V Strategy in the head act 17
SVS18	Situation V Strategy in the head act 18

SVS19	Situation V Strategy in the head act 19
SVS20	Situation V Strategy in the head act 20
SVS21	Situation V Strategy in the head act 21
SVS22	Situation V Strategy in the head act 22
SVS23	Situation V Strategy in the head act 23
SVS24	Situation V Strategy in the head act 24
SVS25	Situation V Strategy in the head act 25
SVS26	Situation V Strategy in the head act 26
SVS27	Situation V Strategy in the head act 27
SVU1	Situation V Upgrader 1
SVU2	Situation V Upgrader 2
SVU3	Situation V Upgrader 3
SVU4	Situation V Upgrader 4
SVU5	Situation V Upgrader 5
SVU6	Situation V Upgrader 6
SVI	Situation VI of the main study
SVIA1	Situation VI Alerter 1
SVIA2	Situation VI Alerter 2
SVIA3	Situation VI Alerter 3
SVIA4	Situation VI Alerter 4
SVIA5	Situation VI Alerter 5
SVIA6	Situation VI Alerter 6
SVID1	Situation VI Downgrader 1
SVID2	Situation VI Downgrader 2
SVID3	Situation VI Downgrader 3
SVID4	Situation VI Downgrader 4
SVID5	Situation VI Downgrader 5
SVID6	Situation VI Downgrader 6
SVID7	Situation VI Downgrader 7
SVID8	Situation VI Downgrader 8
SVIS1	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 1
SVIS2	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 2
SVIS3	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 3
SVIS4	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 4
SVIS5	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 5
SVIS6	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 6
SVIS7	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 7
SVIS8	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 8
SVIS9	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 9
SVIS10	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 10
SVIS11	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 11
SVIS12	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 12
SVIS13	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 13
SVIS14	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 14
SVIS15	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 15
SVIS16	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 16
SVIS17	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 17

SVIS18	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 18
SVIS19	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 19
SVIS20	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 20
SVIS21	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 21
SVIS22	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 22
SVIS23	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 23
SVIS24	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 24
SVIS25	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 25
SVIS26	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 26
SVIS27	Situation VI Strategy in the head act 27
SVIU1	Situation VI Upgrader 1
SVIU2	Situation VI Upgrader 2
SVIU3	Situation VI Upgrader 3
SVIU4	Situation VI Upgrader 4
SVIU5	Situation VI Upgrader 5
SVIU6	Situation VI Upgrader 6
SVII	Situation VII of the main study
SVIIA1	Situation VII Alerter 1
SVIIA2	Situation VII Alerter 2
SVIIA3	Situation VII Alerter 3
SVIIA4	Situation VII Alerter 4
SVIIA5	Situation VII Alerter 5
SVIIA6	Situation VII Alerter 6
SVIID1	Situation VII Downgrader 1
SVIID2	Situation VII Downgrader 2
SVIID3	Situation VII Downgrader 3
SVIID4	Situation VII Downgrader 4
SVIID5	Situation VII Downgrader 5
SVIID6	Situation VII Downgrader 6
SVIID7	Situation VII Downgrader 7
SVIID8	Situation VII Downgrader 8
SVIIS1	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 1
SVIIS2	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 2
SVIIS3	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 3
SVIIS4	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 4
SVIIS5	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 5
SVIIS6	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 6
SVIIS7	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 7
SVIIS8	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 8
SVIIS9	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 9
SVIIS10	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 10
SVIIS11	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 11
SVIIS12	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 12
SVIIS13	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 13
SVIIS14	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 14
SVIIS15	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 15
SVIIS16	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 16

SVIIS17	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 17
SVIIS18	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 18
SVIIS19	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 19
SVIIS20	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 20
SVIIS21	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 21
SVIIS22	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 22
SVIIS23	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 23
SVIIS24	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 24
SVIIS25	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 25
SVIIS26	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 26
SVIIS27	Situation VII Strategy in the head act 27
SVIIU1	Situation VII Upgrader 1
SVIIU2	Situation VII Upgrader 2
SVIIU3	Situation VII Upgrader 3
SVIIU4	Situation VII Upgrader 4
SVIIU5	Situation VII Upgrader 5
SVIIU6	Situation VII Upgrader 6
SVIII	Situation VIII of the main study
SVIIIA1	Situation VIII Alerter 1
SVIIIA2	Situation VIII Alerter 2
SVIIIA3	Situation VIII Alerter 3
SVIIIA4	Situation VIII Alerter 4
SVIIIA5	Situation VIII Alerter 5
SVIIIA6	Situation VIII Alerter 6
SVIIID1	Situation VIII Downgrader 1
SVIIID2	Situation VIII Downgrader 2
SVIIID3	Situation VIII Downgrader 3
SVIIID4	Situation VIII Downgrader 4
SVIIID5	Situation VIII Downgrader 5
SVIIID6	Situation VIII Downgrader 6
SVIIID7	Situation VIII Downgrader 7
SVIIID8	Situation VIII Downgrader 8
SVIIIS1	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 1
SVIIIS2	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 2
SVIIIS3	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 3
SVIIIS4	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 4
SVIIIS5	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 5
SVIIIS6	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 6
SVIIIS7	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 7
SVIIIS8	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 8
SVIIIS9	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 9
SVIIIS10	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 10
SVIIIS11	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 11
SVIIIS12	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 12
SVIIIS13	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 13
SVIIIS14	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 14
SVIIIS15	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 15

SVIIIS16	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 16
SVIIIS17	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 17
SVIIIS18	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 18
SVIIIS19	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 19
SVIIIS20	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 20
SVIIIS21	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 21
SVIIIS22	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 22
SVIIIS23	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 23
SVIIIS24	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 24
SVIIIS25	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 25
SVIIIS26	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 26
SVIIIS27	Situation VIII Strategy in the head act 27
SVIIIU1	Situation VIII Upgrader 1
SVIIIU2	Situation VIII Upgrader 2
SVIIIU3	Situation VIII Upgrader 3
SVIIIU4	Situation VIII Upgrader 4
SVIIIU5	Situation VIII Upgrader 5
SVIIIU6	Situation VIII Upgrader 6
t	t test value
TESL	Teaching English as a second language
TotNumStr	Total number of strategies
TotNumSup	Total number of supportive moves
U1	Upgrader 1
U2	Upgrader 2
U3	Upgrader 3
U4	Upgrader 4
U5	Upgrader 5
U6	Upgrader 6
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America

Dedicated to my mother

INTRODUCTION

Starting with the communicative movement, initiated in the early 70s, which suggests that language competence has an important component of knowledge of language use, more attention has been given to the *use* of language. This shift has reflected on the works of Hymes (1974), Canale and Swain (1980) and Bachman (1990), who defined communicative competence in language teaching. After these works, communicative functions of language were emphasized in teaching methods and materials more. However, this shift was incomplete. While paying attention to communicative functions of language, pragmatics, which is one of the most important parts of such functions, has been neglected until very recent years. Most teaching materials, for example, did not include pragmatic functions as much as they should and learning pragmatics from ESL and EFL textbooks have not seemed to be likely (Vellenga, 2004) although recent books that are prepared based on a Common European Framework of Reference for Languages include more pragmatic functions (See, for example Face2Face and Total English).

Pragmatics is not easy to acquire because of its dependence on context. Knowledge and performance of pragmatics require both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge. By pragmalinguistic it is meant that certain linguistic forms are required to perform certain functions such as “would you mind...” to entail conventionally indirect request. By sociopragmatic it is meant that such forms are to be uttered in appropriate times and places required by the norms of the language community. Successful performance of speech acts requires not only the appropriate use of pragmalinguistic forms (e.g. would you mind...) but also using them in a way that conforms to the sociocultural norms of the given language community (Cohen, 2005: 279). What is significant about this distinction is that according to McNamara and Roever (2006: 62) sociopragmatic knowledge is not completely dependent on general language proficiency. Thus, a speaker may have good judgment about grammatical forms but may lack pragmatic judgments and such proficiency could take many years to develop (Barron 2003).

One major cause of failure in developing pragmatic knowledge is the negative transfer of pragmatic functions from one's native language or another language to the target language. Moreover, learners may generalize functions that are appropriate in one situation and use them in situations where they are not appropriate (Cohen, 2005: 280).

As pragmatic proficiency takes years to develop (Barron, 2003) and traditionally teaching materials lack enough pragmatic information for a person to become pragmatically competent (Vellenga, 2004), nonnative English speaking teachers of English may have gaps in their pragmatic competence. It is actually highly possible, because "L2 pragmatics with an explicit focus... has traditionally been underrepresented in teacher development programs" (Cohen, 2005: 285). Therefore, there may be deficiencies in pragmatic competence of nonnative English speaking teachers of English as a foreign language. In this respect, it is important to investigate their pragmatic competence.

For this purpose, in the first chapter of this dissertation, literature related to the topic will be reviewed. The chapter will include three major parts. The first part will be on underlying theory that this study is based on. After the importance of pragmatics in language teaching is mentioned, the area of pragmatics and the major theories that helped develop the area of pragmatics will be described. The next part of the chapter will review the literature about the assessment in pragmatics. Pragmatic competence as it appears in the literature, namely, how it developed through the works of different scholars will be described. Also in this part the effort of testing this competence and the development of testing instruments from the earliest tests of pragmatics to the studies assessing such tests will be reviewed. This section will also describe apologies in English as they appear in the literature since this study will use apologies in English to assess pragmatic competence of nonnative English speaking teachers. The third part of the chapter will review discussions in the literature about the nonnative English speaking teachers and the position of English in today's world as well as the question of native speaker norms.

In the second chapter, methodology of this study will be described. Firstly, the test development and pilot testing processes will be explained. Next, the framework of the main study will be explained with the research questions, descriptions of the participants, materials and coding and analysis.

In the third chapter, statistical results will be listed in detail. The data will be analyzed using SPSS version 16.0 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) and the results of the chi-square tests and t-tests will be given in tables and graphic representation of each statistics table will follow. For each of the eight situations statistical results of chi-square tests for strategy use in the head act, alerter, upgrader and downgrader will be listed. In addition, chi-square tests for the distribution of tokens across strategies will also be given for strategies in the head act, alerters, upgraders and downgraders. Results of t-test for the length and the number of strategies will follow. This chapter will also discuss findings. The results of the statistical analyses will be interpreted in four ways: patterns of common strategy use, distribution of tokens across strategies, statistical variations in strategy use and t-test results. A discussion of how differences and patterns in similarities and differences are to be approached will follow.

1. LITERATURE REVIEW

This study aims to assess pragmatic competence of nonnative English speaking teachers of English as a foreign language by comparing their pragmatic strategy use to that of native speakers. In order to establish a theoretical background for this study, first underlying theories are reviewed. In this section, pragmatics and the major theories that helped develop the area of pragmatics are given. Next, assessment efforts in pragmatics are reviewed. This part covers the concept of pragmatic competence and the efforts of testing this competence. Apologies in English are also reviewed in this section because they are chosen for the data collection instrument. Finally, discussions in the literature about the question of native speaker norms are reviewed. This section will cover a description of nonnative English speaking teachers in the field of English language teaching and a discussion of whether native speaker norms are relevant in today's world where English is becoming a global lingua franca among nonnative speakers.

1.1. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

1.1.1. PRAGMATICS AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

The area of language teaching saw continuous changes in the practice of language teaching with the introduction of new ideas, approaches and methods in the twentieth century. However, the common practice of teaching language in Europe until the mid-nineteenth century was through the practice of grammar and translation. This practice was started as the way of studying Latin, which has lost its function as a language of communication. From seventeenth to nineteenth centuries, Latin was studied in schools through classical works, which was mainly performed by the analysis of their grammar and rhetoric. When other languages gained importance in Europe, they were introduced in schools as languages to study. However, these languages were taught in the same way Latin had been taught. This teaching style continued until mid-nineteenth century when some language-teaching specialists

such as Gouin suggested that language should be taught in the way children learn languages, with the use of contextual cues to reach the meaning. Some linguists also reformed language teaching from which the Direct Method was born. From that time to mid twentieth century, language was taught using the Direct Method and grammar-based methods such as Situational Language Teaching and Audiolingualism (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 3-11). During the mid-twentieth century, important works came out from a variety of linguists, sociolinguists and philosophers. Their works had a significant effect on the shift from grammar-based to communication-based teaching and from the focus on the sentence to the focus on the utterance.

Among such works are those of Austin and Searle. Austin (1962: 5) starts his theory with the distinction he makes between statements (sentences describing an event or situation and having a truth value) and utterances (sentences used to commit an act). Austin (1962: 5) says that utterances “do not ‘describe’ or ‘report’ or constate anything at all, are not ‘true or false’; and the uttering of the sentence is, or is part of, the doing of an action, which again would not *normally* be described as saying something.” Moreover, he proposes such utterances be called “performatives” (p. 6). Unlike statements, which have truth value, utterances or performatives have the condition of appropriateness, that is, the performatives should be uttered in appropriate circumstances. This condition brings about the idea or importance of context.

After Austin opened up these new perspectives, his student John Searle followed his footsteps. He developed the ideas Austin suggested. He basically systematized Austin’s ideas. According to him, language is a rule-governed behavior. He says, “Speaking a language is performing speech acts, acts such as making statements, giving commands, asking questions, making promises, and so on” (Searle, 1969: 16). Austin and Searle also classified these speech acts into categories although in different names. These philosophers’ attempts affected the works of some linguists, especially in Europe. Among such linguists are van Ek, Alexander and Wilkins, whose works shaped the language teaching practice in Europe. Van Ek and

Alexander (1975) and van Ek (1976) defined the threshold level for language learning in Europe. They organized their works around a functional notional approach. In their books they list language functions such as seeking permission, apologizing, congratulating, which are clearly speech acts. Likewise, D. A. Wilkins (1976) worked on functional syllabuses which he organized around speech acts as well although he says that the categories do not “limit themselves to what have come to be called *speech acts*” (p. 42). He presents categories of functions and notions. The way van Ek, Alexander and Wilkins organize their works seems as if they are affected by the developments in the area of pragmatics, especially in the theory of speech acts. Soames et. al. consider these works as initial efforts of introducing pragmatics into foreign language teaching and say, “These early proposals were not empirically based and consisted of lists of functions and forms rather than analyses of interactive discourse.” However, their works had important impacts on the language teaching practices in Europe, as they worked for the Council of Europe to improve the language teaching area. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001: 154), van Ek, Alexander and Wilkins’ works triggered the communicative language movement in Europe which later expanded globally. Today, in Europe language teaching is defined by the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*, which is a consequence of the continuing efforts initiated with Threshold level. The approach adopted in Common European Framework is presented as an action-oriented approach. Chapter 2 of this document explains it as follows:

A comprehensive, transparent and coherent frame of reference for language learning, teaching and assessment must relate to a very general view of language use and learning. The approach adopted here, generally speaking, is an action-oriented one in so far as it views users and learners of a language primarily as ‘social agents’, i.e. members of society who have tasks (not exclusively language-related) to accomplish in a given set of circumstances, in a specific environment and within a particular field of action. While acts of speech occur within language activities, these activities form part of a wider social context, which alone is able to give them their full meaning. We speak of ‘tasks’ in so far as the actions are performed by one or more individuals strategically using their own specific competences to achieve a given result. The action-based approach therefore also takes into account the cognitive, emotional and volitional resources and the full range of abilities specific to and applied by the individual as a social agent. (Council of Europe)

Thus, this document sees language as communicative actions rather than a set of systematic rules to be mastered. The influence of this comprehensive document is reflected in recent text books that claim to be prepared based on Common European Framework to teach foreign language in Europe. One clear effect is that such books have components of pragmatics listed as communicative acts of speech. The “can-do” illustrative descriptors clearly guide the publishers to add such components (See for example Face2Face by Cambridge and Total English by Longman).

When pragmatics research is considered, recent effects of pragmatics on foreign language teaching come from the studies in interlanguage pragmatics, as “they inform designers about learning processes, sequences, and difficulties that should be considered in instructional arrangements” (Soames et. al., 2003). Works in interlanguage pragmatic establish that pragmatics should be a part of the teaching syllabus, as even advanced learners could fail in communicative actions. In addition, there are quite a few studies that found an advantage of explicit instruction over implicit, or instruction over no instruction on pragmatic actions (Soler, 2002; 2005; Koike and Pearson, 2005; Eslami-Rasekh et. al. , 2003; Rose, 2005). The results of continuing observational and interventional studies with enough attention on the observational aspect, since it has been neglected, will define the direction of foreign language teaching in terms of teaching pragmatics (Soames et. al., 2003).

1.1.2. PRAGMATICS

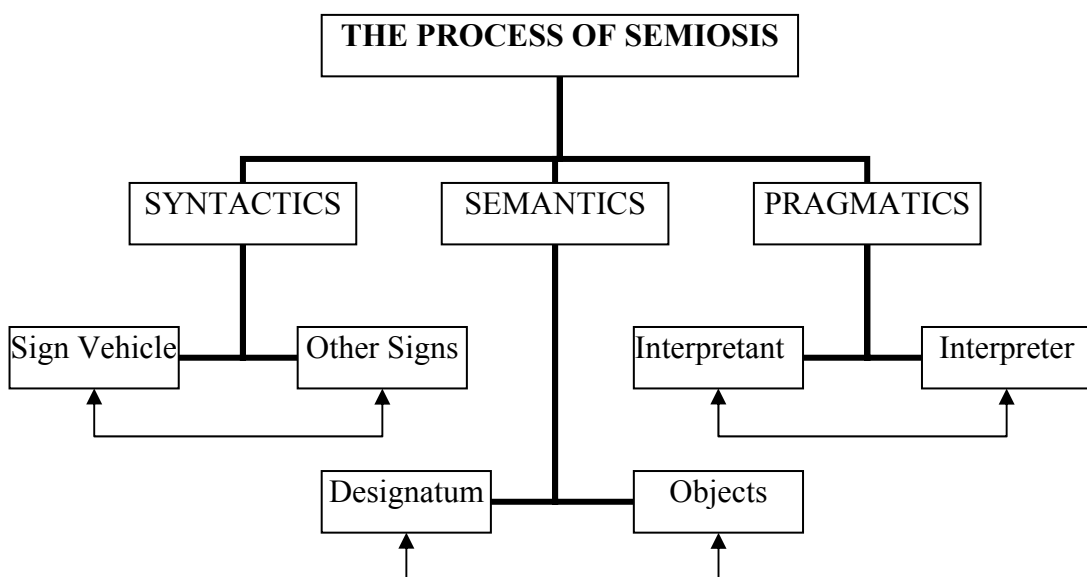
Ferdinand de Saussure who is considered the ‘father’ of 20th century Linguistics revolutionized the study of Linguistics when *Course in General Linguistics* was published in 1916. One of his most significant contributions was the distinction he made between *langue* and *parole*. According to Saussure, *langue* is the potential linguistic system that is available in the minds of a language community as a whole because a language is not complete in a single person’s mind. *Parole*, on the other hand, refers to the actual utterances people produce to express their personal thoughts, which use a part of *langue*, the system (Saussure, 2001: 43-44; Malmkjaer,

1991: 437; Vardar, 1998: 45-46; Vardar, 2002: 180). Saussure says differentiating *langue* from *parole* is differentiating the important concept from the insignificant one (Saussure, 2001: 43). Saussure drew attention to language as a system, as a structure. For him and his successors *parole* was not important and it was not to be investigated, instead what had to be studied was *langue*. The distinction between *langue* and *parole* provided a direction for the development of the twentieth century linguistics. The effort to confine linguistics' essential topic of investigation into *langue* became very important (Vardar, 1998: 47-48). "The emphasis on the structure of the language system has remained a powerful influence on the most linguistic theories after Saussure" (Malmkjaer, 1991 438; Vardar, 1999: 13). American linguist Noam Chomsky proposed a similar distinction. He differentiated between competence and performance. According to him, competence refers to the rule-governed system in the mind of an ideal speaker to produce infinite number of sentences with finite number of words. Performance, on the other hand, is the actual utterances speakers produce (Chomsky, 1965: 4; Sözer, 1999: 274). According to him, the primary topic of linguistics is ideal speaker-hearer's competence (Vardar, 1998: 55). As can be seen, two influential linguists of the twentieth century established structuralism as the method of investigation for linguistics and they did not focus their attention on what people produce although they used *the product* to reach the structure.

As mentioned above, Saussure's ideas provided the direction linguistic research would follow, and thus, structuralism became a fundamental underlying theory of research in linguistics in the 20th century. In the 1960's, speakers' speech production in context and realizing sentences in certain situations drew researchers' attention on the use of language. Linguists like E. Bienveniste and philosophers like J. L. Austin and J. R. Searle had an important effect in changing the direction from structures towards the use of language (Vardar, 1998: 38). However, at the same time Searle (1969: 17) says, "It still might seem that my approach is simply, in Saussurian terms, a study of "parole" rather than "langue". I am arguing, however, that an adequate study of speech acts is a study of langue." Such scholar's studies, namely the study of the use of language, complemented the development of the area of pragmatics.

Although pragmatics started to develop in 1960's, the history of it could be traced back to Charles Morris's work in 1938 (Levinson, 1983: 1). The term pragmatics emerged in Morris's work, *Foundations of the Theory of Signs*. Morris (1971: 19) uses this term as a component of the process of semiosis. It is a process of something's functioning as a sign. He claims semiosis has three factors: the sign vehicle, the designatum, and the interpretant. Morris also suggests semiosis has a triadic relation between syntactics, semantics and pragmatics. He also says there is a dyadic relation within each of these components. He defines pragmatics as the relations of signs to the interpreters (p. 19-22). Figure 1 illustrates this process:

Figure 1: The process of semiosis



Morris (1971) defines pragmatics as “the science of the relation of signs to their interpreters” and he further explains, “Pragmatics deals with the biotic aspects of semiosis, that is, with all the psychological, biological, and sociological phenomena which occur in the functioning of signs” (p.42). However, Morris (1971), later, says this definition, together with the definitions of semantics and syntactics, needs to be revised and his later definition of pragmatics is “the study of the origin, uses and effects of signs within the total behavior of the interpreters of signs” (Morris, 1971:

302-303; Morris, 1964: 44). Levinson (1983: 2) says the broad scope of pragmatics, as Morris understands, is much wider than recent linguistic pragmatics, as the components of the study of pragmatics in Morris' terms such as psychological, biological, and sociological phenomena are studied under psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics and sociolinguistics.

More recent definitions of pragmatics focus broadly on "certain aspects of the study of language in its communicative context" (Graddol et. al. 1995: 16; McNamara and Roever, 2006: 54). Dimitracopoulou (1990: 3), for instance, states that pragmatics focuses on the use of language with the understanding that the meaning of people's utterances have both semantic and contextual meanings. Cutting's (2002: 3) similar definition is that pragmatics is "an approach that investigates how language is related to context and all the contextual features that comes with a specific context." Such contextual features are well established in Ochs and Schiefflin's (1983) definition. They list the contextual features that interplay in pragmatics as the speaker's communicative intention, the speaker hearer relationship, the extralinguistic setting of the utterance, the linguistic setting of the utterance, and knowledge of conversational norms and conventions. Like Ochs and Schiefflin, Crystal also focuses on the user although Ochs and Schiefflin mention a speaker-hearer relationship. Crystal defines it as "a language study that investigates the language through users' perspective, especially their linguistic choices and their communication problems that come up in their social interactions and also the effects of their linguistic choices on the interlocutor" (Cited in Rose and Kasper, 2001: 1). Yule (1996: 3) lists four aspects of pragmatics, which could be turned into a complete definition: pragmatics is the study of speaker meaning, contextual meaning, how more gets communicated than is said and the expression of relative distance. However, there are definitions that solely focus on the user such as the one of Green's (1989). He puts forward that "the central notions of pragmatics must, then, include belief, intention, (or goal), plan, and act. Assuming that the means and/or the ends involve communication, pragmatics still encompasses all sorts of means of communication, including nonconventional, nonverbal, nonsymbolic" (p. 3). On the other end, Fromkin and Rodman (1993: 159) focus on the interpretation by the hearer

by stating that pragmatics is “the general study of how context influences the interpretation of meaning.” Although Ochs and Schiefflin mention conversational norms and conventions, they do not approach pragmatics as a study of rules and principles. Malmkjaer (1991: 354) establishes such an approach and defines pragmatics as “the study of the rules and principles which govern language in use, as opposed to the abstract, idealized rules of, for instance, grammar, and of the relationships between the abstract systems of language on the one hand, and language in use on the other.” In her definition, she approaches pragmatics as a rule-governed system like grammar but different from it in that pragmatics is not abstract and it is not idealized. Then, the rules and principles of pragmatics are not idealized rules, but they are based on the context of utterance. From the definitions presented above elemental characteristics of pragmatics can be compiled. Pragmatics then encompasses:

- The use of language
- Utterances’ semantic and contextual meanings
- Relationship between language and context and its features
- The speaker’s communicative intention
- The speaker-hearer relationship
- The extralinguistic setting of the utterance
- The linguistic setting of the utterance
- Knowledge of conversational norms and conventions
- Users’ linguistic choices
- Users’ communication problems that come up in their social interactions
- The effects of users’ linguistic choices on the interlocutor
- Speaker’s belief, intention, (or goal), plan, and act
- Means of communication, including nonconventional, nonverbal, nonsymbolic
- The influences of the context on the interpretation of meaning
- The rules and principles which govern language in use
- The relationships between the abstract systems of language and language in use

As mentioned above, most of what was occurring in the study of linguistics was revolving around structural discussions aiming to account for language as a structural system. Linguists were trying to decode the abstract system of language, until the 1960's when philosophers started to focus on the use of language more systematically. Two important theories played a leading role in this direction. Malmkjaer (1991: 354) says, "Basic to all research in pragmatics is, first, the so-called natural-language philosophy, or speech-act theory developed by Austin and Searle and secondly Grice's theory of conversational implicature." Thus, pragmatic theory and research have followed these leading theorists' works in two distinct directions; one following Grice and the other following Austin and Searle. Since they put forward their theories, a handful of different modified versions have emerged over time. The next two sections will explain Grice's and Austin and Searle's theories and their offspring theories.

1.1.2.1. THEORY OF CONVERSATIONAL IMPLICATURES

Grice delivered his theory at Harvard University in 1967 and it was published in 1975. According to his theory, what is said could be different from what is meant (Grice, 1975: 43). He illustrates this situation with an example:

A: How is C getting on in his job?

B: Oh, quite well, I think; he likes his colleagues, and he hasn't been to prison yet.

What the speaker B means is not that C has not been to prison here, because what he says and what he implicates are different from each other. Grice (1975: 45) proposes the term conversational implicatures for such implications, which are related to the features of discourse.

The first characteristic of conversations is that they are cooperative efforts. From this comes out the cooperative principles (CP) which is "make your conversation such as

is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged” (p. 45). The cooperative principle requires some maxims of conversations, which Grice (1975: 45-46) groups into four categories: quantity, quality, relation, and manner.

The category of quantity has two maxims:

1. Make your contribution as informative as is required for the current purposes of the exchange
2. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required

The category of quality has one supermaxim and two submaxims:

Supermaxim: Try to make your contribution one that is true

1. Do not say what you believe to be false
2. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence

The category of relation has one single maxim.

1. Be relevant.

The category of manner has one supermaxim and four submaxims.

Supermaxim: Be perspicuous

1. Avoid obscurity of expression
2. Avoid ambiguity
3. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity)
4. Be orderly

Grice (1975: 47) also accepts that there are many more maxims that are related to aesthetic, social, and moral characteristics such as being polite. Searle (1979: 50) says that an additional maxim is necessary. According to him, “speak idiomatically unless there is some special reason not to” should be a maxim within Grice’s framework.

Grice (1975: 48) claims that people communicate in line with these principles and these principles are acquired in childhood. While communicating, people demonstrate certain features of conversations:

1. The participants have some common immediate aim
2. The contributions of the participants should be dovetailed, mutually dependent
3. There is some sort of understanding that the transaction should continue in appropriate style unless both parties are agreeable that it should terminate (Grice, 1975: 48).

Although Grice says speakers communicate in line with the principles of cooperation and maxims of conversations, they may sometimes fail to fulfill maxims in a variety of ways. For example, they may violate a maxim, opt out from the operation both of the maxim and of the CP, cause clash of two maxims, and flout a maxim, that is deliberately exploit it (Grice, 1975: 49).

Grice (1975, p. 51-55) also explains that speakers may use maxims to create implicatures in three ways. They may do so by observing a maxim.

A: Smith doesn't seem to have a girlfriend these days

B: He has been paying a lot of visits to New York lately.

Here, without violating any maxim, the speaker B implicates that Smith has a girlfriend in New York.

They may also violate a maxim to create an implicature.

A: Where does C live?

B: Somewhere in the south of France.

In this conversation, B violates the maxim of quantity to implicate that s/he does not really know where C lives.

Speakers may also flout a maxim to create implicature. For example, a professor may write a letter of recommendation, which reads as "Dear Sir, Mr. X's command of English is excellent, and his attendance at tutorials has been regular. Yours, etc." upon the request of a student who is applying for a job in philosophy. By deliberately flouting the maxim of quantity, he implicates that he is reluctant to give recommendation. This is the general outline of Grice's theory of conversational implicatures.

Sbisá (2006: 2223) investigates two major successors of Gricean theory, post- and neo-Gricean perspectives, which are represented by relevance theory and theorists such as Levinson, respectively. She says, "Both post-Gricean and neo-Gricean approaches are concerned with how much inferential activity is needed to explain the

understanding of linguistic expressions of all kinds, how this activity is triggered and guided, and what kinds of premises the inferences rely upon.”

Relevance theory shares some of the intuition of Grice by questioning the Co-operative principle. Rather than building on multiple maxims, relevance theory is built up on the maxim of relevance. Wilson and Sperber (2002: 607) says, “the central claim of relevance theory is that the expectations of relevance raised by an utterance are precise enough, and predictable enough, to guide the hearer towards the speaker’s meaning.” They think that relevance is an innate feature of human cognition (p. 608), but it is not automatic (p. 610). Relevance theory could be outlined as follows:

1. Relevance Theory
 - A. Cognitive Principle of Relevance
 - i. Human cognition tends to be geared to the maximization of relevance.
 1. Ostensive-inferential communication
 - a. The informative intention
 - i. The intention to inform an audience of something
 - b. The communicative intention
 - i. The intention to inform the audience of one’s informative intention
 - B. Communicative Principle of Relevance
 - i. Every ostensive stimulus conveys a presumption of its optimal relevance.
 - C. Optimal relevance
 - i. An ostensive stimulus is optimally relevant to an audience if:
 1. It is relevant enough to be worth the audience’s processing efforts
 2. It is the most relevant one compatible with communicator’s abilities and preferences. (Wilson and Sperber, 2002: 610-612)

Unlike Grice, who mainly focuses on the speaker, Wilson and Sperber are much more interested in the receptive process. According to them, “relevance theory is a cognitive psychological theory” that “treats utterance interpretation as a cognitive process” (p. 625). Jorda (2005: 58) says that inferential processing conditions in human beings are the main differences that differentiate between Grice’s and Sperber

and Wilson's frameworks. While established rules such as truth, relevance, clarity and informativeness are what guide human behavior according to Grice; Sperber and Wilson disagree and claim that there are certain conditions that operate in human cognition. Therefore, relevance is defined in terms of cognitive effort and contextual effects.

Levinson (2000: 55) considers relevance theory as a reductionist theory. His major concern is the exploration of default inferences in that "a generalized inference is, in effect, a default inference, one that captures our intuitions about a preferred or normal interpretations (p. 11), which he characterizes as generalized conversational implicature (GCI). He also presents the distinction of generalized and particularized conversational implicatures (PCI). A PCI would "leave no room for the idea that an implicature of this sort is NORMALLY carried out by saying that *p*' whereas in the case of a GCI 'one can say that the use of certain form of words in an utterance would normally (in the ABSENCE of special circumstances) carry such & such implicature'" (p. 16). For example, when one responds to the question of "what time is it?" as "some of the guests are already leaving", there would come out two implicatures. PCI would be that it must be late whereas GCI would be that not all of the guests are leaving (p. 16).

Another important part of Levinson's theory is that he demands that a third layer be added to the theory of communications. He says that utterance-type-meaning should be added to sentence-meaning and speaker-meaning. He describes it as follows:

This third layer is a level of systematic pragmatic inference based *not* on direct computations about speaker-intentions but rather on general expectations about how language is normally used. These expectations give rise to presumptions, default inferences, about both content and force; and it is at this level (if at all) that we can sensibly talk about speech acts, presuppositions, conventional implicatures, felicity conditions, conversational presequences, preference organization, and so on and of special concern to us, generalized conversational implicatures. (p. 22-23)

Levinson thinks this three-layer structure resembles Austin's locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts (p. 23). Then he presents his three heuristics, which are derived from Gricean maxims. His first heuristic is like Grice's first maxim of Quantity, his second heuristic is like Grice's second maxim of quantity and finally his third heuristic is like Grice's first and fourth maxims of Manner. He presents his heuristics as follows (p. 31-33):

1. Heuristic 1 (Q): What isn't said, isn't
 "There is a blue pyramid on the red cube,"
 Licensed inferences: 'There is not a cone on the red cube', 'There is not a red pyramid on the red cube' 31
2. Heuristic 2 (I): What is simply described is stereotypically exemplified.
 "The blue pyramid is on the red cube"
 Licensed inferences: 'The pyramid is a stereotypical one, on a square, rather than, e.g., a hexagonal base'; 'The pyramid is directly supported by the cube'; 'The pyramid is centrally placed on, or properly supported by, the cube'; 'The pyramid is in canonical position, resting on its base, and not balanced'
3. Heuristic 3 (M): What is said in an abnormal way isn't normal; or Marked message indicates marked situation.
 "The blue cuboid block is supported by the red cube"
 Licensed inferences: 'The blue block is not, strictly, a cube'; 'The blue block is not directly or centrally or stably supported by the red cube'

Another neo-Gricean perspective comes from Geoffrey Leech. He says that cooperative principle alone is not enough to explain why some people say what they mean so indirectly. Therefore, he suggests that politeness principle should be added to cooperative principle (Malmjaer, 1991: 357) He, then, presents his maxims of politeness which is outlined as follows:

1. Maxim of tact
 - a. Minimize cost to other
 - b. Maximize benefit to other
2. Maxim of generosity
 - a. Minimize benefit to self
 - b. Maximize cost to self
3. Maxim of Approbation
 - a. Minimize dispraise to other
 - b. Maximize praise to other
4. Maxim of modesty
 - a. Minimize praise to self
 - b. Maximize dispraise to self
5. Maxim of agreement
 - a. Minimize disagreement between self and other
 - b. Maximize agreement between self and other
6. Maxim of sympathy

- a. Minimize antipathy between self and other
- b. Maximize sympathy between self and other (Yemenici, 2001: 317)

Leech says that different cultures may place more importance on some maxims than others. For example, Mediterranean cultures observe generosity maxims more than tact maxim (Sifianou, 1999: 28).

Apart from Leech, Brown and Levinson were also interested in politeness phenomenon and established their theory of politeness. Their theory is based on face-threatening acts (FTAs), which are “those acts that by their nature run contrary to the face wants of the addressee and/or of the speaker” (Brown and Levinson, 1987: 65). Those acts are not rare in daily communication. As Sifianou (1999: 32) puts it, “many communication activities entail imposition on the face of both or either of the participants: that is, they are intrinsically face-threatening activities.” In such situations, interlocutors are usually willing to communicate politely in order to preserve ‘face’ and while doing so they may not follow Gricean maxims of conversations (Jorda, 2005: 59).

When a person decides to do the FTAs, s/he can either go on record or off record. When s/he does it off record, he says it in an ambiguous way so that he cannot be held accountable to having a certain intention. For example, when a person says “I am out of cash”, it is so indirect that the speaker cannot be said to have an intention of asking for a loan. If he says it on record, on the other hand, it is clear that he has an unambiguous intention which can be done both without redressive action, baldly and with redressive action. The former one is directly uttered while the latter one gives face to the addressee and it is realized with a variety of strategies categorized under positive politeness and negative politeness. Positive politeness strategies are listed as follows:

- 1. Claim common ground
 - a. Notice, attend to hearer (his interests, wants, needs, goods)
 - b. Exaggerate (interest, approval, sympathy with H)
 - c. Intensify interest to H
 - d. Use in-group identity markers
 - e. Seek agreement
 - f. Avoid disagreement

- g. Presuppose/raise/assert common ground
- 2. Convey that S and H are cooperators
 - a. Assert or presuppose S's knowledge of and concern for H's wants
 - b. Offer, promise
 - c. Be optimistic
 - d. Include both S and H in the activity
 - e. Give (or ask for) reasons
 - f. Assume or assert reciprocity
- 3. Fulfil H's want for some X
 - a. Give gifts to H (goods, sympathy, understanding, cooperation)

The negative politeness strategies are listed below:

- 1. Be direct
 - a. Be conventionally indirect
- 2. Don't presume/assume
 - a. Question, hedge
- 3. Don't coerce H
 - a. Be pessimistic
 - b. Minimize the imposition, Rx
 - c. Give deference
- 4. Communicate S's want to not impinge on H
 - a. Apologize
 - b. Impersonalize S and H
 - c. State the FTA as a general rule
 - d. Nominalize
- 5. Redress other wants of H's
 - a. Go on record as incurring a debt, or as not indebteding H

Strategies for saying what you mean off record are as follows:

- 1. Invite conversational implicatures
 - a. Give hints
 - b. Give association clues
 - c. Presuppose
 - d. Understate
 - e. Overstate
 - f. Use tautologies
 - g. Use contradictions
 - h. Be ironic
 - i. Use metaphors
 - j. Use rhetorical questions
- 2. Be vague or ambiguous: Violate the Manner Maxim
 - a. Be ambiguous
 - b. Be vague
 - c. Over-generalize
 - d. Displace H
 - e. Be incomplete, use ellipsis (Brown and Levinson, 1987)

Jorda (2005: 59-60) says that such acts are initiated after the ‘calculation of face’ work, which depends on three main factors: social distance, relative power and degree of imposition.

He also believes that none of the theories presented above are comprehensive enough to address the overall communicative act, as “they focus on one of the participants, the speaker’s sociolinguistic considerations in the case of politeness theory, and the hearer’s inferencing processes in the relevance theory” (p. 61).

1.1.2.2. THEORY OF SPEECH ACTS

As mentioned above, there have been two directions in the study of pragmatics. The second of this direction was initiated by Austin when he established his theory of speech acts. In his theory, he starts with the distinction between statements and utterances (Sarıçoban and Hişmanoğlu, 2004: 32). Statements are sentences whose function is to describe an event or situation and such sentences could be true or false. Utterances, on the other hand, do not have a truth level. They are used to commit an act (Lyons, 1979, cited in Sarıçoban and Hişmanoğlu, 2004: 32-33).

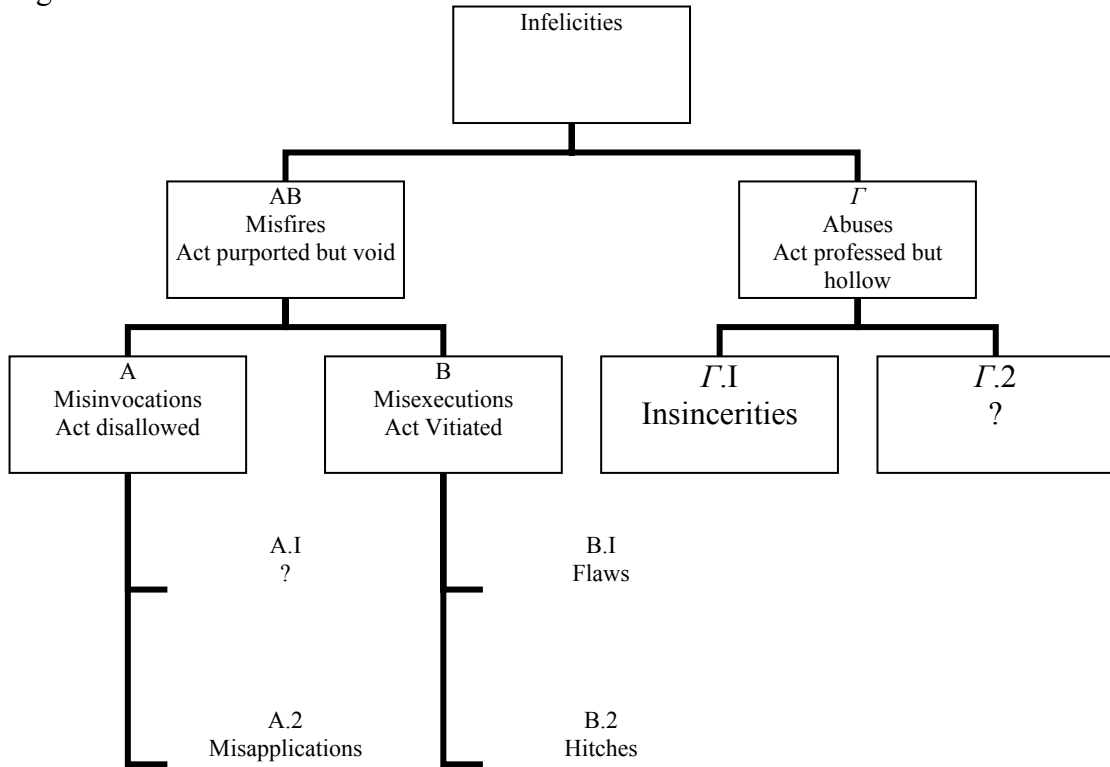
Austin (1962: 5) says that the conditions that the utterances should satisfy are that “they do not ‘describe’ or ‘report’ or constate anything at all, are not ‘true or false’; and the uttering of the sentence is, or is part of, the doing of an action, which again would not *normally* be described as saying something.” By uttering a sentence, one performs an action. For example, when a person is asked if he is accepting a woman as his wife and he says ‘I do’, he does not describe or report his actions, but he does it. By saying it, he gets married. In such situations, “it seems clear that to utter the sentence (in, of course, the appropriate circumstances) is not to *describe* my doing of what I should be said in so uttering to be doing or to state that I am doing it: it is to do it.” Austin proposes to call such an utterance ‘a performative’ (Austin, 1962: 6).

Austin also brings up the concept of necessary conditions for such utterances to be successfully performed. Appropriateness, then, becomes an important condition. The sentence(s) should be uttered in appropriate circumstances. For example, if a person says 'I do' to get married, for the marriage to take place he should be single. Also, if a person says 'I bet 10 bucks ...' and the hearer does not show an indication that he accepts the bet, the bet does not happen. In addition to that, the speaker should be serious when s/he performs speech acts (p. 8-9). Austin lists necessary conditions as follows:

- (A.1) There must exist an accepted conventional procedure having a certain conventional effect, that procedure to include the uttering of certain words by certain persons in certain circumstances, and further,
- (A.2) The particular persons and circumstances in a given case must be appropriate for the invocation of the particular procedure invoked.
- (B.1) The procedure must be executed by all participants both correctly and
- (B. 2) completely
- (F. 1) Where, as often, the procedure is designed for use by persons having certain thoughts or feelings, or for inauguration of certain consequential conduct on the part of any participant, then a person participating in and so invoking the procedure must in fact have those thoughts or feelings, and the participants must indeed so to conduct themselves, and further
- (F. 2) must actually so conduct themselves subsequently.” (p. 14-15)

If the conditions of A and B are not met, the act is not achieved. In the other conditions, the act is achieved whether they are met or not. However, the speaker is insincere in such cases, so they abuse the situation (p. 16). Austin depicts these conditions and infelicities in a scheme.

Figure 2: Infelicities



The above conditions, however, present a limited prospect of speech acts, as such conditions are applicable to certain speech acts which are performed by authorities of some sort and which have conventional consequences. They do not seem to be applicable to common speech acts like greeting, apologizing, and promising, although B and *I* conditions may have some relevance. Such institutional speech acts are categorized as one of five types of speech acts by Searle (1979: 16-17) as declarations, or utterances in which people cause changes in the world.

Except for the conditions of felicities, Austin makes a distinction between implicit and explicit performatives. He says explicit performatives are “highly developed affairs” (Austin 1962: 32-33). The main characteristic of explicit performatives is the asymmetry between “first person singular present indicative active” and other tenses and persons (p. 62-63). For example, while “I bet” is an explicit performative, “I betted” and “he bets” are not. On the other hand, some possible components of

implicit performatives are mood (i.e. imperatives), tone of voice (i.e. you can do it?), adverbs and adverbial phrases, connecting particles (i.e. still), accompaniments of the utterance (i.e. gestures), and the circumstances of the utterance (i.e. age of the speaker) (p. 74-76).

Arguably the most commonly cited part of Austin's theory is the definitions of certain acts people perform when they perform a speech act. He first defines locutionary acts as those in which people utter "a certain sentence with a certain sense and reference." He secondly defines illocutionary acts as those in which people indicate a certain force. He thirdly defines perlocutionary acts as those in which people "bring about or achieve" a certain result (p. 108). For example, when someone says 'open the door', s/he performs a locutionary act of referring to the door and the act of opening. S/he also performs the illocutionary act of commanding or ordering. If s/he persuades his or her interlocutor to open the door, then s/he has performed a perlocutionary act.

On the other hand, Searle (1969: 23-24) categorizes such acts differently. He first starts with the notion that when a person speaks, s/he performs three different acts. These are uttering of words, referring and predicating, and acts such as stating, questioning, commanding, promising. He names such acts as utterance acts, propositional acts and illocutionary acts respectively and adds Austin's perlocutionary act as the notion of the effects of such acts. Searle rejects locutionary acts because he believes propositional acts cannot occur alone. In other words, when people refer and predicate they do not just refer or predicate, rather they make an assertion or they ask a question and so forth (p. 25).

The last contribution of Austin to the study of speech acts is the classification of illocutionary acts. The five categories he proposed are verdictives, exercitives, commissives, behabitives, and expositives. First, verdictives are used to present a finding based on evidence or reasons, which could be both official and unofficial (p. 152). Second, exercitives are used to give "a decision in favour of or against a certain course of action, or advocacy of it. It is a decision that something is to be so, as

distinct from a judgement that it is so” (p. 144). Third, commissives are used to commit oneself to a certain course of action as in promises (p. 156). Fourth, behabitives are used to express feelings and attitudes towards other people’s behavior and fortunes, such as thanking or congratulating (p. 159). Fifth, expositives are used “in acts of exposition involving the expounding of views, the conducting of arguments, and the clarifying of usages and of references,” such as affirming or denying.

Searle (1979: 9-11) criticizes Austin’s taxonomy strongly. He first says that Austin actually presented a classification of illocutionary verbs in English rather than illocutionary acts. The second problem he mentions is that not all the verbs in Austin’s categorization are illocutionary verbs. The third problem is Austin did not base his taxonomy on any kind of clear or consistent principle. The fourth problem is the extensive overlap between categories. The fifth problem is there is distinct heterogeneity within categories. The sixth problem Searle puts forward is that not all of the verbs satisfy the definition of the category in which they are listed. Among these problems Searle considers the third one, lack of fundamental principles, as the most important problem. Thomas (1995: 44) also explains why Austin’s performative hypothesis collapses. First, there is no grammatical way of distinguishing performative verbs from others. Second, using a performative verb does not necessarily mean performing the action specified by the performative verb. Third, it is possible to perform acts without using performative verbs. Searle tries to address such problems in his theory.

In his own categorization, Searle (1979: 2-8) starts with the factors that cause illocutionary acts to differ from each other. According to him, there are twelve different factors differentiating illocutionary acts:

1. Differences in the point (or purpose) of the (type of) act...
2. Differences in the direction of fit between words and the world...
3. Differences in expressed psychological states...
4. Differences in the force or strength with which the illocutionary point is expressed...

5. Differences in the status or position of the speaker and hearer as these bear on the illocutionary force of the utterance...
6. Differences in the way the utterance relates to the interests of the speaker and the hearer...
7. Differences in relations to the rest of the discourse...
8. Differences in prepositional content that are determined by illocutionary force indicating devices...
9. Differences between those acts that must always be speech acts, and those that can be, but need not be performed as speech acts...
10. Differences between those acts that require extra-linguistic institutions for their performance and those that do not...
11. Differences between those acts where the corresponding illocutionary verb has a performative use and those where it does not...
12. Differences in the style of the performance of the illocutionary act...

Searle (1979: 5) says that the first three are the most important differences and he builds most of his taxonomy around them: illocutionary point, direction of fit and sincerity condition. First, illocutionary point refers to the point or purpose of the act. Second, direction of fit refers to the feature of illocutionary acts which sometimes causes the world to fit the words and sometimes words to fit the world. In other words, when one requests something, something happens in the physical world. However, when one describes something s/he fits his or her words to the world. It is like the difference between cooking from a recipe and writing the recipe looking at someone cooking the same dish. In the former, one causes a change in the physical world according to the recipe. However, in the latter one he fits his or her words to the physical world. Third, sincerity condition of the act refers to “the psychological state expressed in the performance of the illocutionary act”.

Based on these three differences, he establishes his five categories of illocutionary acts (Searle, 1976: 10-16). He says, “There are a rather limited number of basic things we do with language.” With assertives, we tell people how things are; with directives, we try to get them to do things; with commissives, we commit ourselves to doing things; with expressives, we express our feelings and attitudes; and with declarations, we bring about changes in the world (Searle, 1979: 29). This is illustrated in the following table.

Table 1. Searle's taxonomy

	Illocutionary Point	Direction of fit		Sincerity condition
		<i>Words to the world</i>	<i>World to the words</i>	
Assertives	Commit S to something's being the case	+	-	Belief
Directives	Get H to do something	-	+	Want
Commissives	Commit S to a future course of action	-	+	Intention
Expressives	Express psychological state	-	-	Variable
Declarations	Declare a change	+	+	None

Thomas (1995, in Jorda, 2005: 64) criticizes the fact that Searle presents speech acts as clearly defined categories, but Searle's attempts are driven by his belief that "speaking a language is engaging in a (highly complex) rule-governed form of behavior. To learn and master a language is (*inter alia*) to learn and to have mastered these rules" (Searle, 1969: 12). Since he believes speech acts are the minimal units of linguistic communication, he tries to analyze the rules of speech acts. He considers several interrelated factors that play a role in realization of speech acts while trying to reach such rules. Some of the factors he considers are what the speaker means, what the utterance means, intention of the speaker, what the hearer understands, and rules governing linguistic elements (p. 21).

After his analysis he comes up with four different rules, which he believes govern a wide variety of speech acts. These rules are propositional content condition, preparatory condition, sincerity condition and essential condition (Searle, 2000: 140; Traum, 1999: 171-172), which are, in Austinian term, felicity conditions. For example, for requests, propositional content condition would be an act that the hearer will do in the future. Preparatory conditions would be that the listener is able to do the act or the speaker believes the listener is able to do the act, and it is not obvious that the listener will do the act on his own will. Sincerity condition in requests would be that speaker wants the listener to do the act. Finally, the essential condition would be an attempt to get the listener to do the act (Searle, 2000: 149). These conditions help systematize speech act theory.

Another noteworthy attempt made by Searle is to flesh out how indirect speech acts work. Not all the speech acts are direct. A speech act could be direct as an

illocutionary verb characterizes one single illocutionary act. Also, a speech act could be indirect when an illocutionary verb characterizes another illocutionary act. For example, sometimes speakers utter sentences to mean something that is different from the meaning of the sentence. They may use an illocutionary force indicating device that is most often used to signal an illocutionary act to signal another illocutionary act. Also, with some sentences, speakers mean the meaning of the sentence but they mean another illocutionary act as well. In most of these cases, “one illocutionary act is performed indirectly by way of performing another” (Searle, 1979: 31). Thus, the question in these cases is how the hearer makes out the meaning the speaker intends rather than the surface meaning of the utterance. Searle attempts to answer this question. He believes that successful performance of indirect speech acts is also bound to felicity conditions, namely preparatory condition, propositional content condition, sincerity condition and essential condition, which are in effect in realization of direct speech acts (p. 31).

In indirect speech acts, two illocutionary acts are performed. Searle (1979: 33) puts forward that the literal meaning of the utterance is the secondary illocutionary act and the primary illocutionary act is the one that is inferred by the hearer.

A: Could you help me carry these boxes?

B: My ankle hurts.

In this example, B makes an assertion that his/her ankle hurts. However, he also means something else because his utterance functions as a rejection, thus the primary illocutionary act B intends is a rejection. The literal meaning indicates the secondary illocutionary act, thus, “the secondary illocutionary act is literal; the primary illocutionary act is not literal” (Searle, 1979: 34). In such a case, what the hearer should do is first establish that “the primary illocutionary point departs from the literal, and second, what the primary illocutionary point is” (p.35). While doing so, s/he uses facts about the conversation, principles of conversational cooperation, theory of speech acts, and factual background information. Searle (1979: 46-47) depicts the mental process of the hearer during the course of understanding the primary illocutionary point as follows:

Step 1: Y (X) has asked me a question as to whether I have the ability to pass the salt (fact about the conversation)

Step 2: I assume that he is cooperating in the conversation and that therefore his utterance has some aim or point (principle of conversational cooperation)

Step 3: The conversational setting is not such as to indicate a theoretical interest in my salt-passing ability (factual background information)

Step 4: Furthermore, he probably already knows that the answer to the question is yes (factual background information). (This step facilitates the move to Step 5, but is not essential)

Step 5: Therefore, his utterance is probably not just a question. It probably has some ulterior illocutionary point (inference from Steps 1, 2, 3, 4). What can it be?

Step 6: A preparatory condition for any directive illocutionary act is the ability of H to perform the act predicated in the propositional content condition (theory of speech acts).

Step 7: Therefore, X has asked me a question the affirmative answer to which would entail the preparatory condition for requesting me to pass the salt is satisfied (inference from Step 1 and 6).

Step 8: We are now at a dinner and people normally use salt at dinner; they pass it back and forth, try to get others to pass it back and forth, etc. (background information).

Step 9: He has therefore alluded to the satisfaction of a preparatory condition for a request whose obedience conditions it is quite likely he wants me to bring about (inference from Step 7 and 8).

Step 10: Therefore, in the absence of any other plausible illocutionary point, he is probably requesting me to pass him the salt (inference from Steps 5 and 9).

According to Searle, the above mental process to figure out the indirect primary illocutionary act of request could be generalized to other indirect speech acts. During this mental process, the hearer decides that the speaker thinks the hearer is able to perform the act (preparatory condition). Also, the speaker wants the hearer to do the act (sincerity condition). In addition, the speaker predicates a future act of him/her (propositional content condition), and finally the speaker attempts to get him/her to do the act (essential condition). If the indirect speech act fails to meet one of these felicity conditions, the mental process of hearer will fail too.

Searle's theory of speech acts affected the areas of cross-cultural pragmatics, developmental pragmatics, and interlanguage pragmatics (Blum-Kulka, 1997: 43). However, there are two different views regarding Searle's contribution to the Austinian framework, which Rajagopalan (2000: 353-355) calls thesis 1 and thesis 2. Thesis 1 claims that all the ingredients of the theory of speech acts were at his disposal and his was not a big contribution while thesis 2 states Searle is an original philosopher in that he revolutionized Austin's hardly established theory.

In addition, Searle's overall attempt to explain the rules of speech act according to early-Chomskyan linguistic theory has received criticism. For example, Love (1999: 16) questions how it is possible to explain human communication behavior with a linguistic theory that is not interested in human communication. He says that it is an essential part of Chomskyan linguistics to differentiate between performance and competence "in order to concentrate exclusively on the latter."

Rajagopalan (2000: 379; citing Schegloff, 1992: 125) also criticizes Searle's dismissing context in his theory of speech acts, which is based on the idea that language is a rule-governed behavior. Schegloff (1992: 125; cited in Rajagopalan, 2000: 379) says:

There is, to my mind, no escaping the observation that context, which is most proximately and consequentially *temporal* and *sequential*, is not like some penthouse to be added after the structure of action has been built out of constitutive intentional, logical, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic/speech-act-theoretic bricks. (emphasis in the original)

Here, Schegloff draws attention to the importance of context, which makes speech acts fluid. Therefore, Searle's attempt to put structured clothing on speech acts may not be true for every instance. The background information Searle talks about is somewhat related to context. Background knowledge is actually the past experiences or knowledge of a certain contexts that a person possesses. It is true that it is impossible for language to occur without a context and as Schegloff says, contexts are temporal and change. They make language fluid and thus Searle's attempt to explain speech acts as rule-governed structured units of communication is open to criticism. The very same sentence could convey different meanings if uttered in different contexts. "Your kid is sick" could have different meanings in different contexts like "your kid has a sickness" or "your kid has personality problems." Quasthoff (1998: 157) points out that the word context is used widely but not explained well. She says that context "refers to the relevant elements of the surrounding linguistic or nonlinguistic structures in relation to an uttered expression under consideration." She

further says that context is a “distinctive criterion for the differentiation of various poles in linguistic description” (p. 158).

Another aspect that makes speech acts fluid is the actual situation in which the given speech act is to be uttered. There are three kinds of data that are important in a situation: First, the conditions that make an individual and a society act in a certain way, second, pre-existing attitudes an individual brings to the situation, and third, the definition of the situation (Thomas and Znaniecki, 1920 in Denzin, 1998: 197). To succeed in uttering a speech act, defining the situation is vital. To achieve that, a speaker should first assess the configuration of the situation. Then, s/he needs to define which actions are to be taken towards which aspects of the situation and finally s/he needs to show his/her attitude or act in a certain way through the interaction (Waller, 1961, in Denzin, 1998: 197).

Because of this fluid characteristic of interactions, talking about defined conditions of an utterance which will give the same result in every interaction in every situation is not very possible. If one acts with such an assumption, that is, “language strategies appropriate to the delivery of the intended meaning in Lx can be used with equal efficacy in Ly”, it is very likely that s/he will find himself or herself in intercultural miscommunication (Allan, 1998: 937). For a person to avoid such failures, s/he needs to have a good amount of pragmatic competence. Otherwise, such miscommunications are inevitable.

1.2. PRAGMATICS AND ASSESSMENT

The second topic that is related to this study is pragmatic competence and how it is assessed. In the following three sections firstly, how the term pragmatic competence evolved over time will be explored. Secondly, different studies aiming to test such competence will be reviewed. Thirdly, since apologies in English will be used in assessment in this study, apology speech acts in English with realization strategies as they appeared in different studies will be described.

1.2.1. PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE

To define pragmatic competence, it is necessary to understand how the literature has developed to produce this term. As explained above, Chomsky puts forward his distinction between competence and performance based on Saussure's distinction between *langue* and *parole*, but at the same time rejects some of his conceptions. Chomsky (1965: 4) says, "the distinction I am noting here is related to the *langue-parole* distinction of Saussure", but adding that he rejects Saussure's conception of *langue* as "merely a systematic inventory of items". He believes that his conception of underlying competence is one that explains a system of generative process. To establish his distinction, he gives the fundamental focus of linguistic theory:

Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogenous speech-community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance (Chomsky, 1965: 3).

Based on this fundamental he fleshes out the "fundamental distinction between *competence* (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language) and *performance* (the actual use of language in concrete situations)" (Chomsky, 1965: 4). Canale and Swain (1980: 3) say that Chomsky uses the terms 'competence' and 'performance' in a strong and a weak sense. They say considering competence as the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his/her language is a weaker definition than approaching it as the linguistic system that an ideal native speaker internalized.

Chomsky's characterization of competence as "the intrinsic tacit knowledge" of an ideal speaker-hearer (Chomsky, 1965: 140) is criticized by Dell Hymes (1979: 5-9). Through criticizing Chomsky, Hymes developed his theory of communicative competence. Hymes (1979) first suggested that Chomsky's notion of linguistic competence should be respecified to include social aspects of language and such a

notion of competence would be communicative competence, because in Chomsky's notion "the controlling image is of an abstract, isolated individual, almost an unmotivated cognitive mechanism, not, except incidentally, a person in a social world" (p. 8). Hymes provides his interpretation of the terms competence and performance. He differentiates between them as actual and underlying. He characterizes competence, unlike Chomsky, as the capabilities of a person, which include "both (tacit) *knowledge* and (ability for) *use*" (p. 19, his emphasis), by adding "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" (p. 15).

In addition, Hymes believes a child acquires such abilities in line with the developmental matrix proposed by structural linguists. He asserts, "we have then to account for the fact that a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences, not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate. He or she acquires competence as to when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner" (p. 15). Based on this theoretical framework, he established the term communicative competence which he believes comprises four types of knowledge:

1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally *possible*;
2. Whether (and to what degree) something is *feasible* in virtue of the means of implementation available;
3. Whether (and to what degree) something is *appropriate* (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
4. Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually *performed*, and what its doing entails (Hymes 1979: 19, his emphasis)

Canale and Swain (1980: 16) say then, Hymes' model of communicative competence entails the interaction of grammatical, psycholinguistic, sociocultural and probabilistic systems of competence.

Hymes's criticism of Chomsky is also criticized. For example, Acar (2005: 58) criticizes Hymes's suggestion to include factors in competence for educational purposes, as Chomsky's is a linguistic theory and a linguistic theory is a theory of language rather than a theory of learning or education. Receiving such criticism though, Hymes' work drew attention of some scholars to take his theory further by

developing their own models of communicative competence. Among them, Canale and Swain's model is an earlier modification of communicative competence and it is still an influential one in the area, especially in curriculum design and classroom practices (Alptekin, 2002: 57).

Canale and Swain (1980: 6) first clarify that they use the term 'communicative competence' to refer to the relationship and interaction between grammatical competence, or knowledge of the rules of grammar, and sociolinguistic competence, or knowledge of rules of language use. Like Hymes, they also understand competence as the "underlying knowledge in a given sphere" (p.7). However, unlike him, they do not put the notion of ability for use in their definition of communicative competence which incorporates "knowledge of basic grammatical principles, knowledge of how language is used in social contexts to perform communicative functions, and knowledge of how utterances and communicative functions can be combined according to the principles of discourse" (p. 20). Their model of communicative competence could be outlined as follows:

Table 2: Canale and Swain's (1980) model of communicative competence

Communicative Competence		
Grammatical Competence	Sociolinguistic Competence	Strategic Competence
▪ Knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology	▪ Sociocultural rules of use ▪ Rules of discourse	▪ Verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that are related to: ○ Grammatical competence ○ Sociolinguistic competence

Grammatical competence undoubtedly focuses on accuracy while sociolinguistic competence focuses on appropriacy like Hymes's (1979: 15). Strategic competence, on the other hand, is best understood as having a repertoire of 'coping' strategies (Stern, 1978; in Canale and Swain, 1980: 31). In later years, they add discourse competence to their framework, which includes the knowledge and skills to use grammatical forms and meanings in unified texts, both spoken and written (Leung: 2005: 123).

A number of scholars, especially those who are concerned with critical pedagogy, criticize characterizations of communicative competence based on native speaker norms. For example, Alptekin (2002: 59) says, “communicative competence, with its standardized native speaker norms, is as utopian as the notion of the idealized native speaker-listener.” While claiming so, he asserts that there are different dialects within languages and such standardization is like claiming one dialect is superior to others. He also says English’s status nowadays is a *lingua franca*, and most communications are between nonnative speakers. To illustrate, he asks how relevant British politeness or Anglo-American eye contact are to people from non-English speaking countries doing business. Leung (2005) has similar criticism concerning the current situation in English as an international language.

Such criticisms make the situation of language teaching more complex because what will teachers of English as a foreign language teach? Furthermore, assuming that pragmatics is an area without rules and attributing too much flexibility to it is not exactly the best approach for language teaching. There are rules of grammar, most of which are obeyed in most dialects of English and even people who use it as a *lingua franca* obey. Similarly, the pragmatic “rules” of English should be learned by the learners of English as a foreign language. In addition, if each participant of a conversation uses the pragmatic conventions of their own languages, some communication problems may occur. One speech act realization pattern in one language may not function the same or may even be inappropriate in another. However, if all the participants know and follow the speech act realization pattern in the common language, no one would be held accountable of being inappropriate. Therefore, having standards is not necessarily a bad approach. This issue will be discussed more in Section 1.3.

There are other types of criticisms against communicative competence like that of Davies (1989: 162) who criticizes communicative competence in terms of two problems. The first problem is the difficulty to define or limit the term for research and teaching. The second problem is that the term is ambiguous in terms of the

interchangeable uses and definitions of knowledge and control. He provides an alternative model of communicative competence.

Table 3: Davies's communicative competence and educational thinking model

Communicative Competence				
A Ritual interchange	Restricted code	BICS	Nondecentered	Foreign language learning
B Proficiency	Elaborated code	CALP	Decentered	Foreign L. and L1 learning

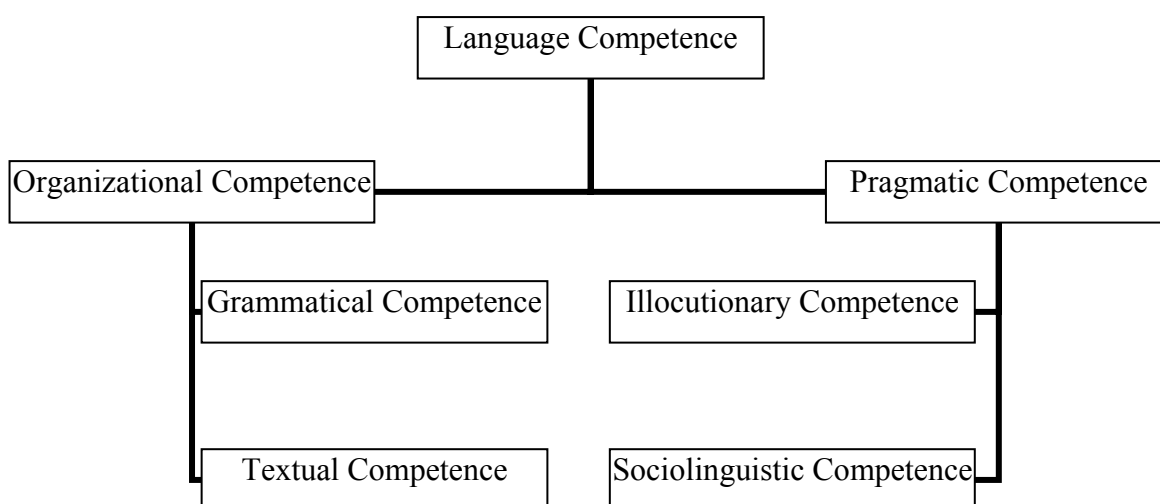
From Davies (1989: 168)

The concept of communicative competence with its native-speaker standardization, although it received such criticism, interests people to date and there are other models in addition to those of Hymes' and Canale and Swain's and Davies's. Among them is Bachman's model, which Sinor (2002: 117) considers as "the most adapted to the teaching and testing of second language skills."

Bachman (1990: 84) develops her model as part of her conception of communicative language ability, which she describes as "consisting of both knowledge, or competence, and the capacity for implementing, or executing that competence in appropriate, contextualized communicative language use". She says communicative language ability consists of language competence, strategic competence and psychophysiological mechanisms. The details of strategic and psychophysiological mechanisms are not the concern here. When it comes to language competence, she divides it into two subcompetences of organizational competence and pragmatic competence (p. 87-88). Organizational competence refers to the abilities of comprehension and production of grammatical sentences and combining them to form meaningful texts. She divides such abilities into grammatical competence, which is related to Canale and Swain's grammatical competence, and textual competence, which is related to discourse competence in Canale and Swain's modified model. There are also subcomponents of grammatical and textual competence. Vocabulary, morphology, syntax and phonology/graphology are parts of grammatical competence while cohesion and rhetorical organization are parts of textual competence, both written and spoken (p. 87).

The second component of overall language competence in Bachman's model is pragmatic competence. The major concern of this competence is the relationship between sign and referent and between the user and the context. She divides it into illocutionary and sociolinguistic competences. The former refers to the knowledge and skills to perform acceptable language functions (pragmalinguistic) and the latter refers to knowledge of contextual conventions for such functions to be appropriate (sociopragmatic) (Bachman, 1990: 90). Her model could be illustrated as follows:

Figure 3: Bachman's model (1990: 87)



She is cautious regarding the diagram she presents in her book, which is an extended version of the one above. Her major concern is that the hierarchical nature of the diagram gives the impression that each component is separate and independent of each other. However, she stresses that in actual language use all of the components interact with each other. She says, "Indeed, it is this very interaction between the various competences and the language use context that characterizes communicative language use" (p. 86). It is essentially important because other models of communicative competence, such as Hymes's (1979) and Canale and Swain's (1980), are criticized because they fail to present the relationship of sub-competences

of communicative competence (Jorda, 2005). These models are the major models that affect the areas of language acquisition and language teaching.

However, as Jorda (2005) says, Bachman's model is important in terms of including pragmatic competence as part of communicative competence. In her model, pragmatic competence is defined as a combination of "illocutionary competence, or the knowledge of the pragmatic conventions for performing acceptable language functions, and sociolinguistic competence, or knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions for performing language functions appropriately in a given context" (p. 90). Kasper (1997) and Kasper and Rose (2001) agree with this definition and stress the importance of pragmatic competence by asserting that pragmatic competence is a coworker of formal linguistic and textual knowledge rather than an assistant. Kasper (1997) says, "in order to communicate successfully in a target language, pragmatic competence in L2 must be reasonably well developed." Edwards and Csizér (2004), who also focus on the importance of pragmatic competence, define it as "the knowledge of social, cultural, and discourse conventions that have to be followed in various situations". Koike's (1989: 279) definition, although it came before Bachman's model, goes in line with it. She defines pragmatic competence as "the speaker's knowledge and use of rules of appropriateness and politeness which dictate the way the speaker will understand and formulate speech acts." This definition covers both illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence. In other definitions of pragmatic competence, appropriateness is a key issue. For example Fujioka (2003) says, "pragmatic competence refers to the ability to use language in culturally and contextually appropriate ways." Likewise, Chapelle (2004: 10) says, "Pragmatic competence refers to the knowledge that allows speakers to make linguistic choices that are appropriate in view of the context in which they are using the language." Belz's (2004) definition also focuses on appropriateness and it also fits into Bachman's model. In her definition, pragmatic competence is used to refer to "the knowledge and ability of the speaker to engage in appropriate communicative actions with the right people in the right places and at the right times." The last and the most comprehensive definition, which is actually based on the models of pragmatic competence explained above, is that of Barron's (2003: 10), who defines it

as “knowledge of the linguistic resources available in a given language for realising particular illocutions, knowledge of the sequential aspects of speech acts and finally, knowledge of the appropriate contextual use of the particular languages’ linguistic resources.”

1.2.2. TESTING PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE

The communicative language teaching movement in the mid-1970’s triggered a shift in the assessment of language learners. This shift was basically from approaching assessment in terms of knowledge of structure through discrete-point items towards the assessment of language globally with aspects of communicative ability “under real time processing conditions” (McNamara and Roever, 2006: 43-44). Thus, the efforts of defining communicative competence and pragmatic competence included the efforts of testing such competences. Hymes’s (1979), Canale and Swain’s (1980) and Bachman’s (1990) works had a component trying to explain the concerns for testing pragmatic competence in a second or foreign language. However, McNamara and Roever (2006: 44, 77) think that communicative language testing is still an incomplete project and that likewise assessment of pragmatic competence still needs to be improved a great deal.

In the few major projects that have focused on assessing pragmatic competence of language learners (McNamara and Roever, 2006: 56), the focus has widely been on speech acts (Cohen, 2004: 302). This is basically because pragmatics is a broad area and assessment of pragmatic competence through a single test is almost impossible. Thus, “testing ‘pragmatic competence’ as a whole is just as complex, time-consuming, and impractical as it would be to test ‘language competence’ as a whole” (McNamara and Roever, 2006: 65). However, just like testing a few aspects of linguistic knowledge of a learner on a language proficiency test, it is legitimate to test one aspect of pragmatic competence to derive conclusions about learners overall pragmatic competence (McNamara and Roever, 2006: 69-70). On the other hand,

unlike general proficiency test, on the other hand, testing pragmatics is very complicated because there are no true or false answers. A person may fail to recognize speech acts, when they recognize the speech act they may either opt out from performing the speech act or may succeed in performing the given speech act. However, there are many more responses between these two poles that will be hard to rate, and this characteristic of pragmatics makes the development of measures very complicated (McNamara and Roever, 2006: 58).

As mentioned above, the major theories of pragmatics revolve around two areas: implicatures and speech acts. A comprehensive test of pragmatics would include items testing either of these. Roever (2006) developed such a test administered on the web. She divides pragmatic competence into three categories of implicatures, routines and speech acts. A sample item for implicature follows:

Jack is talking to his housemate Sarah about another housemate, Frank.

Jack: 'Do you know where Frank is, Sarah?'

Sarah: 'Well, I heard music from his room earlier.'

What does Sarah probably mean?

1. Frank forgot to turn the music off.
2. Frank's loud music bothers Sarah.
3. Frank is probably in his room.
4. Sarah doesn't know where Frank is.

(Roever, 2006: 238)

For her second category, routines, she developed the following test item:

Jack was just introduced to Jamal by a friend. They're shaking hands.

What would Jack probably say?

1. 'Nice to meet you.'
2. 'Good to run into you.'
3. 'Happy to find you.'
4. 'Glad to see you.'

(Roever, 2006: 239)

Although she divides pragmatic competence into three categories, the focus of testing pragmatics has widely been on speech acts (Cohen, 2004: 302) and it is this aspect of pragmatics that is more developed than others in the literature. The initial works in testing speech acts started to test speech act performance of second language learners in comparison to native speakers' performance because there is a disparity between pragmatic actions of native speakers and non-native speakers

(Cohen, 2005: 284). This disparity mainly occurs because of pragmatic transfer, which has been evidenced extensively in literature with a greater focus on negative transfer as it can cause pragmatic failures (Kasper: 1993: 10-11). Searle (1979: 50) explains it as follows:

The mechanisms are not peculiar to this language or that, but at the same time the standard forms from one language will not always maintain their indirect speech act potential when translated from one language to another. Thus, “Can you hand me that book?” will function as an indirect request in English, but its Czech translation, “Můžete mi podat tu knizku?” will sound very odd if uttered as a request in Czech.

One of the earliest works in assessing speech act performance was Fraser’s study. Fraser developed the earliest form of a discourse completion test/task (DCT), or discourse completion questionnaire (DCQ), for collecting speech act data for research purposes (1980; in Cohen 2004: 303) although the DCT, as a test measure, was first introduced for assessing English proficiency of immigrants in Canada by Levenston (1975; in Rose and Ono, 1995: 192).

As pragmatic ability requires “offline knowledge and online control of the linguistic and the sociocultural aspects of pragmatics” (McNamara and Roever, 2006: 54-55), the DCT provides sociocultural context and asks learners to provide utterances that would be appropriate for that situation. The DCT was adapted by various scholars after Fraser’s (1980) study for collecting speech act data. For example, Cohen and Olshtain (1981; in Cohen, 2004, 304) used one of the earliest forms of discourse completion tasks for assessing adult L2 apology performance in English and Hebrew. The following is a sample from their study:

You completely forget a crucial meeting at the office with your boss. An hour later you call him to apologize. The problem is that this is the second time you’ve forgotten such a meeting. Your boss gets on the line and asks, “What happened to you?” You:

Similarly, Blum-Kulka (1982) assessed the speech act performance of learners of Hebrew as a second language through a discourse completion test to elicit directives. She compared the performance of learners of Hebrew with that of native speakers. A sample question from her study is below:

Driver & the policeman

Policeman: Is that your car there?

Driver: Yes. I left it there only for a few minutes.

Policeman: _____!

Driver: O.K. O.K. I'm sorry. I'll move it at once. (Blum-Kulka, 1982: 56)

In particular, Blum-Kulka's study provides insight about questions like acceptability, cross-linguistic transfer, universality, interlanguage, overgeneralization, etc.

In a follow-up study Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) proposed A Cross-Cultural Study of Speech Act Realization Patterns (CCSARP). In their project, they collaborated with ten researchers in seven countries, in addition to Israel where they collected data from Hebrew speakers. Other languages tested were Australian English, American English, British English, Canadian French, Danish, German and Russian. Their focus on diversity in speech act realization patterns is tested in line with three variables: (a) intra-cultural, situational variability; (b) cross-cultural variability; (c) individual variability, which were ignored in speech act literature prior to their study (Stubbs, 1983: 161). For data collection they used a discourse completion test, an improved version of Blum-Kulka (1982), which requires test takers to complete incomplete discourse sequences with the most appropriate speech act set of requests and apologies. In CCSARP, unlike Blum-Kulka (1982), setting, social distance and relative status of interlocutors were given for each situation, (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984, p. 198). A sample question follows:

At the professor's office

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

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

Miriam: _____

Teacher: OK, but please remember it next week.

(Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984: 198)

The coding of apologies, our concern for this study, is conducted based on five questions: (a) does the utterance in question contain an illocutionary force indicating device (IFID)? (b) does it contain an explanation? (c) does it express S's responsibility? (d) does it convey an offer of repair? (e) does it contain a promise for

forbearance? (p. 207). The strategies that came out of the project are listed in the following table:

Table 4: Apology strategies and intensification

APOLOGY STRATEGIES	
1) IFID	I am sorry (that) I am late
2) Taking on responsibility	
a) S expresses trait of self deficiency	I'm so forgetful
b) Explicit self-blame	It's my fault/mistake
c) Denial of fault	It's not my fault that it fell down
3) Explanation or account of cause	
a) Explicit	The bus was late
b) Implicit	Traffic is always so heavy in the morning
4) Offer of Repair	
a) Specified	I'll pay for the damage
b) Unspecified	I'll see what I can do
5) Promise of forbearance	
APOLOGY INTENSIFICATION	
1) An intensifying expression within the IFID	I'm <i>very</i> ...sorry
2) Expressing explicit concern for the hearer-externally to the IFID	Have you been waiting long?
3) Using multiple strategies	I am <i>very</i> sorry. I am <i>extremely</i> clumsy.

Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984)

These strategies make up a speech act set, which could be defined as a “set of functional strategies typically used by native speakers of the target language to perform a given speech act” (Olshtein and Cohen, 1983; in Cohen, 2004: 303).

The efforts of assessing pragmatic competence have revolved around speaker's use of strategies to make an appropriate speech act set for a given situation. However, the tests of speech act strategy use are yet to be improved, as “this is still a relatively underdeveloped area” (Cohen, 2005: 295). It is an important concern as most tests aimed at assessing pragmatic competence of second language users are solely based on analysis of their speech act strategy use in contrast with that of native speakers.

Such data has been widely collected with elicitation tasks such as the ones mentioned above. It is not hard to understand why elicitation tasks have been preferred over collecting natural data. Since it is not always a possible or an easy task to collect naturally occurring data, this is a normal preference. Moreover, collecting naturally occurring data from the same users if you are collecting them for research purposes is in particular challenging (Cohen, 2004: 308).

Since elicitation tasks are commonly used, they are evaluated by some scholars. For example, Hudson, Detmer and Brown (1995) tested elicitation tasks to collect speech act data. Cohen (2004: 309) considers their study as “the most rigorous set of studies of speech act perception and production”. Hudson, Detmer and Brown (1995) aim to provide information about the variability of speaker behavior in discourse. They say (citing Kasper and Dahl, 1991) that variability in performance results from two causes. The first one is because of sociolinguistic characteristic of the speech act and pragmalinguistic choices of the language user while the second one is because of the data collection instruments and procedures (Hudson et. al, 1995: 1-2).

The tests Hudson et. al. evaluated are in three categories: 1) Indirect measures; 2) semi-direct measures; 3) self-assessment measures. Each category has two tests, which differed in terms of being cued or free response. The first category has a free response DCT for the subjects to write what they would say in a given situation and a cued response multiple-choice DCT for the subjects to choose between a variety of options. The second category has a more cued response language laboratory DCT spoken sample and a free response face-to-face structured interview. Finally the third category has a cued response rating scale of how the subjects believed they would perform in situations depicted and a freer response scale for the subjects to evaluate their performance in a taped interview setting (Hudson, et. el. 1995: 3).

Hudson et. al developed their situations based on three sociocultural variables. The first one is relative power of the participants of a conversation. The second one is social distance between the participants and the third one is the absolute ranking of

imposition caused by the act given. For example, for apologies acts with high imposition are those that cause great severity of offense. The reason Hudson et. al. (1995: 4-5) chose these variables are because they are found to control other variables in speech act performance in literature. Additionally, the reason why they utilized different types of measures mentioned above is that different research will require different measures. They say, for example, an open-ended DCT would give better result to evaluate apology strategies (p. 6). The sample for each test is given below:

1) Open-ended DCT

Situation: You live in a large house. You hold the lease to the house and rent out the other rooms. You are in the room of one of your housemates collecting rent. You reach to take the rent check when you accidentally knock over a small, empty vase on the desk. It doesn't break. You:

2) Multiple-choice DCT

Situation: (same as above with the choices below)

a: Oh!

b: Oh! I'm sorry. Thank heavens it didn't break!

c: Oh, I'm sorry. I didn't know there was a vase there.

3) Listening Lab (same as open-ended DCT, except in this version test takers hear the situation twice and orally respond right after)

4) Oral Interview

Background: You are applying for a new job in a small company and want to make an appointment for an interview. You know the manager, Ms. Kim Green, is very busy and only schedules interviews in the afternoon from one to four o'clock. However, you currently work in the afternoon from noon to five o'clock. You want to schedule and interview in the morning.

Now: Today is Monday. You go into the office at 11:30 in the morning to turn in your application form when you see the manager in the hall.

Instructions for the interviewer: have back to the door, act startled and drop paper to the floor, accept/minimize apology, listen to request, suggest Thursday morning at 9:00, request to look at application, make comments of praise, recommend that applicant go on a tour before the interview and suggest now to do it, accept refusal, suggest Friday morning for the tour after all, good-bye.

5) Self-assessment DCT

Situation: (same as the one in open-ended DCT with the additional parts below)

Rating: I think what I would say in this situation would be

Very unsatisfactory 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 completely appropriate

6) Self-assessment interview (assessment of performance in videotaped oral interview role-plays)

Scene five – Applying for a new job

1. Apology

very unsatisfactory 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 completely appropriate

2. Request

very unsatisfactory 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 completely appropriate

3. Refusal

very unsatisfactory 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 completely appropriate

The categorization of strategies for apologies that came out of their study is more comprehensive and detailed than Blum-Kulka and Olshtain's (1984) study. They divided some strategies in Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) into different strategy categories. Their category list for apologies follows:

Table 5: Apology strategies

Apology Strategies	
Alerters	
1) Attention Getter	• Listen
2) Surname/Family Name	• Mr. Brown
3) First Name	• Jack
4) Undetermined Name	• [name]
5) Title/Role	• I didn't mean to upset you
Head Acts	
1) IFID	• (I'm sorry)
	• I am afraid
	• I apologize for
	• Forgive me
	• Excuse me
2) Explanation	• I am sorry I missed the bus
3) Offer of Repair	• I'll buy you a new one
4) Taking Responsibility	• I apologize to you for my carelessness
5) Lack of Intent	• I didn't mean to upset you
6) Admission of facts (not resp.)	• I missed the bus
7) Statement of Fact (not resp.)	• The bus was late
8) Promise of Forbearance	• It will never happen again
9) Minimize Offense	• It doesn't look too bad
10) Upgrading of Offense	• Those papers look important
11) Self Blame	• It's all my fault.
12) Expression of embarrassment	• I'm so ashamed!
13) Express Gratitude	• Thanks for waiting
14) Distract with Humor	• I'm all thumbs!
15) Distract with Task Oriented Remark	• Let's look at those pictures
16) Statement or Question of Dismay	• What should I do?
17) Concern for Hearer	• Are you all right?
Modifications	
Downgraders	
1) Politeness Markers	• Please
2) Subjectivizer	• I believe
3) Hedge	• Somehow
4) Appealer	• Okay?
5) Pause Filler	• Well...
6) Understater	• A bit
7) Cajoler	• I mean, you see, you know
Upgraders	
1) Intensifier	• Very, terribly
2) Emotional expression	• Oh!, Oh, God.

3) Emphasis	• (Written underlining, exclamation, etc)
4) Expletive	• Damn
5) Lexical Uptoner	• As soon as

Hudson et. al. (1995: 6) state that the reason why they tested these different prototypic measures is that different research studies will need different types of measures. To test the awareness of learners, any one of the tests above could work. However, to test the performance of learners, freer versions could be used better. For example, in order to test what apology set a nonnative speaker employs in a given situation could be tested with an open-ended DCT, listening lab and oral interview above. Their awareness about apologies, on the other hand, could be tested with a multiple-choice DCT, a self-assessment DCT and a self-assessment interview.

The choice between such available measures created “tension between the construction of authentic assessment tasks and practicality”, as McNamara and Roever (2006: 54) point out, because the ideal approach, simulations of real world situations, is costly. Therefore, to decide what type of test measure to employ one should consider the type of research, resources and participants. The participants could be pushed to provide a speech act instantly without reflecting on it too much like in real life in listening lab and oral interview role-plays. However, both require more resources and a lot more time than written open-ended DCT. In the case of an open-ended DCT, the data may be farther away from natural speech act as the test takers will reflect on what they would appropriately say in a situation like that. In this case, the researcher will need to take into consideration his resources and time to decide which version s/he wants to employ for his/her study.

McNamara and Roever (2006: 47) present some shortcomings of oral measures and multiple-choice DCT. For example, they say (citing Jones & Spolsky, 1975) interviewing is not more natural than other tests measures, because as it is a test situation the test taker cannot act in a natural way as s/he would in a real-world conversation. They also say that some test-takers may benefit from the style of some interviewers, which causes a problem for fairness (p 50). Additionally, they say there are certain disadvantages of role-plays, the most important of which is practicality, as

they take a lot of time. On top of that, standardization is an unresolved issue because every role-play may be “unique” and thus cannot absolutely be compared to other role-play performances (p. 63-64). Besides, they question the assumption that role-play is a lot more similar to actual communication because “this is really an empirical question” (p. 71).

In addition to oral measures, McNamara and Roever (2006: 57-62) also criticize multiple-choice DCT. They think it is not reliable. Besides, constructing them is very difficult because creating wrong options and distracters are almost impossible. Putting nonnative speakers’ responses to wrong choices and native speakers’ responses as the correct option is not truly a correct approach because the responses may yield to idiomaticity of the correct choices, rather than their appropriateness.

There are of course other concerns regarding the test measures. Hudson et. al. (1995: 66), for example, have serious concerns about testing nonnative speakers’ performance in relation to native speakers. They have doubts about accepting native speakers as a standard to test the performance of nonnative speakers as there may be great variability in native speakers themselves. McNamara and Roever (2006: 57) agree with them and add that judgements of native speakers “are probably more a function of personality and social background variables than of language knowledge.” Using native speaker norms will be discussed in the third section of the literature review.

Other concerns of other researchers regard the construct of the measures aiming to collect speech act data. Bebee and Cummins (1985; in Varghese and Billmyer, 1996: 39) say that data collected with DCT give similar results to natural speech. However, they (1985; in Varghese and Billmyer, 1996: 40) also say that such data fail to provide formulas, the length and elaboration as would be found in a real conversation. Starting from this, Varghese and Billmyer (1996) investigated whether adding more descriptions to DCT situations reflects on speech act performance. They found that responses given to elaborated situations were significantly higher in length

of speech act, number of supportive moves and frequency of alerters. The examples from their study are as follows:

Example 1. Version I. Original – Music Situation

You are trying to study in your room and you hear loud music coming from another student's room down the hall. You don't know the student, but you decide to ask them to turn the music down. What would you say? (Varghese and Billmyer, 1996: 41)

Example 2. Version II. Elaborated – Music Situation

It's 10:30 pm on a Wednesday night and you have a paper due the next day. You are trying to finish the paper and you can't concentrate because you hear loud music coming from another student's room down the hall. You decide to ask her to music down. The music has been on at this volume for half an hour. You have occasionally seen the student, Lucy Row, in the same dorm during the past six months. She is a student like you but you have never spoken to her. You have heard other people in the dorm complain about the volume of her music on several occasions although you never have because you usually study in the library. However, today the library closed early. You are only half way through and you know that the professor for this class is very strict and does not give extensions. What would you say? (Varghese and Billmyer, 1996: 41-42)

Their motivation for this study is meaningful and results give insight into the construct of DCT; however, Roever (2004, in Cohen, 2004: 316) thinks such lengthy situations may be difficult to construct and they will be harder for the test takers to read and complete. McNamara and Roever (2006: 70) also criticize such an approach because different test takers may focus on different parts of the prompt given and they are also cautious about the possibility of test takers' reading proficiency affecting the scores more than it does with shorter prompts.

Zuskin (1993: 166) marks that assessment of intercultural pragmatic competence should be a part of the assessment of EFL/ESL students. She believes that tests measuring communicative and pragmatic competence are not as developed as communicative teaching and learning fields and there are not yet good measures of pragmatic competence. Zuskin (1993: 166) has doubts about the construct validity of existing pragmatic measures like Varghese and Billmyer (1996). She says, "context-related revisions of the DCT are absolutely necessary. Despite their well-meaning inclusions of situationally-specific discourse frame, the schematic information with which DCT researchers have supplied examinees does not convey enough about the

relationship (e.g., status, positional identities) between the speaker and the hearer” (p. 175). She proposes giving situations to the respondents in video format so that the situation would be less hypothetical and more real (p. 178).

Another attempt to improve DCT is adding rejoinders to them. The motivation behind this is that actual conversation does not happen in a one shot format, as it is co-constructed by two or more people. Thus, “cramming all possible speech act strategies into one gap is highly inauthentic in terms of actual conversation” (McNamara and Roever, 2006: 66). Adding rejoinders somewhat makes it closer to real conversation. The rejoinders could also be single or multiple. An example of a single rejoinder DCT is below:

Ella borrowed a recent copy of *Time Magazine* from her friend Sean but she accidentally spilled a cup of coffee all over it. She is returning the magazine to Sean.

Ella: _____

Sean: ‘No, don’t worry about replacing it; I read it already.’

(Roever, 2006: 239)

Multiple-rejoinder DCT, on the other hand, would look as follows:

You completely forget a crucial meeting with the distinguished professor with whom you are doing an internship. An hour later you call him to apologize. The problem is that this is the second time you’ve forgotten such a meeting with your professor.

Professor: What happened to you?

You: _____

Professor: I can imagine that you have a lot on your mind these days, but this is the second time you’ve missed a meeting you agreed to attend.

You: _____

Professor: Yes, indeed. I hope you won’t forget it next time.

You: _____

Professor: I’m afraid I can’t reschedule it for today. Let’s try again next week at the same time.

(Cohen and Shively, 2002: 41)

Multiple-rejoinder DCT resembles actual conversation and it will be easy to rate it, but it limits test takers’ responses considerably. In addition to these examples,

rejoinders could be of various types. For example, Johnston et. al. (1998) investigated the effect of the type of rejoinders on the choices of strategies to perform complaints, requests and apologies. They found that the type of rejoinder has an impact on the responses of test takers. The three types of rejoinders they tested in their study are below:

1 Complaint, no rejoinder

You were in a hurry to leave on a trip, and you asked your roommate to mail an express letter for you. When you get back a few days later, the letter is still lying on the table

You:

2 Request, preferred rejoinder

You are giving a dinner party for twelve people, but you don't have a bowl big enough for the salad. You go round to your neighbor to see if she has one.

You:

Your neighbor: Yes, I'll just get it for you

3 Apology, dispreferred rejoinder

At an office party, you had a bit too much to drink and were rude to one of your colleagues. The next day you call her up to check that she wasn't offended.

You:

Your colleague: Well, it's a long time since I was insulted like that. You should be ashamed of yourself

In another study, Rose (1992) investigated the effect of rejoinder on the requests provided by native speakers of American English. She used DCTs with hearer response and DCTs without hearer response. She analyzed data in terms of alerters, request perspective, strategy, downgraders, supportive moves, and request length. She found, "the two forms of the DCT (with and without hearer response) produced no significant difference in any of the categories..." (p. 59). However, by using hearer response to guide the respondent to give pragmatically relevant response, she also limited the possibility for the respondents to access all the possible strategies at his or her disposal.

Such test types and modifications listed above are efforts to make the measures of pragmatics more valid and reliable. Cohen (2004: 317), however, says, "while any enhancement may make the task more authentic, we must remember it is still a task attempting to simulate reality." With this quality, DCT does not tell if a learner can actually perform speech acts appropriately with all aspects of natural conversation

like turn-taking. but it gives a good amount of opinion about the potential and the linguistic formulas a person has and some opinions about his/her sociopragmatic awareness (McNamara and Roever, 2006: 66).

As DCTs are the most commonly used measure in assessing pragmatic competence, there are studies that compare DCT data with those collected through other measures. For example, Rose (1994a) investigated the validity of DCTs in a non-western setting. She compared the requests made by Japanese students and American students in an American university with the data elicited with DCT. Then, she used multiple-choice questionnaire (MCQ) in the second study with female Japanese students in Japan. She found that MCQ reflected the tendency for indirectness in Japanese culture, but not DCT. In DCT responses, Japanese students were more direct than American students. She concluded that there are reasons to suspect that DCTs are not valid means of data collection in non-Western contexts such as Japan.

Rose and Ono (1995) replicated Rose's (1994a) study, as they thought that Rose's (1994a) results might be skewed because the groups were not justified as the two types of tests were administered in two different countries with participants whose profile did not match. Also, the situations were not culturally appropriate. By filling the gaps of the 1994 study, they compared DCT with MCQ in Japan and found significant differences between the two tests. There was a tendency towards opting out and hinting on the MCQ rather than DCT. However, they are cautions about jumping to conclusion that "one source of data is *better* than any other" (Rose and Ono, 1995: 207, italics in the original).

Hinkel (1997) found contradicting results in this respect. He investigated the appropriateness of DCTs as an instrument of pragmatic data collection. He compared multiple choice and discourse completion task data received from native speakers of English and Chinese speakers of English. He found that "when responding to the MCQ, native speakers selected substantially fewer options with either direct or hedged advice than the Chinese subjects did. On the other hand, significantly more NSs than Chinese preferred direct and hedged advice in responses to DCTs" (p. 19).

This study also shows that the choice of test type is important since it could have an effect on the result of the study.

Unlike the researchers above, Sasaki (1998) was interested in the effect of oral and written nature of the test on the test performance. She compared the results of role-play with those of DCT elicited from a group of twelve EFL speakers from Japan. In both tests, the situations were the same, but they had to role-play in once and write their possible utterance in the other. She found that data elicited with role-play had a lot more formulas and they were longer. Interestingly enough, she found that same participants used different strategies in the two different tests for the same situations. She, thus, claimed that interactive nature of the test affects speech act performance. Sasaki (1998: 479) also says:

Because production questionnaires are more practical in terms of data processing ...they thus seem to be more appropriate for conducting a quick or large-scale survey of the types of main speech act strategies used. In contrast, role plays are more appropriate for investigating the sequences involved in more comprehensive speech act performance as well as the frequency of each strategy used.

Yuan (2000), on the other hand, compared data elicited with written DCTs, oral DCTs, and field notes. She investigated compliments and compliment responses. Although she outlines advantages and disadvantages of each method, she found that “oral DCT ... generates a significantly larger number of natural speech features than the written DCT does.” (p. 271) She also asserts that observational notebook data has far more advantages than both of them in terms of response length, the number of exclamation particles, the number of repetitions, the number of inversions, and the number of omissions. She says the choice of data collection instrument should be based on the purpose of the study.

Golato (2003) also compared DCTs with naturally occurring data. She found that DCT-elicited data could be different from naturally occurring data. She found certain strategies and speech patterns in response to DCTs, which are not observed in real life conversations at all. The hypothetical nature of DCT resulted in a “hypothetical language”. Thus, she says DCTs are valid instruments for measuring *not* pragmatic,

but symbolic action. DCTs do not reflect real time language, but they “indirectly reflect the sum of prior experience with language.” Kasper (1999: 73; in Cohen 2004: 317-318), on the other hand, says, “‘inauthentic’ does not necessarily mean ‘invalid,’ since it depends on how judiciously the data are collected.” As previously mentioned, Beebe and Cummins (1996) also says that DCT data are consistent with naturally occurring data although there are a few differences in supplementary strategies.

Natural data also has certain disadvantages. To start with, most of data collected as natural data is not essentially natural because before conducting research the participants agree on participating in the study and they are aware that they are recorded or observed. In that case, data elicited with the knowledge of the participants is *naturalistic*, rather than natural (Cohen, 2004: 324). This phenomenon is related to “observer’s paradox” (Labov, 1970; quoted in Wilson, 1987, p. 161). Wilson (1987: 162) suggests, “Observation and recording procedures produce situations where there will be a predictable increase in the attention a speaker gives to speech output. This means that under such conditions any attempts to gain access to ‘vernacular’ data will be restricted.” It is also very hard to collect natural data. For example, if a person wants to conduct a study comparing pragmatic performance of native speakers with that of nonnative speakers, s/he needs to wait for the same or similar speech acts tested to emerge in natural conversation.

In fact, such reasons are why DCTs are popular. As Golato (1993) puts it, DCTs have advantages such as quick data collection in large amounts, control for many variables, and statistical comparison of native and nonnative speakers easily. Hudson et. al. (1995) also say that for certain research studies aiming at certain speech acts, open-ended DCT types would be most appropriate such as eliciting strategies of speech act of apology. McNamara and Roever (2006: 67) say,

So whereas the purpose of the test is to assess learners’ offline knowledge or repertoire of semantic formulas, DCTs are an appropriate instrument, but this limited use of DCTs for the elicitation of pragmalinguistic knowledge is an application specific to the *assessment* of pragmatics. (italics in the original)

To sum up, different studies give different and sometimes contradicting results about the advantages and the disadvantages of different test measures. In fact, each measure has both advantages and shortcomings. For example, collecting natural data is not practical because of resources and time it takes and the problem of standardization. Besides, other methods simulating real world situations like oral interview and role-play are, in fact, not more natural than written elicitation tasks. Thus, a researcher should consider their resources, time, the nature of data and purpose and method of investigation before deciding which test measure to employ. With the advantages it provides like collecting larger amount of data more quickly and the ease of standardization, DCT is a commonly used method of data collection. Among DCT types open-ended DCT provides the opportunity to collect data about the formulaic nature of speech acts such as apologies. Therefore, in this study open-ended DCT is the test measure that is employed.

1.2.3. APOLOGIES IN ENGLISH

In this study, pragmatic competence of nonnative English speaking teachers are evaluated with a test based on DCT models previously reviewed. Moreover, in order to be able to limit the study apology speech act is used. The reason why apology speech acts are chosen as the test topic is explained below:

Apology speech acts are crucial speech acts in interpersonal linguistic communication. Because apologizing is an act that maintains the continuity of interpersonal communication, it prevents conflict, thus prevents the break of interpersonal relations or reestablishes them. In addition, apologizing is an act that has a strong cultural dimension. Therefore, its interpersonal functions may change cross-culturally.

The dictionary definition of apology is “something that you say or write to show that you are sorry for doing something wrong” (Longman, 2003: 57). Such wrongdoings are characterized as offences. Holmes (1995, in Harris et. al., 2006: 723) categorizes

offences into six categories: “(1) space offences; (2) talk offences; (3) time offences; (4) possession offences; (5) social gaffes and (6) inconvenience offences”. When such offences occur, one party is offended but the offender’s social image is lowered. Therefore, apologies could be regarded as tools of impression management. There is a need or desire for the apologizer to maintain his/her image. Meier (2004: 4) sketches a model of this:

Speaker’s image → speaker’s linkage to a norm violation → speaker’s damaged image → expressing apology → speaker’s repaired image.

This image maintenance is only achieved by providing an apology set that is compiled in accordance with the situation. If it is compiled inappropriately, it may fail. For example, expressing regret (like in the dictionary definition given above) rarely constitutes a complete apology because multiple strategies often occur in apologies (Intachakra, 2004: 47). The offended party may not be satisfied with only one remedial move such as expressing regret. Harris et. al. (2006: 727-728) report such an example from the Guardian newspaper. According to the newspaper article, after the death of an English sergeant, Geoff Hoon, the then secretary of defense of England, expressed his regret on BBC Radio 4, "I am extremely sorry that Sgt Roberts did not have the enhanced body armour that we expected he would receive. Some 38,000 sets of that enhanced body armour were sent to theatre. We wanted him to have that equipment" (Oliver, 2004). In this case he used illocutionary force indicating device (IFID) successfully. However, the wife of the soldier did not consider it as an apology. Paul Tyler, the Liberal Democrat MP also said, "It wasn't a real apology. Expressing sorrow for someone's death is not an apology" (Norton-Taylor and Hall, 2004). The newspapers also had different reactions to Mr. Hoon’s statement: *Hoon apologizes over soldier’s death, but sidesteps blame* (The Guardian); *Grieving widow still waits for Hoon apology* (The Daily Mail); *Hoon is shamed into an apology to widow: Nine months to say ‘sorry’* (The Daily Express). The Daily Mail for example did not accept it as an apology. Likewise, the wife of the sergent, Samantha Roberts was still dissatisfied as she said, “I do not see it as actually apologising...” (Harris et. al. 2006: 727). This is a good example showing

that the speech act of apologizing is a highly complex affair and requires the selection of appropriate strategies for the apology to be accepted by the offended party.

A similar incident happened when Pope Benedict XVI expressed his regret after the reactions of Muslims to his speech at the University of Regensburg. According to an article in the Independent, Pope said:

.... I am deeply sorry for the reactions in some countries to a few passages of my address at the University of Regensburg, which were considered offensive to the sensibility of Muslims These, in fact, were a quotation from a medieval text, which do not in any way express my personal thought ...I hope this serves to appease hearts and to clarify the true meaning of my address, which in its totality was, and is, an invitation to frank and sincere dialogue, with mutual respect."
(Popham, 2006)

Like Mr. Hoon's statement, Pope's statement failed to satisfy an apology. For example, Fox news channel discussed the matter by asking, "Did the Pope Apologize?" Father Jonathan at Fox News said, "Contrary to many media reports, Pope Benedict XVI did not apologize on Sunday for his September 12 discourse at the University of Regensburg. He did not retract his words, and did not say he regretted his speech. Unless, of course, you consider an apology his expression of remorse..." (Morris, 2006). In Turkey, the reactions were similar. CNN Turk channel's website reported Pope's statement with the title *Pope Did Not Apologize** and the following sentence: "Pope Benedict XVI said he was sorry for the reaction to his words that anger Muslims at his speech at Sunday service, but he did not apologize" * (CNN Turk, 17 September 2006).

These examples show that mastery of apology strategies is important in maintaining communication and harmony between parties. Also as could be understood from such examples, apologies are not simple speech acts and they are utterly formulaic in English (Intachakra, 2004: 47). Some strategies are more likely to be effective than others. For example, apologies that have the strategies of acknowledgement of

* Translated by the author from Turkish

wrongdoing, expression of remorse, and offers of compensation are more likely to be effective (Exline et. al. 2007: 480). As apologies are used more frequently than many other speech acts (Intachakra, 2004: 43), there are quite a bit of studies on apology speech act (Harris et al. 2006: 716). Since apologies are crucial speech acts in interpersonal communication and they are well documented to describe their formulaic nature, they will be good tools to reflect pragmatic competence of the speakers of English as a foreign language.

Because apology speech acts are studied commonly, there is a good amount of information about what constitutes an apology in English. Olshtain and Cohen (1983, in Sachie, 1998: 26) assert that the speech act set of an apology is composed of five strategies: an IFID, an expression of responsibility, an account of the situation, an offer of repair, and a promise for forbearance. Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984: 206-208) reached a similar list of strategies in their well known CCSARP. Their set includes strategies of IFID, explanation, expression of responsibility, offer of repair or promise forbearance. They also include apology intensifications. They identified three types of intensifications. The first one occurs within the IFID phrase, such as ‘I am *very* sorry’. Another possible intensification is concern for the hearer. The last one they mention is the use of multiple intensifications. They also identified sub-strategies. For instance, the sub-strategies of expression of responsibility are expression of trait of self-deficiency, explicit self-blame and denial of fault. Explanation can take the form of implicit and explicit expressions. Also, offer of repair could be specified (e.g. I will pay for the damage) or unspecified (e.g. I will see what I can do). Blum-Kulka and Olshtain’s project was a leading step in the area of cross-cultural pragmatics because they identified the strategies of requests and apologies in a detailed manner. A more comprehensive list gathered in the same project was given in Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989). They added alerter and downgrader categories and added more strategies within the categories of IFID and taking on responsibility.

Another important project in the field was conducted by Hudson, Detmer and Brown (1995) at the University of Hawaii. They developed six measures of cross-cultural

pragmatics and tested the speech acts of requests, refusals and apologies. Their study was cross-cultural and thus the strategies they identified are cross-cultural too even though they only gave the tests in English. For apologies, they identified three main categories: alerters, head acts and modifications. Among alerters they list five strategies: attention getters, surname, first name, undetermined name and title/role. The most important category, head acts, includes nine strategies: IFID, explanation, offer of repair, taking responsibility, statement of fact, promise forbearance, minimize offense, express gratitude, distract from offense. This is more extended than Blum-Kulka et. al.'s (1989) list of strategies. For the category of modifications they list seven strategies: politeness markers, subjectivizer, hedge, appealer, pause filler, understate and cajoler. In upgraders, they list three strategies: intensifier, emotional expression and commitment indicator. This study is one of the most important studies in the field and highly credited by scholars. For example, Cohen (2004: 309) considers it as "the most rigorous set of studies of speech act perception and production" as previously mentioned.

Several other studies following the footsteps of these important projects have come out up to date. For example, Sachie (1998) studied gender differences in Japanese and Americans' use of speech acts and used the strategies in Olshtain and Cohen's (1983) study. Similarly, Hussein and Hammouri (1998) studied Jordanians' and Americans' production of apologies using the DCT. They found that American participants used expression of apology, explanation or account, offer of repair, acknowledgement of responsibility, requests and promise of forbearance when apologizing.

In 2004, Songthama Intachakra studied apologies and thanks in English and Thai. The strategies she identified in the English data are grouped into four main categories: an explicit display of apologies, an explanation or account, an acceptance of responsibility and a promise of forbearance. Interestingly, she divided the category of acceptance of responsibility into the strategies of accepting the blame, expressing self-deficiency, recognizing the hearer as deserving apology, expressing lack of intent and offering repair/redress. Unlike other scholars, she preferred to accept offer

of repair as a sub-strategy of accepting responsibility rather than recognizing it as a main strategy (Intachakra, 2004: 44).

Like Sachie (1998), Battaineh and Battaineh (2005) looked at possible gender differences in American university students' production of apologies. They found that the American university students used the following strategies: accounts, reparation, compensation, promise not to repeat offense, assessment of responsibility, self-castigation, avoidance of discussion or person, brushing off incident as unimportant, offending victim, asking victim not to be angry, showing lack of intent on harm doing, blaming victim, denial, thanking, laughing the incident off. Their list is quite comprehensive. Unlike the data in other research, their data included quite a bit of negative strategies such as brushing off incident as unimportant or offending or blaming victim. Based on the studies listed above, the following strategies are likely to occur in speech act sets of apologies:

Table 6: The strategies in apology head acts

HEAD ACT	
IFID	• I am sorry • I am afraid • I apologize • Forgive me • Excuse me
Expression of responsibility	• I assume all responsibility for missing the deadlines due to my miscalculations.
Account of situation	• I am sorry I missed the bus
Offer of repair/reparation	• I will replace this with a new one
Promise of forbearance	• It will never happen again
Statement of fact	• The bus was late
Minimize offense/brushing off incident as unimportant	• It doesn't look too bad
Cost minimizer	• It is important for him to have this treatment
Expressing gratitude / Thanking	• Thanks for waiting
Distract from offense	• Let's look at those pictures
Upgrading of offense	• Those papers look important
Requests	• Please, how do you pronounce your name?
Accepting blame	• I have nothing to excuse my behavior.
Expressing self-deficiency	• I did not realize what I was doing
Self-castigation / self-blame	• Oh, it is very dumb of me.
Expression of embarrassment	• Gosh, I am so embarrassed
Recognizing B as deserving apology	• You deserve an apology
Expressing lack of intent	• I did not mean it
Statement / question of dismay	• What should I do?
Avoidance of discussion	• Let's not talk about it

Concern for hearer	• Are you all right?
Blaming victim	• You should not have stood in the middle
Offending victim	• You are so dumb.
Asking victim not to be angry	• Please, don't get mad at me
Denial	• I don't think there is something wrong
Laughing it off /distract with humor	• I'm all thumbs

Table 7: Alerters

ALERTERS	
Attention getters	• Excuse me
Surname	• Mr. Brown
First name	• John
Undetermined name	• X
Title/role	• Professor

Table 8: Modifications

DOWNGRADERS	
Politeness markers	• Please
Subjectivizer	• I suppose...
Hedge	• Somehow
Appealer	• Okay?
Pause filler	• Well
Understater	• A bit
Cajoler	• You know / you see
UPGRADERS	
Intensifier	• Very / terribly
Emotional expression	• Oh, God
Emphasis	• (Written underlining, exclamation, etc)
Expletive	• Damn
Lexical Uptoner	• As soon as
	•

1.3. NATIVE SPEAKER DEBATE

Since this study assesses pragmatic competence of nonnative English speaking teachers of English as a foreign language by statistically comparing their use of apology speech acts to that of native English speaking teachers, the question of native speaker norms comes up. In the next sections, a discussion of nonnative English speaking teachers in the field of English language teaching will be presented. In the following section the position of English in the world today and the significance of native speaker norms will be discussed.

1.3.1. NON-NATIVE ENGLISH SPEAKING TEACHERS

In recent years, the position of nonnative English speaking language teachers has been fervently debated in terms of the advantages and disadvantages they bring to the classroom (Lazaraton, 2004). This is basically because the number of non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs) has been continuously growing (Maum, 2002). Anne Lazaraton (2004) explains why the effectiveness of NNESTs is questioned. She says (p. 51, citing Johnson, 1995) that “teacher communication patterns influence and in some ways restrict student participation opportunities, and by extension, their acquisition.” This could be true for any teacher, but people may think this is more so for NNESTs. The areas in which these teachers are questioned are language ability, the pedagogical skills and cultural knowledge (p. 49-50). Lazaraton also says (p. 50, citing Saylor, 2000) that NNESTs primarily need language improvement, cultural awareness and pedagogical expertise. Another problem she draws attention to is that whether or not their communicative competence interferes with their pedagogical performance in the classroom has yet to be answered (p. 51).

The importance of teachers’ cultural awareness and knowledge is evident in the problems mentioned above. A number of scholars attach importance to this issue, too. Berns (1992: 3) says, for example, “understanding of the nature of the social and cultural context in which the language they will teach is learned and used” is as important a requirement as the knowledge of form, function and appropriateness. However, NNESTs do not promote such knowledge in the classroom because they may feel insecure dealing with such content as they are not well equipped with specific knowledge about target cultures (McKay, 2003: 10). McKay (2003: 11-12) also points out that “culture as it relates to pragmatic appropriateness is more problematic”, because English language learners may not have enough opportunities to engage in communication that is high both in quality and quantity for them to acquire pragmatic competence. In such a case, teacher’s knowledge of target pragmatic features is important so that s/he could help his or her learners gain

pragmatic competence. This is highly significant because “there are pragmatic rules that inform the appropriateness of interactions” (p. 12). In most cases, learners do not get exposed to “a full range of styles, structures, and speech acts that supposedly is necessary to acquire nativelike proficiency.” What they are exposed to is a lot smaller in range (p. 6).

Returning to McKay’s (2003: 10) point that reads NNESTs may feel insecure about target culture and pragmatics, a prominent name in the area of TESL (Teaching English as a Second Language), Zoltán Dörnyei (2006: 5) expresses this from his first hand experiences:

Being a professor at an English department in the UK indicates that I am generally OK, but there are still two areas where I feel rather vulnerable. One is talking on the phone, but this might be partly psychological because I really dislike that even in my L1. The other area involves using idiomatic English. My problem is not that I do not know idioms and speak in a funny sort of ‘NNS English’-no, just the opposite: I am becoming increasingly aware of the NS-like lexical phrases and conventionalized expressions, and would like to use them all the time-but sometimes I can’t. This must be a real ‘advance-learner’s-difficulty’: Colloquial expressions come to mind in appropriate situations but I am not 100% certain about their exact form...In L2 speech, however, I often have frustrating moments when I know how something should be said but I can’t say it perfectly myself.

It seems that nonnative speakers have a great deal of problems in the use of language, like in the case of Zoltan Dörnyei. Robert Kaplan (1999: 6) draws attention to this situation by asserting, "NESTs have a greater command of the target language, especially of the pragmatics of the language." He also compares the two groups of teachers and claims that NNESTs are better with the beginning learners, while it is just the opposite for NESTs. It may suggest that this situation is because pragmatics plays a more significant role in advanced level content. Walker (2006: 6) also asserts that NNESTs are better than NESTs in the grammar of English. This suggests that NNESTs may have gaps in the topics related to the use of language.

The difference between natives and nonnatives is more evident in EFL settings than ESL settings. There are several reasons why EFL and ESL distinction matters. According to Samimy and Brutt-Griffler (1999: 9), teachers' and learners'

expectations of success, average level of attainment reached, and ultimate norms and goals are influenced by this distinction between EFL/ESL. Seidlhofer (1999) draws attention to this distinction by focusing on the difficulties EFL teachers face. It is because there is double talk in EFL settings, which requires EFL teachers to doublethink since the languages they speak and teach are different. She also says that EFL teachers are supposed to carry on the difficult task of balancing between linguistic/pragmatic and pedagogic competences. Belz's (2003: 71) study supports this notion, as she found that "the culturally varying nature of schools and schooling is linguistically encoded in the texts of electronic correspondents" after analyzing the electronic correspondence between two teachers, one in the USA the other in Germany. This linguistically encoded nature of schools may cause problems for NNESTs in EFL settings.

Since there is a distinction between ESL and EFL settings, then where does pragmatics fall in EFL/ESL teaching? According to Rose (1994b: 52), language teachers should address pragmatic issues in the classrooms because it is central to language use and language learning, but the focus of teaching pragmatic competence has been on ESL settings as most of the materials are aimed at ESL contexts. However, he says, "EFL contexts represent unique challenges for the teaching of pragmatic competence, and too little attention has been paid to this area." The challenges arise from the fact that most teachers are NNS of English and thus do not have NS intuitions of language use and there is very limited opportunity to use language in such settings. However, Rose (1994b: 55) says there is a necessity for materials that are not based on the NS intuition of teacher. This makes sense since the majority of English teachers around the world are nonnative speakers of English. The question arises at this point: if the materials are insufficient and the majority of teachers do not have NS intuition, then how will the students acquire pragmatic competence? The answer to that question is not simple, but, as Rose (1994b: 56) says, "In teaching language, issues of language use simply cannot be avoided."

Most of what is said about the issue, however, is based on personal opinions and assumptions. There is a need to evaluate the case of NNESTs empirically. There is a

common agreement, although mostly based on opinions, that NNESTs fall behind in the area of language use, especially in the area pragmatics. Since in EFL settings most teachers are NNESTs, it is important to investigate their pragmatic competence. If there is a gap in their pragmatic competence, it will be legitimate to suspect that the learners will not have enough opportunities to be exposed to appropriate language use. Thus, the assessment of pragmatic competence of NNESTs becomes crucial to answer some of the questions regarding what they can or cannot achieve. However, assessing their competence based on NESTs brings about the question of the validity of native speaker norms in today's world where English serves as a lingua franca.

1.3.2. ENGLISH TODAY AND NATIVE-SPEAKER NORMS

In the 20th century, the English language has spread globally for reasons like “emigration, colonization, and globalization” (Kuo, 2006: 213). This spread is such that the number of non-native speakers well outnumbers native-speakers and those for whom English is a second language. According to David Graddol (2000: 10), there are about one and a half billion speakers of English in the world. About half of them are non-native speakers of English whereas only one forth of them are native speakers and another quarter of them speak it as a second language. These figures are comparable to those in David Crystal's work. Crystal (2003: 67-69) estimates there are 329 million native English speakers, 430 million speakers of English as a second language and 750 million speakers of English as a foreign language, although noting the numbers are not absolute.

This global picture is represented by Kachru (1985: 12-13) in terms of three concentric circles. The first one at the center he names the “Inner Circle”, which refers to the places where English is spoken as a native language (i.e. the USA, the UK). The next circle is the “Outer Circle” where English has gained the status of a second language (i.e. India, Hong Kong). The third circle is named the “Expanding Circle”. This circle covers a wide range of places and people in the world who speak

English as a foreign language. This is basically any other part of the world where English is neither a first language nor a second language. As McArthur (2001: 8) puts it, Kachru's model represents "geopolitical and social reality."

Mollin (2006: 41-42; citing Bruthiaux, 2003) criticizes this model claiming it lacks a clear criterion of categorization and refers to nations, speakers, functions of English and varieties all at the same time. She also criticizes Kachru's model asserting that English in the expanding circle is learnt for communication with the inner and the outer circles and in this way the model oversees the global lingua franca function of English. However, Mollin admits that Kachru's model is the most influential model describing English globally.

This model helps describe and define international role of English as many commentators define the global functionality of English with reference to Kachru's model: English as a global language (Crystal, 2000), English as a world language (Jenkins, 2009), global English, international English, world Standard English (McArthur, 2001), and English as an international language (Seidlhofer, 2005). All these refer to the universal use of English that includes speakers from all three circles. However, some commentators claim that English is mostly used in the expanding circle for communication among people in the same circle who do not share a first language. This type of English is referred to as English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) (Seidlhofer, 2005: 57; Jenkins, 2009: 201; Erling, 2005: 41).

Since English serves a function of a lingua franca among non-native speakers who account for the largest bulk of speakers, it is argued that English is nowadays shaped by its nonnative speakers as well (Seidlhofer, 2005: 340). However, the works about ELF is native speaker-oriented and set the ideal goal for nonnative speakers to be acquiring near-native competence (Seidlhofer, 2000: 59). In other words, most speakers of English today are nonnative speakers yet the teaching goal is aimed towards reaching native-speaker standard. This striking contradiction brings up the question of the validity of using native speaker norms as teaching standard. Some argue norms are clear and useful while some others claim a new way without the

authority of a group is necessary (McArthur, 2001: 10). ELF commentators argue against native norms. They criticize that native speaker English is considered the correct version and described precisely, and then forced upon nonnative speakers in the Expanding Circle (Seidlhofer, 2000: 54; Jenkins, 2006: 146). However, Jenkins (1998: 124) says that there is no variability in norms by which EFL teachers should strictly adhere to. Moreover, she adds that this is an “unrealistic” goal. Jenkins (2006: 140) also argues since it is not verified that native norms improve communication, it is not logical to stick to native speaker norms. However, the largest number of speakers are categorized as norm-dependent and not entitled to create their own variety (Mollin, 2006: 42; Jenkins, 2006: 139). In contrast to this reality, ELF proponents claim a norm-developing status for English spoken by the people in the expanding circle (e.g. Seidlhofer, 2000, 54) as they believe ELF has already developed as a variety with common features transcending across Englishes of the expanding circle (e.g. Jenkins, 2009: 201). Barbara Seidlhofer (2000, 57) and Jennifer Jenkins (1998: 122), two prominent proponents of an ELF variety, admit that there will be a great deal of variety as the speakers of ELF are very diverse, but they assert that there is a shared common ground within the use of ELF. This claim of course needs to be studied to find out if there are common features. However, the emergence of a lingua franca core is unlikely as there has always been diversity in the Englishes of the inner and the outer circles and it is even more difficult today to attain common ground in the expanding circle (McArthur, 2004: 15, Kuo, 2006: 213; Mollin, 2006: 45).

Opponents of ELF variety claim that approaching language features that are ungrammatical but also unproblematic in conversation as common ground when they occur frequently is questionable (e.g. Kuo, 2006: 216). Some researchers studied ELF to see if there are common linguistic features in the use of ELF. For example, Mollin (2006: 48-51) gathered a corpus of ELF communications in the EU and found that speakers follow native-speaker standards and there was no sign of common features of ELF. She concludes that with its functionality ELF could be better categorized as a register rather than a variety as we cannot talk about a standard variety of ELF.

Such studies reveal that L1 norms should be kept as language standards for teaching (Mollin, 2006: 55; Kayman, 2004: 10; Kuo, 2006: 219) although an awareness of international communicative function of ELF is necessary (Mollin, 2006: 52). The question of whose standard to apply will always be debated. Nevertheless, in today's world with the current state of the world media, the internet and computer technology McArthur (2001: 1-6) suggests American English as an appropriate standard. It seems such discussions will continue until sufficient descriptions of all varieties, registers and functions of English are clearly described to come to a conclusion. The most important reason for this is that there are not enough studies describing ELF and a clear ELF model has not been proposed (Seidlhofer, 2000: 56; House, 2003: 574; Mollin, 2006: 45). In order to make any decisions about ELF variety, systematic research on the structure of ELF is necessary (Seidlhofer, 2005: 340). On the contrary, some ELF proponents claim that an ELF variety with its own shared features has emerged (e.g. Jenkins, 2006, 2009). For example, researchers claim zero marking of 3rd person singular present tense verb is a feature that does not cause any misunderstanding in communication (Jenkins, 2009: 202; Seidlhofer, 2005: 340). However, the emergence of such features is not sufficient to make any pedagogical decision as we do not yet know if a coherent ELF variety exists or whether we should accept it as a standard. Even ELF researchers accept that pedagogic decision should not be based on the emergence of common ELF features as well as the opponents of ELF variety. For example, Seidlhofer (2000: 65; 2005: 40) and Jenkins (2009: 202) assert that linguistic descriptions alone cannot be directly applied to teaching although noting that EFL teachers could direct learners to forms that exist in the corpus rather than ones that ELF users do not use as often. Unlike these researchers, Kuo (2006: 218) finds such features to be inaccurate. While saying that in natural communication such inaccuracy could be overseen, she insists that the description of communication bearing inaccurate linguistic features is not an appropriate teaching model. Kuo (2006: 217) claims that "frequent occurrence of a common error does not constitute a strong case for standardization and popularization". She also draws attention to the validity of an ELF description as how age, gender, region, the social class and L2 proficiency of the nonnative English

speaking participants are represented in the corpus and how the criteria of frequency are set (p. 217).

ELF approach is also criticized for being minimalist. What this means is that the descriptions of ELF are minimized to focus only on the communicative function of English. Such an approach disregards highly complex aspects of language such as reading and writing. Also, with a focus on the comprehension, the approach does not give attention to production which requires more complex processing. The end product will be a reduced spoken version of ENL attained through a speech-oriented approach (Kuo, 2006: 216).

This reminds us the distinction between “conversational fluency” and “academic language proficiency” Canadian educator Jim Cummins made in 1979, which he names basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). While BICS refers to spoken language skills, CALP refers more to academic skills such as reading and writing. These two concepts are two distinct components of the construct of language proficiency and “cannot be considered to reflect just one unitary proficiency dimension” (Cummins, 2008: 71-72). Cummins (2008: 72) marks that these two constructs are often confused by the educators and policy-makers and it causes academic difficulties for students who are learning English as an additional language. When learners attain an acceptable level of BICS, educators could make a mistake of believing that they have attained an acceptable level of CALP. However, BICS is context-embedded and thus makes use of contextual cues whereas CALP is context-reduced and could make use of much fewer cues, causing problems for the learners of English (p. 75).

In this respect, ELF researchers are trying to describe and standardize the context-embedded communicative aspect of the construct of language, heavily lacking perspective of CALP. Making BICS the focus of a teaching model will result in a deprived academic language proficiency in learners. This will, possibly, make them disadvantaged in education and job markets. Thus, such a reduced linguistic description cannot be used in place of a precisely defined ENL in teaching (Kuo,

2006: 215-216). It will also be hard to find learners who would accept such a teaching approach in a world where English is a gate-keeping language requiring learners to attain a high degree of mastery (Kuo, 2006: 219; Widdowson: 1998: 397).

Like Mollin's (2006) study mentioned above, Jenkins (2009) and Kuo (2006) conducted studies about learners' attitude towards ENL and ELF and the results of both studies show a strong tendency towards complying with the native-speaker model. Their results show that nonnative speakers rate non-native varieties low. The desire to comply with the native model in these studies is apparent even in learners who do not aim to communicate with native speakers. Consequently, it could be said that learners' attitude towards ELF plays an important role for setting learning goals. Since learners are inclined to set target to achieve near-native speaker competence, ELF researchers criticize SLA research for creating such a desire (Jenkins, 2006: 154). However, whatever the source of this desire is, commentators believe that linguists and researchers should not decide for learners what they should be taught (e.g. Mollin, 2006; Jenkins, 1998). Still, Jenkins (1998: 121; 2006: 154; 2009: 203) says that some learners in the Expanding Circle may want to learn English to communicate with other learners in the same circle rather than approximating with the native speaker. Her contention is that native-norms should not be forced on the learners when their future goal is not EFL but ELF. Such an approach could be problematic since today English is introduced at an early age. For example, in Turkey English is introduced in 4th grade at state schools and can be introduced as early as kindergarten in private schools. In this case it would be naïve to think that young learners could set solid targets for their international communication in the future. As a consequence ELF will be limited to adult education. It seems that ELF researchers tend to oversee this fact when referring to learning goals of learners in the Expanding Circle.

The discussions above illustrates that native-speaker norm should remain as the teaching model since there is no coherent ELF variety and that learners have strong tendency towards aiming at near-native speaker competence. The action plan, then, should be the strategic training of learners for international communication. Scholars

commenting on the issue call for developing communication strategies and learners' awareness; training learners for adjusting their own speech for accommodation; adapting their language; making them aware of lingua franca communication strategies and mutual negotiation; and raising learners' consciousness of intercultural understanding (Erling, 2005: 42; Jenkins, 2009: 201; Kuo, 2006: 219; Mollin, 2006: 45; Seidlhofer, 2005: 40). They agree that what is more important is developing strategic competence of learners regardless of their orientation and "it is this strategic competence which enables ELF speakers to engage in meaningful negotiation" (House, 2003: 570). What ELF speakers usually do is adapt a "let-it-pass" approach to things that cause misunderstanding in international communication (Seidlhofer, 2000: 60; House, 2003: 558). A better training is necessary and even native-speakers of English, as Mollin (2006: 54) and McArthur (2004: 9) point out, need such strategic training.

Looking at the discussions in ELF, one factor is noticeable: what ELF researchers in fact call for is a change in attitude towards ELF in general, nonnative speakers and native speaker norms in particular. This is evident in their writings. For example, they often use pairs of opposites such as "variant" versus "error", "difference" versus "deficiency", "speakers" versus "learners" and "users" versus "fossilized learners". Referring to these opposites, they claim nonnative speakers who do not always adhere to native standards could be the speakers of an international variant of English, and thus they should not be labeled as (fossilized) learners of ENL showing deficiencies in the errors they make. They state a non-native speaker maybe a competent speaker of ELF even if he or she diverges from ENL. They also want the researchers, commentators and scholars to avoid overgeneralization of considering everybody as learners of ENL by asserting that not everyone may want to attain NS competence to communicate with NSs (Jenkins, 2006, 2009; Seidlhofer, 2000; Widdowson, 1998).

To conclude, native speaker norms should remain as the teaching standards for a variety of reasons. First of all, a comprehensive and precise description of ELF does not yet exist and thus we cannot talk about an ELF variety yet. With the current

approach to describing ELF, what is attained is a reduced version of ENL. Another reason is the attitude, choice and need of the learners of English globally who strongly tend to set native-speaker competence as their goal. Another factor is that we cannot expect very young learners to decide what functions of English they will use in the future since most learners are introduced English at an early age. This limits the term ELF to adult learners as they may choose to learn English solely for international communication. As a result of these factors, native speaker standards should remain as teaching model. What English teachers need to do in today's world is to match the linguistic reality to educational reality of English. This can be achieved by giving learners strategic training to recognize the international communicative function of English.

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1. TEST DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

As mentioned in Chapter 1, pragmatic competence includes two subcomponents of illocutionary competence and sociopragmatic competence (Bachman, 1990: 90). Thus to describe a person as having pragmatic competence s/he has to have “offline knowledge and online control of the linguistic and the sociocultural aspects of pragmatics” (McNamara and Roever, 2006: 54-55). S/he has to know what to say to whom in what situation. Therefore, discourse completion test measure explained in Chapter 1 is chosen as the data collection instrument because discourse completion questionnaire provides sociocultural context in which the test taker should produce a speech act. This design allows the researcher to test whether the test taker has the necessary linguistic forms appropriate to produce in a given situation at their disposal.

During the test development process the researcher’s main reference was the comprehensive study of Hudson, Detmer and Brown (1995). In their study, they analyzed three different types of measures: indirect, semi-direct, and self-assessment measures (p. 3). The test types they analyzed for indirect measures were free-response discourse completion test and a cued response multiple-choice discourse completion tasks. Then, they determined variables on which they would build their tests. They ended up using three variables of power, social distance and the degree of imposition (p. 4). They defined these factors as follows (p. 4-5):

Relative power (P)

The power of the speaker with respect to the hearer. In effect, this is 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.

+P= Speaker has a higher rank, title or social position, or is in control of the assets in the situation. Examples would be a superior, manager, president, or customer.

-P= Speaker has a lower/lesser rank, title or social position, or is not in control of the assets in the situation. Examples would be a worker of lesser status, member of an organization with lesser status, or salesperson serving a customer.

Social distance (D)

The distance between the speaker and the hearer. In effect, the degree of familiarity and solidarity they share as represented through in-group or out-group membership.

+D= Speaker and hearer do not know or identify with each other. They are strangers interacting due to social/life circumstances. Examples would be customer to service person or law enforcement officer to citizen.

-D= Speaker and hearer know and or identify with each other. There is an affiliation between the speaker and the hearer; they share solidarity in the sense that they could be described as working toward a common goal or interest. Examples would be co-workers or people who belong to the same social or professional organization or club.

Absolute ranking of imposition (R)

The imposition in the culture, in terms of the expenditure of goods and/or services by the hearer, or the obligation of the speaker to perform the act. This will vary depending upon whether the speech act is a request, a refusal, or an apology.

...

Apologies:

+R= Great severity of offense or speaker's obligation to apologize is great

-R= Small severity of offense or speaker's obligation to apologize is small.

They developed and analyzed different test measures to give options to researchers who are interested in cross-cultural pragmatics based on the area they are interested in studying. They say, for example, that the formulaic nature of apologies could be analyzed well with an open-ended indirect DCT (p. 6). Since the researcher in this study is interested in the formulaic structure of apologies performed by native English speaking and nonnative speaking English teachers, open-ended discourse completion questionnaire is chosen as the data collection instrument.

Next, the researcher prepared a situation framework (Appendix 1) based on the distribution of sociopragmatic variables in the study of Hudson et. al. (1995). Table 9 shows the distribution of variables:

Table 9: Distribution of sociopragmatic variables.

	Dist. 1	Dist. 2	Dist. 3	Dist. 4	Dist. 5	Dist. 6	Dist. 7	Dist. 8
Power	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-
Distance	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
Imposition	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-

Then, the researcher prepared two scenarios for each distribution. For example, for distribution 1 where all the variables are intended to be high, the following two scenarios were prepared:

Example:

Distribution 1

A.	You	: Owner of a school
	Hearer	: Representative of a publisher you have not met before
	Cause of imposition	: Spilling tea on his/her bag and damaging some sample books and important documents
B.	You	: Doctor
	Hearer	: Representative of a pharmaceutical company You have not met before
	Cause of imposition	: Stepping on his bag and damaging some gifts he has prepared for other people

The reason why the researcher prepared two scenarios for each distribution is to be able to select the one that reveals the sociopragmatic variables better. For eight distributions, sixteen situations in total were prepared. After constructing the situations, a pilot test was designed (Appendix 2). There are two reasons why the researcher pilot tests the situations. First, in order to be able to define whether the situations are clear enough to reveal an apology, in other words, to see whether test-takers say they would provide an apology in a given situation. The second reason is whether the intended sociopragmatic variables are clear.

2.2. PILOT TEST

The researcher first implemented a pilot test, which requires the participants to rate the power, distance and imposition in each situation. As previously mentioned, the Hudson et. al.'s (1995) study guides the researcher of this study. In their study, Hudson et. al. (1995) had native speakers rate the 48 situations for the speech act and the distribution of power, distance, and imposition for initial pilot testing of their situations. During the pilot test, they found three problematic areas. The first problem they encountered was elicitation of wrong speech act. In some situations the

participants thought the situation required a speech act other than the researchers intended. For example, an apology situation was considered to be a request situation by some participants. The second problem was opting out. In some situations, some participants opted out of responding to the speech act. This situation generally occurred in their refusal situations where imposition was so low. The third problem they encountered was misinterpretation of P, D and R by the respondents. For example, in low distance situations, some participants misinterpreted power relationships.

The problems Hudson et. al. encountered were taken into consideration in the design of the pilot test of this study. To answer the first problem, the pilot test included a prompt after each situation so that the respondents would say whether they would apologize or not (“What would you do in this situation?”). To answer the third problem, the researcher added a rating scale for P, D, and R for each situation so that the researcher could see how respondents interpret these variables (see the example below). The reason for this is that it was thought that the actual test might reveal whether the situation was understood as an apology situation, but might fail in whether the test takers identified power, distance and imposition. With a design that includes a rating scale for P, D and R, the researcher was able to see how the test takers rate these sociopragmatic variables. In addition, instead of only giving the options of (+) or (-), the participants rated the variables in a Likert scale format. Each situation had a scale of five, five being the highest, one being the lowest. Also, for each distribution of power, distance and imposition, two situations were created. To illustrate, two situations were written for the distribution with high power, high distance and high imposition. It was thought that a (+) or (-) rating may have been insufficient because two situations might be rated the same with (+) or (-) options. However, Likert scale format allowed the researcher to see the central tendency with mean score, median and mode for either situation. In addition, one-sample t-test was administered to the ratings and allowed the researcher to see whether the mean skews towards the intended value and differentiates from the mid-value, which is three in a

scale of five. This design guided the researcher to pick the situation that was closer to the intended design. The first situation in the pilot test is given below:

Example:

Situation 1. You are the owner of a private school. A representative of a publication company, who you have not met before is visiting you to introduce new course books. While looking at the samples the representative brought, you accidentally spill tea on his/her bag and some sample books and important documents are damaged.

Power of the Speaker	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Distance between S and H	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Imposition of the act	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low

What would you do in this situation?

In the situation, the participants were asked to rate the sociopragmatic variables and also write what they would do in this situation. If they rated the variables the same as or close to the intended rating of variables, and also wrote that they would apologize in this situation, then the situation was included in the final test.

Also, as a global measure, the researcher prepared two situations for each distribution. For example, if one of the situations revealed ratings of P, D or R in the opposite of the intended direction, the equal situation, which gives a better result, was included.

2.2.1. RESEARCH QUESTIONS OF THE PILOT STUDY

In section 2.2., criteria for the pilot tests were explained. With a pilot test, the researcher is able to see whether the situations are clear enough to reveal an apology and whether the intended sociopragmatic variables are clear. Based on these aims, the following research questions were formed for the pilot test:

1. Are the items capable of eliciting apology speech act?
2. Do the items reflect the intended sociopragmatic design?

The answers to these to question will help the researcher to ensure giving a valid test to the participants of the main study.

2.2.2. PARTICIPANTS OF THE PILOT STUDY

Thirteen native speakers of American English participated in the pilot test. They were residing in Turkey at the time of the study. They identified their professions as teacher, instructor or professor and were teaching at universities in Turkey. The ages of the participants ranged from 26 to 67 with the average age at 42.72. Eight of the participants were female and five were male.

2.2.3. THE COMMUNICATIVE DIMENSION OF THE SITUATIONS IN THE PILOT STUDY

As mentioned in section 2.1., sixteen situations were prepared for the pilot test. The purpose of preparing sixteen situations was to be able to select eight situations that best reveal the intended sociopragmatic design. The sixteen situations were given to the participants of the pilot study for their rating of power, distance and imposition. The analysis of their responses was used to select the eight situations that best reflect eight distinct distributions of power, distance and imposition. The communicative dimensions of each situation are described in detail in the following boxes:

PILOT TEST SITUATION 1 (PTS1)

A representative of a publication company visits a school owner to present books

Speech Act: Apology

Location: School owner's office

Interlocutors: The owner of a private school and a representative of a publication company

- The school owner inadvertently spills tea on the representative's bag and damages his important documents and sample books
- In this context and interaction:
 - The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **high** because of his/her status
 - The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **high** because they have not met before
 - The **imposition** is **high** because the damaged documents are important

PILOT TEST SITUATION 2 (PTS2)

A representative of a pharmaceutical company visits a doctor to introduce new products

Speech Act: Apology

Location: Hospital

Interlocutors: A doctor and a representative of a pharmaceutical company

- The doctor steps on the representative's bag and damages the gifts he has prepared for other people
- In this context and interaction:
 - The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **high** because of his/her position
 - The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **high** because they

- have not met before
- o The **imposition** is **high** because the doctor damages his property

PILOT TEST SITUATION 3 (PTS3)

A professor loses the final project of one of his/her students

Speech Act: Apology

Location: School

Interlocutors: A professor and a student

- The professor loses the final project a student has prepared over the course of six weeks and the student needs to prepare it again
- In this context and interaction:
 - o The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **high** because of his/her status
 - o The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **low** because they know each other
 - o The **imposition** is **high** because of the cost of time and energy required of the student is high

PILOT TEST SITUATION 4 (PTS4)

A director of a department store has an accident with his employee's car

Speech Act: Apology

Location: Department Store

Interlocutors: The director of a department store and an employee

- The director of a department store borrows his employee's car and has an accident with it
- In this context and interaction:
 - o The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **high** because of his/her position
 - o The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **low** because they

know each other

- o The **imposition** is **high** because of the damage of property

PILOT TEST SITUATION 5 (PTS5)

An electronics repairman damages the screen of a customer's pocket pc

Speech Act: Apology

Location: Electronics repair shop

Interlocutors: An electronics repairman and a customer

- An electronics repairman damages the screen of a pocket pc brought for battery replacement
- In this context and interaction:
 - o The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **low** because of his/her position
 - o The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **high** because they are strangers
 - o The **imposition** is **high** because of the damage done to a valuable

PILOT TEST SITUATION 6 (PTS6)

An employee in a coffee shop causes a customer to burn his/her hand

Speech Act: Apology

Location: Coffee shop

Interlocutors: An employee in a coffee shop and a customer

- The employee of the coffee shop fails to put the cap of a coffee cup on correctly and hot coffee spills on the customer's hand
- In this context and interaction:
 - o The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **low** because of his/her position
 - o The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **high** because they

- are stranger
- o The **imposition** is **high** because there is a physical harm

PILOT TEST SITUATION 7 (PTS7)

A university student loses his/her professor's rare book

Speech Act: Apology

Location: Professor's office

Interlocutors: A university student and a professor

- The university student borrows his/her professor's rare book and later notices s/he has lost it
- In this context and interaction:
 - o The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **low** because of his/her position
 - o The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **low** because they know each other
 - o The **imposition** is **high** because of the rarity of the lost item

PILOT TEST SITUATION 8 (PTS8)

A vice president acts as acting president for a week because of the absence of the president

Speech Act: Apology

Location: The office of the president of an institution

Interlocutors: The vice president and the president of an institution

- The vice president of an institution acts as acting president during the absence of the president and signs a document s/he should not have signed
- In this context and interaction:
 - o The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **low** because of his/her position
 - o The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **low** because they know each other

- o The **imposition** is **high** because the document should not have been signed at all cost

PILOT TEST SITUATION 9 (PTS9)

A customer is having lunch at a restaurant

Speech Act: Apology

Location: A restaurant

Interlocutors: A waiter/waitress and a customer

- The customer hits a waiter/waitress arm and a bottle falls on the ground but it does not break
- In this context and interaction:
 - o The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **high** because of his/her social status
 - o The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **high** because they are strangers
 - o The **imposition** is **low** because the bottle does not break

PILOT TEST SITUATION 10 (PTS10)

A human resources manager of a company makes an appointment with an applicant

Speech Act: Apology

Location: The office of the human resources manager

Interlocutors: A human resources manager and an applicant

- The human resources manager makes an appointment with an applicant but runs late because of the traffic
- In this context and interaction:
 - o The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **high** because of his/her status
 - o The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **high** because they have not met before

- o The **imposition** is **low** because the cost of short delay to the hearer is low

PILOT TEST SITUATION 11 (PTS11)

A professor makes an appointment with a student

Speech Act: Apology

Location: Professor's office

Interlocutors: A professor and a university student

- The professor makes an appointment with a student and runs late for the appointment
- In this context and interaction:
 - o The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **high** because of his/her status
 - o The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **low** because they know each other
 - o The **imposition** is **low** because the cost of short delay to the hearer is low

PILOT TEST SITUATION 12 (PTS12)

A director of a department knocks over his/her secretary's belongings

Speech Act: Apology

Location: A department of a company

Interlocutors: The director of a department and his secretary

- The director knocks over a vase and a framed picture on the ground while passing by his/her secretary's table
- In this context and interaction:
 - o The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **high** because of his/her status
 - o The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **low** because they know each other

- o The **imposition** is **low** because the items do not break

PILOT TEST SITUATION 13 (PTS13)

A sales representative keeps a customer waiting

Speech Act: Apology

Location: An electronics store

Interlocutors: A sales representative and a customer

- The sales representative helps a customer who is not the next in line and the person next in line has to wait
- In this context and interaction:
 - o The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **low** because of his/her position
 - o The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **high** because they are two strangers communicating because of the circumstances
 - o The **imposition** is **low** because the cost to the hearer is not high

PILOT TEST SITUATION 14 (PTS14)

A researcher is presenting his/her project to a member of a science foundation

Speech Act: Apology

Location: The office of a member of a science foundation

Interlocutors: A researcher and a member of a science foundation

- The researcher hits the bookcase in the office of the member of the science foundation a couple of books fall on the ground
- In this context and interaction:
 - o The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **low** because s/he is not the one who is in control of the assets in the situation
 - o The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **high** because they

- communicate because of the circumstances
- o The **imposition** is **low** because the cost to the hearer is low

PILOT TEST SITUATION 15 (PTS15)

An administrative assistant uses his/her administrator's computer because his/hers is broken

Speech Act: Apology

Location: A company

Interlocutors: An administrative assistant and an administrative

- An administrative assistant saves a document over one of the documents of his/her administrative and accidentally erases it, but the administrative backs up every document
- In this context and interaction:
 - o The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **low** because of his/her position
 - o The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **low** because they know each other
 - o The **imposition** is **low** because the erased document has a back up

PILOT TEST SITUATION 16 (PTS16)

A customer representative at a bank helps a long-term customer

Speech Act: Apology

Location: A bank

Interlocutors: A customer representative at a bank and a customer

- The customer representative at a bank keeps a long-term customer waiting because of a phone call from the manager
- In this context and interaction:
 - o The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **low** because of his/her position
 - o The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **low** because they know each other well

- o The **imposition** is **low** because the cost to the hearer is low

2.2.4. STATISTICAL ANALYSES OF THE PILOT STUDY

As mentioned in section 2.2., two situations were written for each distribution of sociopragmatic variables tested, and the results were compared. The results are given in tables for each distribution. The first table represents the sociopragmatic design and the percentage of participants who wrote they would use strategies that are considered in the head act of apology speech act set. In other words, this percentage gives the percentage of participants who identified the apology speech act. The following six tables show the frequencies of the ratings of a sociopragmatic variable for a situation. The tables also show the mean scores of the rating of the given variable, median and mode. The last table of each distribution includes one-sample *t*-test results. The *t* and *p* values show if the mean differentiate from the mid-point. These results were used to decide which situation to use in the actual test and whether some revisions were necessary.

2.2.4.1. DISTRIBUTION 1

The tables below show the results of pilot test for distribution 1. First, table 10 represents sociopragmatic design and the percentage of speech act identification for situation 1 and 2. Next, tables 11 through 16 show the frequencies of the ratings of the sociopragmatic variables for situation 1 and 2. The mean scores of the ratings of the given variables, medians and modes are also given in these tables. Finally, table 17 shows one-sample *t*-test results.

Table 10: Speech act identification in distribution 1

Design	Power	Distance	Imposition	Speech Act Identification
<i>Situation 1</i>	+	+	+	92%
<i>Situation 2</i>	+	+	+	92%

As seen in table 10, in situation 1 and 2 the power of the speaker is higher (+) than the hearer. The distance between the speaker and the hearer is high (+) because they are strangers. The imposition is high (+) because the offense is serious. The following tables 11 through 16 show the results of the pilot test in terms of one sociopragmatic variable such as power in table 11. The results include frequencies of each item in the scale chosen by the participants and mean, median and mode values.

Table 11: Frequencies and central tendencies for power in situation 1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid 3	3	23,1	23,1	23,1	4,3077	5,0000	5,00
4	3	23,1	23,1	23,1			
5	7	53,8	53,8	53,8			
Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 12: Frequencies and central tendencies for distance in situation 1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid 1	1	7,7	7,7	7,7	3,8462	4,0000	4,00
3	3	23,1	23,1	30,8			
4	5	38,5	38,5	69,2			
5	4	30,8	30,8	100,0			
Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 13: Frequencies and central tendencies for imposition in situation 1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid 2	2	15,4	15,4	15,4	3,3846	3,0000	3,00
3	6	46,2	46,2	61,5			
4	3	23,1	23,1	84,6			
5	2	15,4	15,4	100,0			
Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 14: Frequencies and central tendencies for power in situation 2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	3	4	30,8	30,8	30,8	4,0769	4,0000	5,00
	4	4	30,8	30,8	61,5			
	5	5	38,5	38,5	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 15: Frequencies and central tendencies for distance in situation 2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	1	7,7	7,7	7,7	3,5385	4,0000	3,00/4,00
	2	1	7,7	7,7	15,4			
	3	4	30,8	30,8	46,2			
	4	4	30,8	30,8	76,9			
	5	3	23,1	23,1	100,0			

Table 16: Frequencies and central tendencies for imposition in situation 2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	2	2	15,4	15,4	15,4	3,3077	3,0000	3,00
	3	6	46,2	46,2	61,5			
	4	4	30,8	30,8	92,3			
	5	1	7,7	7,7	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 17 presents the results of one-sample t-test for situation 1 and 2 of the pilot test. The mean of the ratings of each sociopragmatic variable is compared to the test value, which is set as the mid-point of the scale. Since the scale is from one to five, the test value is three. The t-test allows the researcher to see whether the mean of the ratings is different from the mid-point and whether it is different and in the same directed as the researcher intended. For example, if the researcher intends a variable to be high and the mean is more than three, then it is in the right direction. T-test then tells if it is significantly more than three. This allows the researcher to see if there is a significant tendency in the rating of a variable towards the high or low end of the

scale. Table 17 shows that all the variables in situation 1 and 2 are in the direction the researcher intended. In situation 1, power and distance are significantly different from the mid-point, but the imposition is in the right direction but not significant. In situation 2, only power is significantly different from the mid-point.

Table 17: One-sample t test for distribution 1

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	P
S1PowerS	13	4,3077	,85485	5,516	,000
S1Distance	13	3,8462	1,14354	2,668	,020
S1Impositon	13	3,3846	,96077	1,443	,175
S2PowerS	13	4,0769	,86232	4,503	,001
S2Distance	13	3,5385	1,19829	1,620	,131
S2Imposition	13	3,3077	,85485	1,298	,219

For distribution 1, situation 1, in which the speaker is a school owner and the hearer is a representative of a publication company was created. The offense in this situation is damaging some sample books and important documents by spilling tea. A second situation, in which the speaker is a doctor and the hearer is a representative of a pharmaceutical company was created. In this situation the offense is damaging gifts in his bag. First of all, 92% of the answers for the second part of the questions included one or more apology strategies which would normally occur in the head act of apology speech act set. In both situations, the participants' rating of imposition was not as high as the researcher intended. However, power and distance in situation 1 was significantly higher than the midpoint, indicating a tendency to rate it high. The probability value for imposition was insignificant in both situations, but it was lower for situation 1. Therefore, situation 1 was included in the final test.

2.2.4.2. DISTRIBUTION 2

The tables below show the results of pilot test for distribution 2. First, table 18 represents sociopragmatic design and the percentage of speech act identification for situation 3 and 4. Next, tables 19 through 24 show the frequencies of the ratings of the sociopragmatic variables for situation 3 and 4. The mean scores of the ratings of

the given variables, medians and modes are also given in these tables. Finally, table 25 shows one-sample *t*-test results.

Table 18: Speech act identification in distribution 2

Design	Power	Distance	Imposition	Speech Act Identification
<i>Situation 3</i>	+	-	+	69%
<i>Situation 4</i>	+	-	+	92%

Table 18 shows that in situation 3 and 4 the power of the speaker is higher (+) than the hearer. The distance between the speaker and the hearer is low (-) because they know each other. The imposition is high (+) because the offense is serious. The following tables 19 through 24 show the results of the pilot test in terms of one sociopragmatic variable. The results include frequencies of each item in the scale chosen by the participants and mean, median and mode values.

Table 19: Frequencies and central tendencies for power in situation 3

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	3	2	15,4	15,4	15,4	4,2308	4,0000	4,00
	4	6	46,2	46,2	61,5			
	5	5	38,5	38,5	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 20: Frequencies and central tendencies for distance in situation 3

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	2	15,4	15,4	15,4	2,4615	2,0000	2,00
	2	6	46,2	46,2	61,5			
	3	2	15,4	15,4	76,9			
	4	3	23,1	23,1	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 21: Frequencies and central tendencies for imposition in situation 3

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	3	1	7,7	7,7	7,7	4,4615	5,0000	5,00
	4	5	38,5	38,5	46,2			
	5	7	53,8	53,8	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 22: Frequencies and central tendencies for power in situation 4

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	2	1	7,7	7,7	7,7	4,0000	4,0000	4,00
	3	2	15,4	15,4	23,1			
	4	6	46,2	46,2	69,2			
	5	4	30,8	30,8	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 23: Frequencies and central tendencies for distance in situation 4

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	4	30,8	30,8	30,8	2,4615	3,0000	3,00
	2	2	15,4	15,4	46,2			
	3	5	38,5	38,5	84,6			
	4	1	7,7	7,7	92,3			
	5	1	7,7	7,7	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 24: Frequencies and central tendencies for imposition in situation 4

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	3	3	23,1	23,1	23,1	4,4615	5,0000	5,00
	4	1	7,7	7,7	30,8			
	5	9	69,2	69,2	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 25 presents the results of one-sample t-test for situation 3 and 4. It shows that all the variables in situation 3 and 4 are in the direction the researcher intended. In

both situations, power and imposition are significantly different from the mid-point, but the distance is in the right direction but not significant.

Table 25: One-sample t test for distribution 2

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	p
S3PowerS	13	4,2308	,72501	6,121	,000
S3Distance	13	2,4615	1,05003	-1,849	,089
S3Imposition	13	4,4615	,66023	7,982	,000
S4PowerS	13	4,0000	,91287	3,950	,002
S4Distance	13	2,4615	1,26592	-1,534	,151
S4Imposition	13	4,4615	,87706	6,008	,000

In this category, situation 3 ended up being problematic. In this situation the speaker is a professor who has lost a student's project, which has been prepared over the course of six weeks. First of all, the percentage of apology speech act identification is lower than situation 4, in which the speaker is the director of a department store borrowing his employee's car. On top of that, some participants wrote that in situation 3 it is highly likely that the project could be reprinted and easily handed in again. Therefore, it was excluded and the situation 4 was chosen for the main study. The mean scores and the *t*-test results of situation 3 and 4 were close to each other. In both situations, power and imposition were significant different from the test value. Distance, on the other hand, was not significantly different from the test value and thus revisions were made which will be explained in section 2.2.5.

2.2.4.3. DISTRIBUTION 3

The tables below show the results of pilot test for distribution 3. First, table 26 represents sociopragmatic design and the percentage of speech act identification for situation 5 and 6. Next, tables 27 through 32 show the frequencies of the ratings of the sociopragmatic variables for situation 5 and 6. The mean scores of the ratings of

the given variables, medians and modes are also given in these tables. Finally, table 33 shows one-sample *t*-test results.

Table 26: Speech act identification in distribution 3

Design	Power	Distance	Imposition	Speech Act Identification
<i>Situation 5</i>	-	+	+	62%
<i>Situation 6</i>	-	+	+	92%

In situation 5 and 6 the power of the speaker is lower (-) than the hearer. The distance between the speaker and the hearer is high (+) because they are strangers. The imposition is high (+) because the offense is serious. Tables 27 through 32 show the results of the pilot test in terms of one sociopragmatic variable. The results include frequencies of each item in the scale chosen by the participants and mean, median and mode values.

Table 27: Frequencies and central tendencies for power in situation 5

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid 1	2	15,4	15,4	15,4	2,3077	2,0000	2,00
2	6	46,2	46,2	61,5			
3	4	30,8	30,8	92,3			
4	1	7,7	7,7	100,0			
Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 28: Frequencies and central tendencies for distance in situation 5

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid 1	1	7,7	7,7	7,7	3,5385	4,0000	5,00
2	2	15,4	15,4	23,1			
3	3	23,1	23,1	46,2			
4	3	23,1	23,1	69,2			
5	4	30,8	30,8	100,0			
Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 29: Frequencies and central tendencies for imposition in situation 5

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	3	2	15,4	15,4	4,3846	5,0000	5,00
	4	4	30,8	30,8			
	5	7	53,8	100,0			
Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 30: Frequencies and central tendencies for power in situation 6

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	9	69,2	69,2	1,4615	1,0000	1,00
	2	2	15,4	84,6			
	3	2	15,4	100,0			
Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 31: Frequencies and central tendencies for distance in situation 6

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	2	2	15,4	15,4	4,1538	5,0000	5,00
	3	2	15,4	30,8			
	4	1	7,7	38,5			
	5	8	61,5	100,0			
Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 32: Frequencies and central tendencies for imposition in situation 6

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	3	3	23,1	23,1	4,3077	5,0000	5,00
	4	3	23,1	46,2			
	5	7	53,8	100,0			
Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 33 presents the results of one-sample t-test for situation 5 and 6 of the pilot test. It shows that all the variables in situation 5 and 6 are in the direction the researcher intended. In situation 6, all three variables are significantly different from

the mid-point. In situation 5, power and distance are significantly different but the distance is not significant.

Table 33: One-sample t test for distribution 3

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	p
S5PowerS	13	2,3077	,85485	-2,920	,013
S5Distance	13	3,5385	1,33012	1,460	,170
S5Imposition	13	4,3846	,76795	6,501	,000
S6PowerS	13	1,4615	,77625	-7,146	,000
S6Distance	13	4,1538	1,21423	3,426	,005
S6Imposition	13	4,3077	,85485	5,516	,000

In this category, situation 6 in which the speaker is an employee in a coffee shop who accidentally burns a customer's hand, gave better results than situation 5 in which the speaker is an electronics repairman who damages the screen of a customer's pocket pc. As could be seen in table 26, 92% of the answers include apology strategies for situation 6 whereas the percentage is 62% of the answers did so in situation 5. All three variables are significantly different from the test value in the intended direction. Thus, situation 6 was included in the main study.

2.2.4.4. DISTRIBUTION 4

The tables below show the results of pilot test for distribution 4. First, table 34 represents sociopragmatic design and the percentage of speech act identification for situation 7 and 8. Next, tables 35 through 40 show the frequencies of the ratings of the sociopragmatic variables for situation 7 and 8. The mean scores of the ratings of the given variables, medians and modes are also given in these tables. Finally, table 41 shows one-sample *t*-test results.

Table 34: Speech act identification in distribution 4

Design	Power	Distance	Imposition	Speech Act Identification
<i>Situation 7</i>	-	-	+	85%
<i>Situation 8</i>	-	-	+	85%

Table 34 shows that in situation 7 and 8 the power of the speaker is lower (-) than the hearer. The distance between the speaker and the hearer is low (-) because they know each other. The imposition is high (+) because the offense is serious. The following tables 35 through 40 show the results of the pilot test in terms of one sociopragmatic variable. The results include frequencies of each item in the scale chosen by the participants and mean, median and mode values.

Table 35: Frequencies and central tendencies for power in situation 7

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	8	61,5	61,5	61,5	1,4615	1,0000	1,00
	2	4	30,8	30,8	92,3			
	3	1	7,7	7,7	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 36: Frequencies and central tendencies for distance in situation 7

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	2	4	30,8	30,8	30,8	3,2308	3,0000	2,00
	3	4	30,8	30,8	61,5			
	4	3	23,1	23,1	84,6			
	5	2	15,4	15,4	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 37: Frequencies and central tendencies for imposition in situation 7

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	4	2	15,4	15,4	15,4	4,8462	5,0000	5,00
	5	11	84,6	84,6	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 38: Frequencies and central tendencies for power in situation 8

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	2	15,4	15,4	15,4			
	2	1	7,7	7,7	23,1			
	3	8	61,5	61,5	84,6	2,7692	3,0000	3,00
	4	2	15,4	15,4	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 39: Frequencies and central tendencies for distance in situation 8

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	4	30,8	30,8	30,8			
	2	3	23,1	23,1	53,8			
	3	3	23,1	23,1	76,9	2,4615	2,0000	1,00
	4	2	15,4	15,4	92,3			
	5	1	7,7	7,7	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 40: Frequencies and central tendencies for imposition in situation 8

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	4	7	53,8	53,8	53,8			
	5	6	46,2	46,2	100,0	4,4615	4,0000	4,00
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 41 presents the results of one-sample t-test for situation 7 and 8. It shows that all the variables in situation 8 are in the direction the researcher intended. In situation 6, distance is in not in the intended direction. In situation 7, power and imposition are significantly different from the test value while in situation 8 imposition is significantly different from the test value.

Table 41: One-sample t test for distribution 4

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	p
S7PowerS	13	1,4615	,66023	-8,402	,000
S7Distance	13	3,2308	1,09193	,762	,461
S7Imposition	13	4,8462	,37553	17,725	,000
S8PowerS	13	2,7692	,92681	-,898	,387
S8Distance	13	2,4615	1,33012	-1,460	,170
S8Imposition	13	4,4615	,51887	10,156	,000

The speaker is a university student, the hearer is his/her professor and the offense is losing a rare book borrowed from the professor in situation 7. The distance is intended to be low in this situation, but the participants rated it high and it was thus excluded from the final test. Situation 8, in which the speaker is a vice president who accidentally signs a wrong document and the hearer is the president needed to be revised to indicate the low power of speaker. Some of the participants considered the speaker, a vice president, to have power equal to the hearer, the president. Since one of the variables is in the wrong direction, situation 8 was included in the final test.

2.2.4.5. DISTRIBUTION 5

The tables below show the results of pilot test for distribution 5. First, table 42 represents sociopragmatic design and the percentage of speech act identification for situation 9 and 10. Next, tables 43 through 48 show the frequencies of the ratings of the sociopragmatic variables for situation 9 and 10. The mean scores of the ratings of the given variables, medians and modes are also given in these tables. Finally, table 49 shows one-sample *t*-test results.

Table 42: Speech act identification in distribution 5

Design	Power	Distance	Imposition	Speech Act Identification
<i>Situation 9</i>	+	+	-	92%
<i>Situation 10</i>	+	+	-	92%

As seen in table 42, in situation 9 and 10 the power of the speaker is higher (+) than the hearer. The distance between the speaker and the hearer is high (+) because they are strangers. The imposition is low (-) because the offense is not serious. Tables 43 through 48 show the results of the pilot test in terms of one sociopragmatic variable. The results include frequencies of each item in the scale chosen by the participants and mean, median and mode values.

Table 43: Frequencies and central tendencies for power in situation 9

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	1	7,7	7,7	7,7			
	3	5	38,5	38,5	46,2			
	4	4	30,8	30,8	76,9	3,6154	4,0000	3,00
	5	3	23,1	23,1	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 44: Frequencies and central tendencies for distance in situation 9

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	2	1	7,7	7,7	7,7			
	3	4	30,8	30,8	38,5			
	4	3	23,1	23,1	61,5	3,9231	4,0000	5,00
	5	5	38,5	38,5	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 45: Frequencies and central tendencies for imposition in situation 9

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	4	30,8	30,8	30,8			
	2	3	23,1	23,1	53,8			
	3	3	23,1	23,1	76,9	2,5385	2,0000	1,00
	4	1	7,7	7,7	84,6			
	5	2	15,4	15,4	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 46: Frequencies and central tendencies for power in situation 10

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	3	2	15,4	15,4	15,4	4,4615	5,0000	5,00
	4	3	23,1	23,1	38,5			
	5	8	61,5	61,5	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 47: Frequencies and central tendencies for distance in situation 10

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	1	7,7	7,7	7,7	3,8462	4,0000	5,00
	3	4	30,8	30,8	38,5			
	4	3	23,1	23,1	61,5			
	5	5	38,5	38,5	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 48: Frequencies and central tendencies for imposition in situation 10

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	2	15,4	15,4	15,4	2,6154	3,0000	3,00
	2	4	30,8	30,8	46,2			
	3	5	38,5	38,5	84,6			
	4	1	7,7	7,7	92,3			
	5	1	7,7	7,7	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 49 presents the results of one-sample t-test for situation 9 and 10. It shows that all the variables in situation 9 and 10 are in the direction the researcher intended. In situation 9, one variable is significantly different from the mid-point. On the other hand, in situation 10, power and distance are significantly different but the distance is not significant.

Table 49: One-sample t test for distribution 5

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	P
S9Powers	13	3,6154	1,12090	1,979	,071
S9Distance	13	3,9231	1,03775	3,207	,008
S9Imposition	13	2,5385	1,45002	-1,148	,273
S10PowerS	13	4,4615	,77625	6,789	,000
S10Distance	13	3,8462	1,21423	2,513	,027
S10Imposition	13	2,6154	1,12090	-1,237	,240

The results show two of the variables, namely power and distance, were interpreted by the participants as the researcher intended in situation 10, in which the speaker is a human resources manager and the hearer is an applicant who had to wait for the speaker as s/he has run late because of traffic. This situation was chosen for the final test. *T*-test results show that the mean of the power and distance are significantly higher than midpoint of the scale. In situation 9, in which the speaker is a customer at a restaurant who causes a waiter to drop a bottle, only one variable was significant. The mean of imposition was in the right direction, but it was not significant, thus the situation prompt was revised, which will be explained in section 2.2.5.

2.2.4.6. DISTRIBUTION 6

The tables below show the results of pilot test for distribution 6. First, table 50 represents sociopragmatic design and the percentage of speech act identification for situation 11 and 12. Next, tables 51 through 56 show the frequencies of the ratings of the sociopragmatic variables for situation 11 and 12. The mean scores of the ratings of the given variables, medians and modes are also given in these tables. Finally, table 57 shows one-sample *t*-test results.

Table 50: Speech act identification in distribution 6

Design	Power	Distance	Imposition	Speech Act Identification
<i>Situation 11</i>	+	-	-	92%
<i>Situation 12</i>	+	-	-	92%

In situation 11 and 12 the power of the speaker is higher (+) than the hearer. The distance between the speaker and the hearer is low (-) because they know each other. The imposition is low (-) because the offense is not serious. Tables 51 through 56 show the results of the pilot test in terms of one sociopragmatic variable. The results include frequencies of each item in the scale chosen by the participants and mean, median and mode values.

Table 51: Frequencies and central tendencies for power in situation 11

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	3	1	7,7	7,7	7,7	4,4615	5,000	5,00
	4	5	38,5	38,5	46,2			
	5	7	53,8	53,8	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 52: Frequencies and central tendencies for distance in situation 11

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	1	7,7	7,7	7,7	2,9231	3,0000	2,00/3,00
	2	4	30,8	30,8	38,5			
	3	4	30,8	30,8	69,2			
	4	3	23,1	23,1	92,3			
	5	1	7,7	7,7	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 53: Frequencies and central tendencies for imposition in situation 11

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	4	30,8	30,8	30,8	2,1538	2,0000	3,00
	2	3	23,1	23,1	53,8			
	3	6	46,2	46,2	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 54: Frequencies and central tendencies for power in situation 12

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	3	2	15,4	15,4	15,4	4,4615	5,0000	5,00
	4	3	23,1	23,1	38,5			
	5	8	61,5	61,5	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 55: Frequencies and central tendencies for distance in situation 12

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	4	30,8	30,8	30,8	2,5385	3,0000	1,00/3,00
	2	2	15,4	15,4	46,2			
	3	4	30,8	30,8	76,9			
	4	2	15,4	15,4	92,3			
	5	1	7,7	7,7	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 56: Frequencies and central tendencies for imposition in situation 12

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	4	30,8	30,8	30,8	2,1538	2,0000	1,00/ 2,00/ 3,00
	2	4	30,8	30,8	61,5			
	3	4	30,8	30,8	92,3			
	4	1	7,7	7,7	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 57 presents the results of one-sample t-test for situation 11 and 12 of the pilot test. It shows that all the variables in situation 11 and 12 are in the direction the researcher intended. In both situations, power and imposition are significantly different from the mid-point but the distance is not significant.

Table 57: One-sample t test for distribution 6

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	d
S11PowerS	13	4,4615	,66023	7,982	,000

S11Distance	13	2,9231	1,11516	-,249	,808
S11Imposition	13	2,1538	,89872	-3,395	,005
S12PowerS	13	4,4615	,77625	6,789	,000
S12Distance	13	2,5385	1,33012	-1,251	,235
S12Imposition	13	2,1538	,98710	-3,091	,009

The results for this distribution show that both situations gave similar results, but situation 12, in which the speaker is the director of a department store who knocks over a vase and framed picture off his/her secretary's table, was closer to the intended design, as distance was closer to test value, three, in situation 11, in which the speaker is a university student who runs late for an advising session. Because situation 12 represented this distribution, it was included in the final test.

2.2.4.7. DISTRIBUTION 7

The tables below show the results of pilot test for distribution 7. First, table 58 represents sociopragmatic design and the percentage of speech act identification for situation 13 and 14. Next, tables 59 through 64 show the frequencies of the ratings of the sociopragmatic variables for situation 13 and 14. The mean scores of the ratings of the given variables, medians and modes are also given in these tables. Finally, table 65 shows one-sample *t*-test results.

Table 58: Speech act identification in distribution 7

Design	Power	Distance	Imposition	Speech Act Identification
<i>Situation 13</i>	-	+	-	92%
<i>Situation 14</i>	-	+	-	85%

As seen in table 58, in situation 13 and 14 the power of the speaker is lower (-) than the hearer. The distance between the speaker and the hearer is high (+) because they are strangers. The imposition is low (-) because the offense is not serious. The following tables 59 through 64 show the results of the pilot test in terms of one sociopragmatic variable. The results include frequencies of each item in the scale chosen by the participants and mean, median and mode values.

Table 59: Frequencies and central tendencies for power in situation 13

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	1	7,7	7,7	7,7	2,2308	2,0000	2,00
	2	8	61,5	61,5	69,2			
	3	4	30,8	30,8	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 60: Frequencies and central tendencies for distance in situation 13

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	1	7,7	7,7	7,7	4,0000	4,0000	5,00
	2	1	7,7	7,7	15,4			
	3	1	7,7	7,7	23,1			
	4	4	30,8	30,8	53,8			
	5	6	46,2	46,2	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 61: Frequencies and central tendencies for imposition in situation 13

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	2	5	38,5	38,5	38,5	3,0769	3,0000	2,00
	3	4	30,8	30,8	69,2			
	4	2	15,4	15,4	84,6			
	5	2	15,4	15,4	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 62: Frequencies and central tendencies for power in situation 14

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	4	30,8	30,8	30,8	2,5385	3,0000	1,00/3,00
	2	2	15,4	15,4	46,2			
	3	4	30,8	30,8	76,9			
	4	2	15,4	15,4	92,3			
	5	1	7,7	7,7	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 63: Frequencies and central tendencies for distance in situation 14

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	2	1	7,7	7,7	7,7			
	3	3	23,1	23,1	30,8			
	4	4	30,8	30,8	61,5	4,0000	4,0000	5,00
	5	5	38,5	38,5	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 64: Frequencies and central tendencies for imposition in situation 14

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	1	7,7	7,7	7,7			
	2	7	53,8	53,8	61,5			
	3	3	23,1	23,1	84,6	2,5485	2,0000	2,00
	4	1	7,7	7,7	92,3			
	5	1	7,7	7,7	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 65 presents the results of one-sample t-test for situation 13 and 14. According to the table, all the variables in situation 14 are in the direction the researcher intended. In situation 13, on the other hand, imposition is not in the direction the researcher intended. In situation 13 power and distance are significantly different from the test value while and in situation 14 distance results in a significant difference.

Table 65: One-sample t test for distribution 7

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	P
S13PowerS	13	2,2308	,59914	-4,629	,001
S13Distance	13	4,0000	1,29099	2,793	,016
S13Imposition	13	3,0769	1,11516	,249	,808
S14PowerS	13	2,5385	1,33012	-1,251	,235
S14Distance	13	4,0000	1,00000	3,606	,004

S14Imposition	13	2,5385	1,05003	-1,585	,139

In this distribution, although the percentage of the answers that included apology strategies is lower for situation 14, in which the speaker is a researcher presenting his/her project to one of the members of a science foundation to get a grant, it was included in the final test because the imposition is ranked higher than the researcher intended in situation 13, in which the speaker is a sales representative keeping a customer waiting. Some more information was added to the prompt of the situation to indicate the power relations and imposition better, which will be explained in section 2.2.5.

2.2.4.8. DISTRIBUTION 8

The tables below show the results of pilot test for distribution 8. First, table 66 represents sociopragmatic design and the percentage of speech act identification for situation 15 and 16. Next, tables 67 through 72 show the frequencies of the ratings of the sociopragmatic variables for situation 15 and 16. The mean scores of the ratings of the given variables, medians and modes are also given in these tables. Finally, table 73 shows one-sample *t*-test results.

Table 66: Speech act identification in distribution 8

Design	Power	Distance	Imposition	Speech Act Identification
<i>Situation 15</i>	-	-	-	92%
<i>Situation 16</i>	-	-	-	92%

As seen in table 66, in situation 15 and 16 the power of the speaker is lower (-) than the hearer. The distance between the speaker and the hearer is low (-) because they know each other. The imposition is low (-) because the offense is not serious. Tables 67 through 72 show the results of the pilot test in terms of one sociopragmatic variable. The results include frequencies of each item in the scale chosen by the participants and mean, median and mode values.

Table 67: Frequencies and central tendencies for power in situation 15

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	4	30,8	30,8	30,8	2,1538	2,0000	3,00
	2	3	23,1	23,1	53,8			
	3	6	46,2	46,2	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 68: Frequencies and central tendencies for distance in situation 15

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	5	38,5	38,5	38,5	2,4615	2,0000	1,00
	2	3	23,1	23,1	61,5			
	4	4	30,8	30,8	92,3			
	5	1	7,7	7,7	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 69: Frequencies and central tendencies for imposition in situation 15

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	1	7,7	7,7	7,7	3,1538	3,0000	3,00
	2	3	23,1	23,1	30,8			
	3	4	30,8	30,8	61,5			
	4	3	23,1	23,1	84,6			
	5	2	15,4	15,4	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 70: Frequencies and central tendencies for power in situation 16

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	2	6	46,2	46,2	46,2	2,6154	3,0000	2,00/3,00
	3	6	46,2	46,2	92,3			
	4	1	7,7	7,7	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 71: Frequencies and central tendencies for distance in situation 16

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	2	6	46,2	46,2	46,2			
	3	4	30,8	30,8	76,9			
	4	2	15,4	15,4	92,3	2,8462	3,0000	2,00
	5	1	7,7	7,7	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 72: Frequencies and central tendencies for imposition in situation 16

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	Mean	Median	Mode
Valid	1	3	23,1	23,1	23,1			
	2	4	30,8	30,8	53,8			
	3	5	38,5	38,5	92,3	2,3077	2,0000	3,00
	4	1	7,7	7,7	100,0			
	Total	13	100,0	100,0				

Table 73 presents the result of one-sample t-test for situation 15 and 16. In situation 15, imposition is not in the direction the researcher intended. In situation 16, all three variables are in the intended direction. Power and imposition are significantly different from the test value in situation 16 while power is significantly different from the test value.

Table 73: One-sample t test for distribution 8

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	p
S15PowerS	13	2,1538	,89872	-3,395	,005
S15Distance	13	2,4615	1,50640	-1,289	,222
S15Imposition	13	3,1538	1,21423	,457	,656
S16PowerS	13	2,6154	,65044	-2,132	,054
S16Distance	13	2,8462	,98710	-,562	,584
S16Imposition	13	2,3077	,94733	-2,635	,022

The imposition in situation 15, in which the S is an administrative assistant who accidentally deletes a document which has a back-up copy from his/her administrator's laptop computer, is rated high by the participant in contradiction to the intended design. On the other hand, Situation 16, in which the speaker is a customer representative at a bank who keeps a customer waiting, gave results close to the intended design. Thus, it was included in the final test.

Overall, the pilot test was a useful tool for testing the materials before implementation for any problems, which were evident in some situations. The eight situations that were chosen for the main study with some modifications are situation 1, situation 4, situation 6, situation 8, situation 10, situation 12, situation 14, and situation 16.

2.2.5. REVISIONS

As explained in previous sections, there were two situations for each distribution of sociopragmatic variables. The ones that were rated by the participants closer to the intended design were chosen for the actual test. However, although they were in the intended direction of the scale, some mean scores were close to the mid-point value, three. This indicates neutral power, distance or imposition. Since the researcher intended to include plus or minus power, distance or imposition only, it was necessary to revise situations including variables rated close to the mid-point of the scale. The original and second revised versions of each situation follow:

Situation 1

Original version:

You are the owner of a private school. A representative of a publication company whom you have not met before is visiting you to introduce new course books. While looking at the samples the representative has brought, you accidentally spill tea on his/her bag and some sample books and important documents are damaged.

The average of the ratings given by the participant for imposition was 3.38 for this situation. The researcher improved this situation by adding more information to increase distance that would reflect on the imposition of the event. The following is the revised version:

Revised version:

You are the owner of a private school. A representative of a publication company whom you have not met before is visiting you to introduce new course books. *This is the first time a representative from this publication company has been visiting your school.* While looking at the samples the representative has brought, you accidentally spill tea on his/her bag and some sample books and important documents are damaged.

Situation 4

Original version:

You are the director of a department store. As you are leaving for the bank, you notice your car has broken down. Since you have to go to the bank, you borrow a car from one of your employees. While you are coming from the bank, you bump into another car and both cars receive some damage. Now you see him/her.

In the pilot test, one participant said that the relation between a boss and an employee was fluid as it could be either close or distant. To remove this confusion, the situation was modified as follows:

Revised version:

You are the director of a department store. As you are leaving for the bank, you notice your car has broken down. Since you have to go to the bank, you borrow a car from one of your employees *with whom you have good relationship.* While you are coming from the bank, you bump into another car and both cars receive some damage. Now you see him/her.

Situation 8

Original version:

You are the vice-president of an institution. Since the president was on a business trip last week, you were the acting president. You notice now that you signed a document which should not have been signed at all costs. Now you see the president.

As mentioned in 2.2.4.4., some of the participants considered the speaker, the vice-president, to have power equal to the hearer, the president. In order to make the power relationship between the speaker and the hearer more explicit, information regarding the role of the president was added. In the revised version, s/he is also the owner of the company. The revised version follows.

Revised version:

You are the vice-president of *a company*. *The president of the company, who is also the owner, was on a business trip last week. While s/he was away,* you were the acting president. You notice now that you signed a document which should not have been signed at all costs. Now you see the president.

Situation 10

Original version:

You are the human resources manager of a company. You have made an appointment with an applicant for today, but unfortunately you have run late because of traffic. Now you go to your office and see the applicant.

The imposition for the situation was intended to be low. However, since there was not a clear indication of the amount of time the applicant has to wait, some of the participants considered it to be a big offense. Therefore, a clear indication of a short time period was added.

Revised version:

You are the human resources manager of a company. You have made an appointment with an applicant for today, but unfortunately *you arrive five minutes late* because of traffic. Now you go to your office and see the applicant.

Situation 14

Original version:

You are a researcher. You want to get a grant for one of your projects. Now you are in the office of one of the members of a science foundation. While presenting your project, you hit his/her bookcase and a couple of books fall on the ground.

The researcher added some more information about the role of the hearer and the description of the situation to help indicate the power relationship and the offense better. The revised version of the situation follows:

Revised version:

You are a researcher. *Since you need financial support for one of your projects, you apply to a science foundation for a grant.* Now you are in the office of *the director* of the foundation to present your project. *While presenting, you use the board that is next to a bookcase and accidentally hit it with your elbow and a couple of books fall on the ground.*

2.2.6. THE COMMUNICATIVE DIMENSION OF THE SITUATIONS IN THE STUDY

This study investigates whether there are differences between native and the non-native English speaking teachers in terms of the speech act strategies they use in eight given situations. In this respect, speech act use is assessed using situations created based on three sociopragmatic factors: power of the speaker, social distance between the speaker and the hearer and the absolute ranking of imposition. The eight situations that are used in this study are described in detail below.

SITUATION I (SI)

A representative of a publication company visits a school owner to present books

Speech Act: Apology

Location: School owner's office

Interlocutors: The owner of a private school and a representative of a publication company

- The school owner inadvertently spills tea on the representative's bag and damages his important documents and sample books
- In this context and interaction:
 - The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **high** because of his/her status
 - The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **high** because they have not met before
 - The **imposition** is **high** because the damaged documents are important

SITUATION II (SII)

A director of a department store has an accident with his employee's car

Speech Act: Apology

Location: Department Store

Interlocutors: The director of a department store and an employee

- The director of a department store borrows his employee's car and then has an accident with it
- In this context and interaction:
 - The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **high** because of his/her position
 - The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **low** because they know each other
 - The **imposition** is **high** because of the damage of property

SITUATION III (SIII)

An employee in a coffee shop makes a mistake that causes a customer to burn his/her hand

Speech Act: Apology

Location: Coffee shop

Interlocutors: An employee in a coffee shop and a customer

- The employee of the coffee shop fails to put the cap of a coffee cup on correctly and the hot content spills on the customer's hand
- In this context and interaction:
 - The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **low** because of his/her position
 - The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **high** because they are stranger
 - The **imposition** is **high** because there is a physical harm

SITUATION IV (SIV)

A vice president acts as acting president for a week because of the absence of the president

Speech Act: Apology

Location: The office of the president of an institution

Interlocutors: The vice president and the president of an institution

- The vice president of an institution act as acting president during the absence of the president and signs a document s/he should not have signed
- In this context and interaction:
 - The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **low** because of his/her position
 - The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **low** because they know each other
 - The **imposition** is **high** because the document should not have been signed at all cost

SITUATION V (SV)

A human resources manager of a company makes an appointment with an applicant

Speech Act: Apology

Location: The office of the human resources manager

Interlocutors: A human resources manager and an applicant

- The human resources manager makes an appointment with an applicant but runs late because of the traffic
- In this context and interaction:
 - The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **high** because of his/her status
 - The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **high** because they have not met before
 - The **imposition** is **low** because the cost of short delay to the hearer is low

SITUATION VI (SVI)

A director of a department knocks over his/her secretary's belongings

Speech Act: Apology

Location: A department of a company

Interlocutors: The director of a department and his secretary

- The director knocks over a vase and a framed picture on the ground while passing by his/her secretary's table
- In this context and interaction:
 - The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **high** because of his/her status
 - The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **low** because they know each other
 - The **imposition** is **low** because the items do not get broken

SITUATION VII (SVII)

A researcher is presenting his/her project to a member of a science foundation

Speech Act: Apology

Location: The office of a member of a science foundation

Interlocutors: A researcher and a member of a science foundation

- The researcher hits the bookcase in the office of the member of the science foundation a couple of books fall on the ground
- In this context and interaction:
 - The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **low** because s/he is not the one who is in control of the assets in the situation
 - The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **high** because they communicate because of the circumstances
 - The **imposition** is **low** because the cost to the hearer is low

SITUATION VIII (SVIII)

A customer representative at a bank helps a long-term customer

Speech Act: Apology

Location: A bank

Interlocutors: A customer representative at a bank and a customer

- The customer representative at a bank keeps a long-term customer waiting because of a phone call from the manager
- In this context and interaction:
 - The **social power** of the person who needs to apologize is **low** because of his/her position
 - The **social distance** between the interlocutors is **low** because they know each other well
 - The **imposition** is **low** because the cost to the hearer is low

In these eight situations, sender receiver positions were designed based on power, social distance and imposition and were presented to the participants. Each

participant evaluated the situation subconsciously in terms of these sociopragmatic factors and wrote their apologies accordingly.

2.3. MAIN STUDY

In the following five sections, the general framework of the study is described. First, the research question of the study will be listed. Second, the participants of the study will be described. Third, information regarding the materials used in the test will be given. Fourth, the method of coding will be explained. Fifth, the method of data analysis will be briefly described.

2.3.1. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study aims to answer five questions. These question are regarding the strategy use, distribution of tokens across strategies, length of apologies, number of strategies used by the participants and the pattern of apology speech act set. The research questions are listed below:

1. Are there differences between the native and nonnative English speaking teachers of English as a second/foreign language in the use of individual apology strategies?
2. Do the tokens of strategies the native and nonnative English speaking teachers of English as a second/foreign language use distribute differently across strategy categories?
3. Are there differences between the native and nonnative English speaking teachers of English as a second/foreign language in the length of their apology speech acts?
4. Are there differences between the native and nonnative English speaking teachers of English as a second/foreign language in the number of strategies they use for each situation? More specifically:

- a. Are there differences in the total number of strategies?
- b. Are there differences in the number of strategies in the head act?
- c. Are there differences in the total number of supportive moves?
- d. Are there differences in the number of alerters?
- e. Are there differences in the number of downgraders?
- f. Are there differences in the number of upgraders?

5. Do the native and nonnative English speaking teachers of English as a second/foreign language differ in the pattern of apology speech act set for each situation?

2.3.2. PARTICIPANTS

Two groups of participants participated in the study. One group is composed of native English speaking teachers of English as a second language in the United States and the other group of non-native English speaking teachers of English as a foreign language in Turkey. The participants were teaching English to the speakers of other languages at universities in the United States and in Turkey at the time of the study. The total number of participants is 200, with 100 participants in each group. The mean of the age of the American participants is 42.1 ranging from 22 to 66. Meanwhile, the mean of the age of the Turkish participants is 32.1, ranging from 23 to 51. While 71 of the American participants are female, 29 of them are males. Likewise, 67 of the Turkish participants are females whereas 33 of them are males. Table 74 illustrates this information.

Table 74: Participants of the study

<i>Group</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Age</i>			<i>Gender</i>	
		<i>Range</i>		<i>Mean</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
<i>American</i>	100	22	66	42.1	29	71
<i>Turkish</i>	100	23	51	32.1	33	67

2.3.3. MATERIALS

The form of data collection instruments used in this study is an open discourse completion questionnaire which includes two sections. The first section contains questions regarding biographic data which is used to ensure participants match a particular profile for the purpose of the study. The second section includes eight questions aiming to collect data about the pragmatic use of language. The questions include a situation prompt that asks participants to respond by offering an apology. Eight situations were created based on the distribution of three sociopragmatic factors: power of the speaker, social distance between the speaker and the hearer and the degree of imposition.

By administering this open discourse completion questionnaire the study aims to test the pragmatic competence of nonnative English speaking teachers of English. Since pragmatic competence entails both illocutionary and sociolinguistic competences, or both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge of the speakers, this test aims to test both components of pragmatic competence. Kasper and Rose (2002: 95-96) suggests:

When carefully designed, DCTs provide useful information about speakers' *pragmalinguistic* knowledge of the strategies and linguistic forms by which communicative acts can be implemented, and about their *sociopragmatic knowledge* of the context factors under which particular strategic and linguistic choices are appropriate. Whether or not speakers use exactly the same strategies and forms in actual discourse is a different matter, but the questionnaire responses indicate what strategic and linguistic options are consonant with respondents' understanding of L2 pragmatic norms and what context factors influence their choices.

Thus, the specific purposes of this given test are to analyze the pragmalinguistic repertoire of NNESTs and to establish their knowledge about sociopragmatic factors. Since all the elicitation techniques could show some differences from actual discourse, our concern here is not to evaluate "actual performance" of NNESTs but rather their knowledge. There are studies which found only a small gap between the results of naturally occurring data and the data elicited through discourse completion questionnaires (Eisensrein and Bodman, 1993; Beebe and Cummings, 1996; Rintell and Mitchell, 1989, in Beebe and Cummings, 1996). There are also studies (for example, Hartford and Bardovi-Harlig, 1992) that show differences but still support the use of discourse completion questionnaires to explain and interpret the natural data. Therefore, the researcher believes that the responses in this study give hints about how the respondents would act in certain situations in real life.

2.3.4. CODING

Since the aim of the study is to reveal the pragmalinguistic repertoire of non-native English speaking teachers compared to that of native English-speaking teachers, coding the data to analyze the strategies employed by the participants constitutes an important part of this study. The coding practice of such studies began to develop in the 1980's in the early studies on cross-cultural pragmatics. The strategy categorization of Blum-Kulka and Oshtain (1984), for example, is a good example of such studies from the 1980's. The categorization they gave in their article was a work in progress, as they said in their article that they would add to the strategies as fresh data kept on coming from their comprehensive cross-cultural study. This initial categorization was improved as their study was completed in the following years. A much more comprehensive coding schema was presented in Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989). They divided the strategies into the categories of *alerter*, *illocutionary force indicating device*, *intensifier (IFID internal)*, *intensifier (other)*, *taking on responsibility*, *explanation or account*, *offer of repair*, *promise of forbearance*, *distracting from the offence (downgrading)*, which are divided into a total of 27 sub-strategies. On top of that, two of the sub-strategies are also divided into subcategories. For example, a sub-strategy of *taking on responsibility*, *refusal to acknowledge guilt* is divided into three sub-categories: *denial of responsibility*, *blame the hearer*, and *pretend to be offended*. In addition, lexical and phrasal downgraders are divided into the subcategories of *politeness markers*, *understater*, *hedge*, *subjectivizer*, *downtoner*, *cajoler*, *appealer*, and *combinations*.

This comprehensive coding schema was employed in other studies. For example, another comprehensive study of cross-cultural pragmatics (Hudson, Detmer and Brown, 1995) used an updated version of this coding schema. They modified this schema based on their findings in their study. First of all, they grouped the strategies into three major categories of alerters, head acts, and modifications. They put five strategies under alerters, and 17 under head acts. They grouped modifications into downgraders and upgraders, which had seven and five strategies respectively. The

categorization of their study, which is defined as “the most rigorous set of studies of speech act perception and production” (Cohen, 2004: 309) is a very comprehensive and useful tool for coding pragmatic data.

In addition to these major studies in the area, several other cross-cultural studies that investigated apologies were also looked into to see how they coded the data retrieved from the native speakers of American English (Battaineh and Battaineh, 2005; Sachie, 1998; Intachakra, 2004; Hussain and Hammouri, 1998).

The categorization of all these studies were taken into consideration and a coding guide was created (Appendix 4). The categorization of the coding guide created for this study employs the major categorization of Hudson, Detmer and Brown (1995), and thus alerters, strategies in the head act, downgraders and upgraders were set as the major categories. The category of alerters includes six strategies whereas the category of strategies in the head act consists of 27 strategies. In addition, there are eight downgraders and six upgraders. Also, some strategies that exist in the studies mentioned above were coded together since they were considered to be similar. Different studies categorized similar strategies under different names and differentiating strategies based on slight differences would make it difficult for statistical analysis since the number of the times a strategy is used would be lower. That is why some of the similar strategies were grouped together under a single name. For example, *minimizing offense* and *brushing off incident as unimportant* were grouped together. Similarly, different distracting strategies (i.e. *distract with task-oriented remark*, *query precondition*, *appeaser* and *act innocently*) were grouped under *distract*.

A coding sheet, then, was created based on the strategies in the coding guide (Appendix 5). Additionally, the length of speech for each situation was also considered to be important and thus the coding sheet includes that category.

After the coding guide and the coding sheet were prepared, the coding of the data was initiated. Each apology speech act provided by a participant for a given situation

was thoroughly analyzed and the observed strategies were coded on the coding sheet for that participant. For example, “Oh, God! I am so sorry. It’s all my fault.” was coded into the categories of *emotional expression (U2)*, *sorry (S1)*, *intensifier (U1)*, *accepting blame (S16)* and *emphasis (U3)* and put into the coding sheet.

2.3.5. ANALYSIS

After the data was collected, the responses of the participants were thoroughly analyzed and divided into strategies and coded on the coding sheet. Next, all the data in the coding sheet were entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences program, which is often referred to as SPSS. SPSS provided the tools to simply analyze the data to compare the two groups of participants. Some of the data were categorical and the major tool for analysis for that portion of the data was chi-square test for independence. The chi-square test for independence showed the differences between the preferences of two groups in strategy selection. This test also showed number of items used, the chi-square value and the significance. The data also included parametric data such as length of speech in number of words and the number of strategies used by the participants. For this portion of the data, t-test for independent measures was used (for a more detailed description of these procedures see Gravetter and Wallnau, 2005). The data was then interpreted and findings are discussed in chapter 3.

3. STATISTICAL RESULTS

The data collected through a discourse completion questionnaire were analyzed using SPSS software program. In the analysis of categorical data, the chi-square test for independence was used. Categorical data in this study consist of strategy use. The chi-square test was also used to see if there is a difference between the distribution of tokens of strategies used by American and Turkish participants. The data also included portions that could be analyzed with parametric tests. For this purpose, independent-samples t-test was used to compare the mean length of apologies and the average number of strategies and sub-strategies used by the American and Turkish group. The results are listed in tables and graphs for eight situations in the test. The section of each situation gives the results of strategy use in the head act in a table and a graph. Next, the chi-square test for distribution of tokens is given. Then, results of strategy use in each supportive move type are given in tables and graphs. Since the chi-square analysis for each strategy is a two by two cross tabulation, the Yates' correction factor was applied for the tables that included expected frequencies of less than five. The corrected values were put in the tables in italics below the initial values. Each of the tables of strategy use is followed by a table showing the result of chi-square test for the distribution of tokens. Next, a chi-square test for overall strategy distribution is given. Finally, results of t-test for length and number of strategies are given in a table. In addition, for each situation a section giving the results of strategy use narrowed down based on the results of t-test is included. This allows the researcher to see the patterns of apology speech act sets used by American and Turkish participants.

3.1. STRATEGY FRAMEWORK

Table 75 presents the strategies used in the coding and analysis of the data. Initially, Apology strategies were gathered from previous studies (e.g. Blum-Kulka House and Kasper, 1989; Hudson, Detmer and Brown, 1995). Then, after the initial analysis of the data three head act strategies were added to the list because they were evident in the data. These strategies are *pardon*, *atypical action* and *surprise*. In addition, *preparator* was added to alerters and *repetition* was added to upgraders. Then, the

strategy framework presented in table 75 was created and the data were coded based on these strategies.

Table 75: Strategy Framework

Strategy Code	Strategy	Example
S1	Sorry	• I am sorry
S2	Afraid	• I am afraid
S3	Apologize	• I apologize
S4	Forgive	• Forgive me
S5	Excuse	• Excuse me
S6	Account of situation	• I am sorry I had an accident in your car.
S7	Admission of facts, but not responsibility	• I had an accident in your car.
S8	Statement of facts, not responsibility	• Traffic was really bad today.
S9	Offer of repair/reparation	• I'll pay for the damages.
S10	Promise of forbearance	• It will not happen again
S11	Minimize offense/brushing off incident as unimportant	• It's just a minor accident.
S12	Expressing gratitude/Thanking	• Thanks for waiting
S13	Distract: -with task oriented remark -Query precondition -Act innocently -Appeaser	• Let's focus on my data here. • Why don't you get a cup of coffee? • Where were we? • Let me give you a refill for free.
S14	Upgrading of offense	• Those can really hurt.
S15	Requests	• Please, come into my office for your interview.
S16	Accepting blame/self-deficiency/Self-castigation/Self-blame	• How clumsy of me! • I have nothing to excuse my behavior • I did not realize what I was doing
S17	Expression of embarrassment	• Gosh, I am so embarrassed
S18	Justify hearer/Recognizing B as deserving apology	• You deserve an apology
S19	Expressing lack of intent	• It was inadvertent.
S20	Statement / question of dismay	• I don't know what I should do.
S21	Regret	• I regret to tell you ...
S22	Concern for hearer	• Are you OK?
S23	Blaming victim/offending victim	• I would be happier if you could arrange your things more neatly.
S24	Denial	• The other car backed into me, so it was their fault.
S25	Laughing it off /distract with humor	• Is today my lucky day or what?
S26	Atypical action	• I've decided to pursue another career path.
S27	Pardon	• Pardon me
A1	Attention getters	• Excuse me

A2	Surname	• Mr. Smith
A3	First name	• John
A4	Undetermined name	• X
A5	Title/role	• Professor
A6	Preparator	• You are not going to believe what I just did.
D1	Politeness markers	• Please
D2	Subjectivizer	• I suppose...
D3	Hedge	• Somehow
D4	Appealer	• Okay?
D5	Pause filler	• Well
D6	Understater	• A bit
D7	Cajoler	• You know
D8	Surprise	• I can't believe it.
U1	Intensifier	• Very
U2	Emotional expression	• Oh.
U3	Emphasis	• Any type of textual enhancement such as underlying, capitalization, etc.
U4	Expletive	• Damn
U5	Lexical uptoner	• Right away.
U6	Repetition	• I am sorry... I am sorry.

3.2. STRUCTURE OF STRATEGY ANALYSIS

After the data was coded, the analysis was run. Strategies were investigated in each situation. Since there are eight situations in the test, the structure of strategy analysis included strategies in the head act, alerters, downgraders and upgraders for each situation. This structure is shown in table 76.

Table 76: Structure of Strategy Analysis

STRATEGIES					SITUATIONS			
Head Act	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
1	SIS1	SIIS1	SIIS1	SIVS1	SVS1	SVIS1	SVIIS1	SVIIS1
2	SIS2	SIIS2	SIIS2	SIVS2	SVS2	SVIS2	SVIIS2	SVIIS2
3	SIS3	SIIS3	SIIS3	SIVS3	SVS3	SVIS3	SVIIS3	SVIIS3
4	SIS4	SIIS4	SIIS4	SIVS4	SVS4	SVIS4	SVIIS4	SVIIS4
5	SIS5	SIIS5	SIIS5	SIVS5	SVS5	SVIS5	SVIIS5	SVIIS5
6	SIS6	SIIS6	SIIS6	SIVS6	SVS6	SVIS6	SVIIS6	SVIIS6
7	SIS7	SIIS7	SIIS7	SIVS7	SVS7	SVIS7	SVIIS7	SVIIS7
8	SIS8	SIIS8	SIIS8	SIVS8	SVS8	SVIS8	SVIIS8	SVIIS8
9	SIS9	SIIS9	SIIS9	SIVS9	SVS9	SVIS9	SVIIS9	SVIIS9
10	SIS10	SIIS10	SIIS10	SIVS10	SVS10	SVIS10	SVIIS10	SVIIS10
11	SIS11	SIIS11	SIIS11	SIVS11	SVS11	SVIS11	SVIIS11	SVIIS11
12	SIS12	SIIS12	SIIS12	SIVS12	SVS12	SVIS12	SVIIS12	SVIIS12
13	SIS13	SIIS13	SIIS13	SIVS13	SVS13	SVIS13	SVIIS13	SVIIS13
14	SIS14	SIIS14	SIIS14	SIVS14	SVS14	SVIS14	SVIIS14	SVIIS14

15	SIS15	SIIS15	SIIS15	SIVS15	SVS15	SVIS15	SVIIS15	SVIIS15
16	SIS16	SIIS16	SIIS16	SIVS16	SVS16	SVIS16	SVIIS16	SVIIS16
17	SIS17	SIIS17	SIIS17	SIVS17	SVS17	SVIS17	SVIIS17	SVIIS17
18	SIS18	SIIS18	SIIS18	SIVS18	SVS18	SVIS18	SVIIS18	SVIIS18
19	SIS19	SIIS19	SIIS19	SIVS19	SVS19	SVIS19	SVIIS19	SVIIS19
20	SIS20	SIIS20	SIIS20	SIVS20	SVS20	SVIS20	SVIIS20	SVIIS20
21	SIS21	SIIS21	SIIS21	SIVS21	SVS21	SVIS21	SVIIS21	SVIIS21
22	SIS22	SIIS22	SIIS22	SIVS22	SVS22	SVIS22	SVIIS22	SVIIS22
23	SIS23	SIIS23	SIIS23	SIVS23	SVS23	SVIS23	SVIIS23	SVIIS23
24	SIS24	SIIS24	SIIS24	SIVS24	SVS24	SVIS24	SVIIS24	SVIIS24
25	SIS25	SIIS25	SIIS25	SIVS25	SVS25	SVIS25	SVIIS25	SVIIS25
26	SIS26	SIIS26	SIIS26	SIVS26	SVS26	SVIS26	SVIIS26	SVIIS26
27	SIS27	SIIS27	SIIS27	SIVS27	SVS27	SVIS27	SVIIS27	SVIIS27
Alerters								
1	SIA1	IIA1	IIIA1	SIVA1	SVA1	SVIA1	SVIIA1	SVIIA1
2	SIA2	IIA2	IIIA2	SIVA2	SVA2	SVIA2	SVIIA2	SVIIA2
3	SIA3	IIA3	IIIA3	SIVA3	SVA3	SVIA3	SVIIA3	SVIIA3
4	SIA4	IIA4	IIIA4	SIVA4	SVA4	SVIA4	SVIIA4	SVIIA4
5	SIA5	IIA5	IIIA5	SIVA5	SVA5	SVIA5	SVIIA5	SVIIA5
6	SIA6	IIA6	IIIA6	SIVA6	SVA6	SVIA6	SVIIA6	SVIIA6
Downgraders								
1	SID1	IID1	IIID1	SIVD1	SVD1	SVID1	SVIID1	SVIID1
2	SID2	IID2	IIID2	SIVD2	SVD2	SVID2	SVIID2	SVIID2
3	SID3	IID3	IIID3	SIVD3	SVD3	SVID3	SVIID3	SVIID3
4	SID4	IID4	IIID4	SIVD4	SVD4	SVID4	SVIID4	SVIID4
5	SID5	IID5	IIID5	SIVD5	SVD5	SVID5	SVIID5	SVIID5
6	SID6	IID6	IIID6	SIVD6	SVD6	SVID6	SVIID6	SVIID6
7	SID7	IID7	IIID7	SIVD7	SVD7	SVID7	SVIID7	SVIID7
8	SID8	IID8	IIID8	SIVD8	SVD8	SVID8	SVIID8	SVIID8
Upgraders								
1	SIU1	IIU1	IIIU1	SIVU1	SVU1	SVIU1	SVIIU1	SVIIU1
2	SIU2	IIU2	IIIU2	SIVU2	SVU2	SVIU2	SVIIU2	SVIIU2
3	SIU3	IIU3	IIIU3	SIVU3	SVU3	SVIU3	SVIIU3	SVIIU3
4	SIU4	IIU4	IIIU4	SIVU4	SVU4	SVIU4	SVIIU4	SVIIU4
5	SIU5	IIU5	IIIU5	SIVU5	SVU5	SVIU5	SVIIU5	SVIIU5
6	SIU6	IIU6	IIIU6	SIVU6	SVU6	SVIU6	SVIIU6	SVIIU6

In sections 3.3.through 3.10, the results of statistical analyses are presented. Eight sections present results for each situation. Each strategy is investigated both alone and also in combination with other strategies using the chi-square test. As shown in table 76, 47 strategies were used in each situation. Thus, 376 total strategies were analyzed in the statistical procedures. The results of each situation follow.

3.3. SITUATION I: DAMAGED DOCUMENTS

In this section, the results of the statistical analysis for situation I are given. The situation's sociopragmatic design is given in table 77. According to this design, in this situation the power of the speaker, the distance between the speaker and the hearer and the imposition are high. The analysis will compare the strategies in the apologies American and Turkish participants provided.

Table 77: Sociopragmatic design of situation I

<i>Sociopragmatic Design</i>	Power	+	Distance	+	Imposition	+

Situation I:

You are the owner of a private school. A representative of a publication company whom you have not met before is visiting you to introduce new course books. This is the first time a representative from this publication company has visited your school. While looking at the samples the representative brought, you accidentally spill tea on his/her bag and some important documents and sample books are damaged.

Situation I Strategies in the Head Act

Table 78 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for the strategies in the head act.

Table 78: Situation I chi square table for strategies in the head act

	TeacherGroup			Chi-square	df	Sig.
	1	2				
	Count	Count				
SIS1 Sorry	0	0	9	9.424	1	.002*
	1	100	91	7.446		.006*
SIS2 Afraid	0	99	100	1.005	1	.316
	1	1	0	.000		1.000
SIS3 Apologize	0	99	98	.338	1	.561
	1	1	2	.000		1.000
SIS4 Forgive	0	98	98	.000	1	1.000
	1	2	2	.000		1.000
SIS5 Excuse	0	100	98	2.020	1	.155

	1	0	2			
SIS6 Account	0	99	99	.000	1	1.000
	1	1	1	.000		1.000
SIS7 Admission of Facts	0	100	100			
SIS8 Statement of Facts	0	100	99	1.005	1	.316
	1	0	1	.000		1.000
SIS9 Offer of Repair	0	26	64	29.172	1	.000*
	1	74	36			
SIS10 Promise of Forbearance	0	99	100	1.005	1	.316
	1	1	0	.000		1.000
SIS11 Minimizing Offense	0	97	95	.521	1	.470
	1	3	5	.130		.718
SIS12 Gratitude	0	100	100			
SIS13 Distract	0	98	99	.338	1	.561
	1	2	1	.000		1.000
SIS14 Upgrading Offense	0	99	94	3.701	1	.054
	1	1	6	2.369		.124
SIS15 Requests	0	99	98	.338	1	.561
	1	1	2	.000		1.000
SIS16 Accepting Blame	0	75	62	3.916	1	.048*
	1	25	38			
SIS17 Embarrassment	0	99	99	.000	1	1.000
	1	1	1	.000		1.000
SIS18 Justify Hearer	0	100	100			
SIS19 Lack of Intent	0	98	93	2.909	1	.088
	1	2	7	1.862		.172
SIS20 Statement of Dismay	0	72	62	2.261	1	.133
	1	28	38			
SIS21 Regret	0	100	100			
SIS22 Concern for Hearer	0	88	86	.177	1	.674
	1	12	14			
SIS23 Blaming Victim	0	100	100			
SIS24 Denial	0	100	100			
SIS25 Distract with Humor	0	99	96	1.846	1	.174
	1	1	4	.821		.365
SIS26 Atypical Action	0	100	100			
SIS27 Pardon	0	100	96	4.082	1	.043*
	1	0	4	2.296		.130

As could be seen from table 78, participants did not use six of the strategies which are *admission of facts but not responsibility*, *expressing gratitude*, *justifying hearer*, *regret*, *blaming/offending victim*, *atypical action*. Of the ones that were used, four strategies resulted in a significant difference. Among these, *sorry* was employed by

100% of American and 91% of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 9.424, p < .05$. The next strategy that resulted in a significant difference is *offer of repair*, which was used by 74% of American participants whereas only 36% of Turkish participants resorted to using this strategy, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 29.172, p < .05$. Another significant difference occurred in the use of *accepting blame*. This strategy was used by the 25% of American and 38% of Turkish group, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 3.916, p < .05$. Although not commonly used, *pardon* was the final strategy that resulted in a significant difference. While none of the American participants included this strategy in their apologies, four percent of Turkish participants chose to use it, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 4.082, p < .05$. However, when Yates' correction factor was applied, this strategy does not show a significant difference between the groups, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 2.296, p > .05$. Most of the other strategies were minimally used and thus did not result in significant differences. *Afraid* was only used by American group at one percent. Other words of apology, namely *apologize*, *forgive*, *excuse* were all used by two percent of the Turkish group whereas the American groups' percentages are one, two and zero respectively. The strategy of *statement of facts but not responsibility* was only used by one percent of the Turkish group. *Promise of forbearance*, however, was used only by one percent of American participants. Moreover, *minimizing offense* was used by three percent of Americans and five percent of Turks. As the table reveals, *distract* was used by American and Turkish groups at two percent and one percent respectively. *Upgrading of offense* was used by Turkish participants more than Americans where they were five percent more likely to use this strategy. Nevertheless, this difference is not significant. *Request* is another strategy that was minimally used. This strategy was employed only by one percent of American and two percent of Turkish participants. Likewise, *expression of embarrassment* was not commonly preferred by the participants, as there was a one percent equal usage by both groups. The rest of the strategies, *expressing lack of intent*, *statement/question of dismay*, *concern for hearer*, and *distract with humor*, were used by more Turkish participants than Americans, at two and seven; twenty-eight and thirty-eight; twelve and fourteen; and one and four percent, respectively. Graph 1 depicts these results.

Graph 1: Situation I strategies in the head act

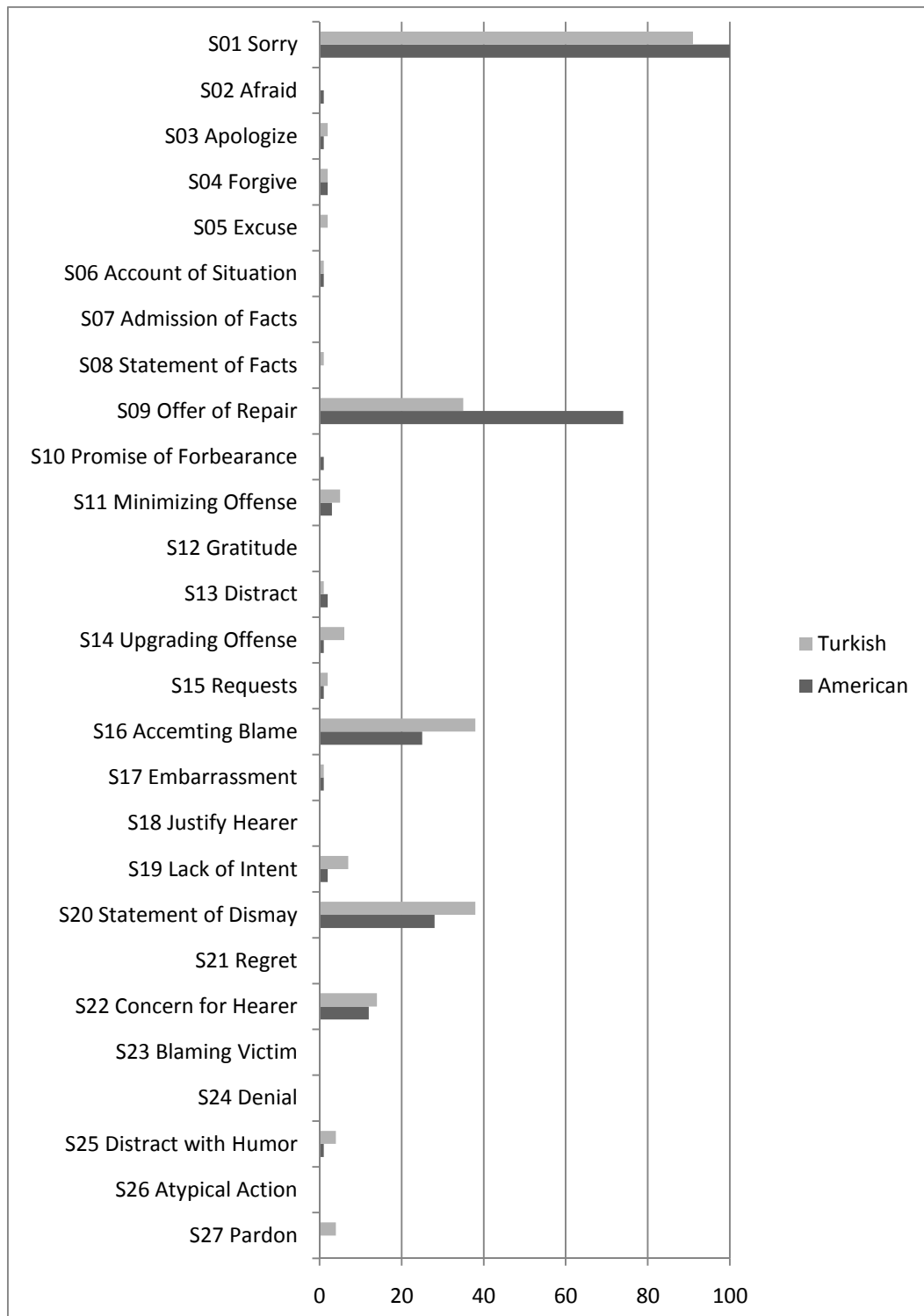


Table 79: Situation I chi-square test of overall distribution of head act strategies

	Value	Df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	36,550	19	,009

Table 79 shows that the overall use of head act strategies by the two groups is significantly different, $\chi^2(19, N = 200) = 36.55, p < .05$.

Situation I Alerters

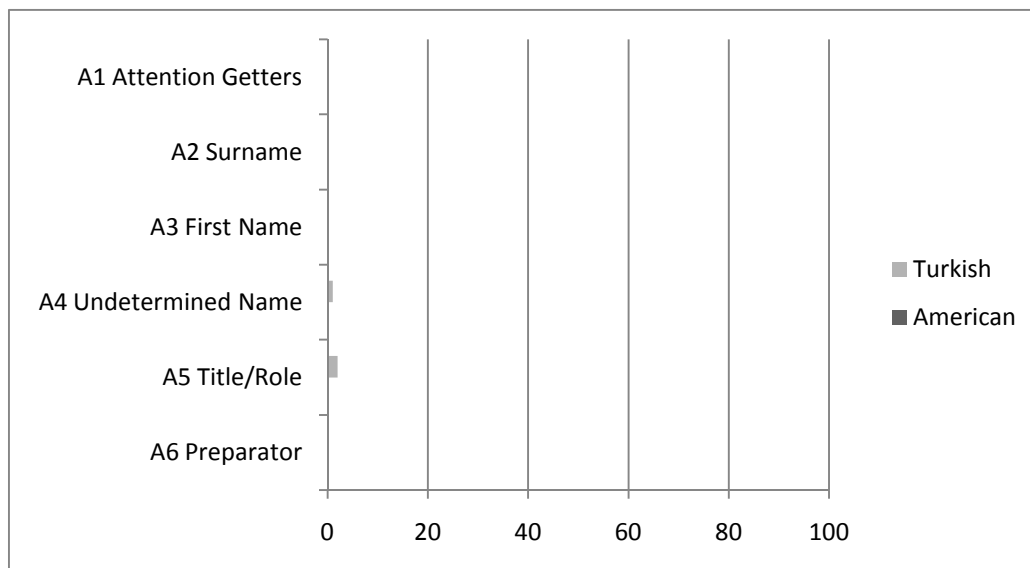
Table 80 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for alerters in situation I.

Table 80: Situation I chi square table for alerters

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1 Count	2 Count			
SIA1 Attent. Getters	0	100	100			
SIA2 Surname	0	100	100			
SIA3 First Name	0	100	100			
SIA4 Undetermined Name	0 1	100 0	99 1	1.005 .000	1	.316 1.000
SIA5 Title / Role	0 1	100 0	98 2	2.020 .505	1	.155 .477
SIA6 Preparator	0	100	100			

Table 79 reveals that four of the six alerters were not employed at all by both groups of participants. These strategies are *attention getters*, *surname*, *first name* and *preparator*. The other two strategies that were used were only used by Turkish participants. *Undetermined name* was used by one percent of them while *title/role* was used by two percent. Graph 2 depicts these results.

Graph 2: Situation I alerters



Situation I Downgraders

Table 81 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for downgraders in situation I.

Table 81: Situation I chi square table for downgraders

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SID1 Politeness Markers	0	87	88	.046	1	.831
	1	13	12			
SID2 Subjectivizer	0	98	94	2.083	1	.149
	1	2	6			
SID3 Hedge	0	97	100	3.046	1	.081
	1	3	0			
SID4 Appealer	0	99	99	.000	1	1.000
	1	1	1			
SID5 Pause Filler	0	99	99	.000	1	1.000
	1	1	1			
SID6 Understater	0	100	100			
SID7 Cajoler	0	100	99	1.005	1	.316
	1	0	1			
SID8 Surprise	0	91	98	4.714	1	.030*
	1	9	2			

Table 81 reveals that participants used strategies other than *understater*. The table also reveals that the only strategy that resulted in a significant difference between the two groups is *surprise*, which was used by nine percent of the American group and only two percent of the Turkish group, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 4.714, p < .05$. Among the remaining strategies, *politeness markers* were used relatively more than others. While 13% of American participants used this strategy, 12% of the Turkish group resort to this strategy. *Subjectivizer*, on the other hand, was used by two percent of the American and six percent of the Turkish group. *Appealer* and *Pause filler* were used equally by the both groups at one percent. As for *hedge*, Turkish participants did not use it at all while three percent of the American group chose to include it in their apologies. Finally, *cajoler* was seen in only one percent of apologies of Turkish participants and not used at all by the Americans. Graph 3 depicts these results.

Graph 3: Situation I downgraders

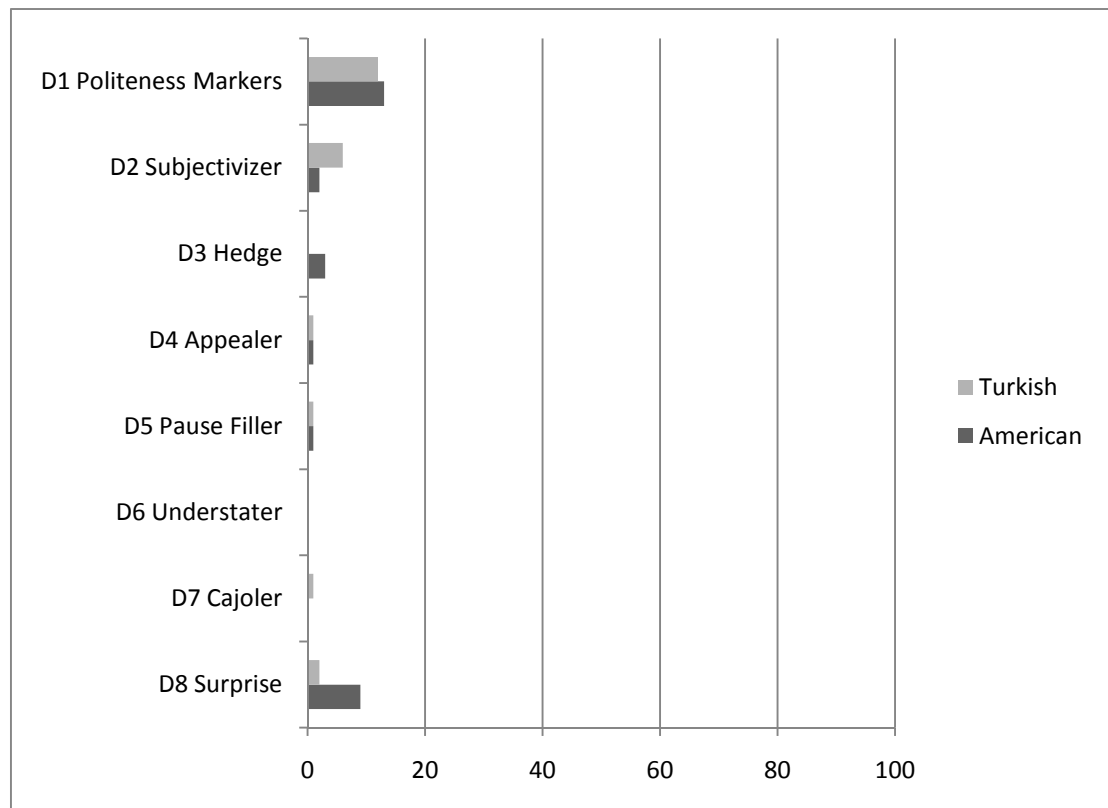


Table 82: Situation I chi-square test of overall distribution of downgraders

	Value	Df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	9,935	6	,127

Table 82 shows that the overall downgrader use by the two groups is not significantly different, $\chi^2(6, N = 200) = 9.935, p > .05$.

Situation I Upgraders

Table 83 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for upgraders in situation I.

Table 83: Situation I chi square table for upgraders

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SIU1 Intensifier	0	9	13	.817	1	.366
	1	91	87			
SIU2 Emotional Expression	0	48	75	15.394	1	.000*
	1	52	25			
SIU3 Emphasis	0	58	84	16.416	1	.000*
	1	42	16			
SIU4 Expletive	0	99	99	.000	1	1.000
	1	1	1			
SIU5 Lexical Uptoner	0	97	100	3.046	1	.081
	1	3	0			
SIU6 Repetition	0	74	92	11.481	1	.001*
	1	26	8			

For situation 1, upgraders were used more commonly than the other two supportive move types, namely alerters and downgraders. The most commonly used type of upgrader is *intensifier*, which was employed by 91% of American and 87% of Turkish participants. Statistical analysis shows that the two groups do not differ in using this strategy. There are three upgraders that resulted in a significant difference. The first one of these is *emotional expression*. The number of American participants who used this strategy is more than twice as much as Turkish participants, 52% of

the former and 25% of the latter using it. This difference resulted in a very strong significance with a probability value of .000, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 15.394, p < .05$ The second upgrader that resulted in a significant difference between the groups is *emphasis*. While 42% of American participants used this strategy, 16% of the Turkish group employed it, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 16.416, p < .05$. The final strategy that yielded a significant difference is *repetition*. Americans chose to include this strategy in their apology more than Turks, as %26 and six percent respective values suggest, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 11.481, p < .05$. Two of the upgraders, on the other hand, were uncommon in the apologies of the participants. Between these, *expletive* was equally used, by only one participant on each side. The other of these, *lexical up-toner* was used by three percent of the Americans and none of the Turks, which indicates an insignificant difference. Graph 4 depicts these results.

Graph 4: Situation I upgraders

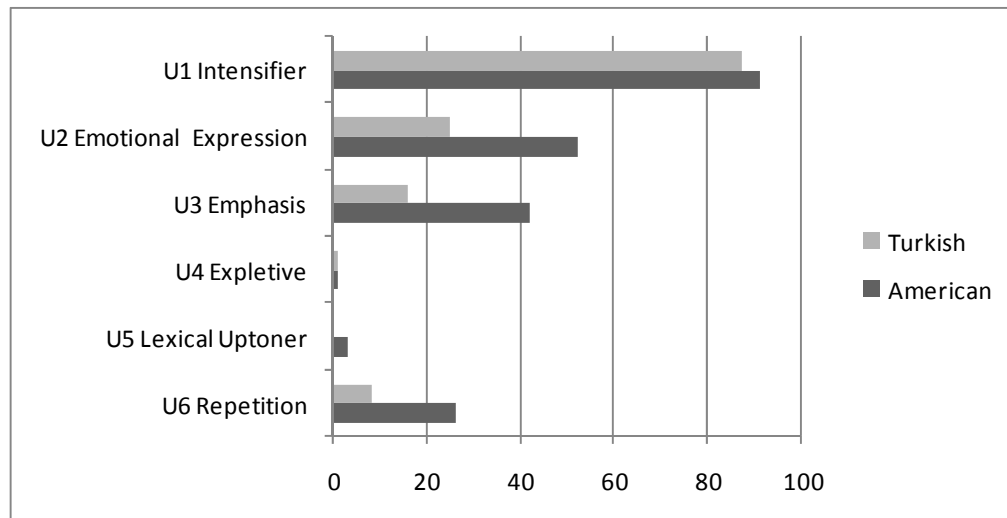


Table 84: Situation I chi-square test of overall distribution of upgraders

	Value	Df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	17,308	5	,004

Table 84 shows that the overall upgrader use by the two groups is significantly independent, $\chi^2(5, N = 200) = 17.308, p < .05$.

Situation I Overall

Overall distribution of tokens across all the strategies in four categories is shown in table 85.

Table 85: Situation I chi-square test of overall strategy distribution

	Value	Df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	77,079	34	,000

The overall strategy use including head act strategies, alerters, downgraders and upgraders by the two groups is significantly independent, $\chi^2(34, N = 200) = 77.079$, $p < .05$.

Situation I T-tests

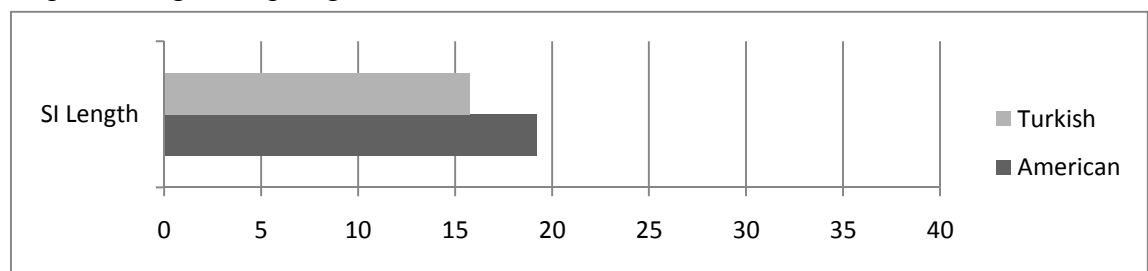
Table 86 shows the results of independent-samples t-test for the length of apologies and the number of strategies.

Table 86: T-tests for situation I

	TeacherGroup	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Df	t	Sig.
SILENGTH	1	100	19,1800	10,48364	198	2,637	,009*
	2	100	15,7400	7,76501			
SITotNumStr	1	100	5,0100	1,71444	198	3,717	,000*
	2	100	4,1800	1,43111			
SINumberS	1	100	2,5600	,94623	198	,075	,941
	2	100	2,5500	,94682			
SITotNumSup	1	100	2,4400	1,25786	198	5,160	,000*
	2	100	1,6300	,93911			
SINumAlert	1	100	,0000	,00000	198	-1,750	,082
	2	100	,0300	,17145			
SINumDown	1	100	,2900	,47768	198	,897	,371
	2	100	,2300	,46829			
SINumUp	1	100	2,1500	1,08595	198	5,917	,000*
	2	100	1,3700	,74745			

According to the results of the *t*-test analysis as shown in table 86, the mean values of the length of the participants are statistically different. In other words, the length of the apologies provided by American participants ($M = 19.18$, $SD = 10.48$) is significantly longer than that those of Turkish participants ($M = 19.18$, $SD = 10.48$). Thus, the difference is significant, $t(198) = 2.63$, $p = .009$, $p < .05$. Graph 5 depicts this result.

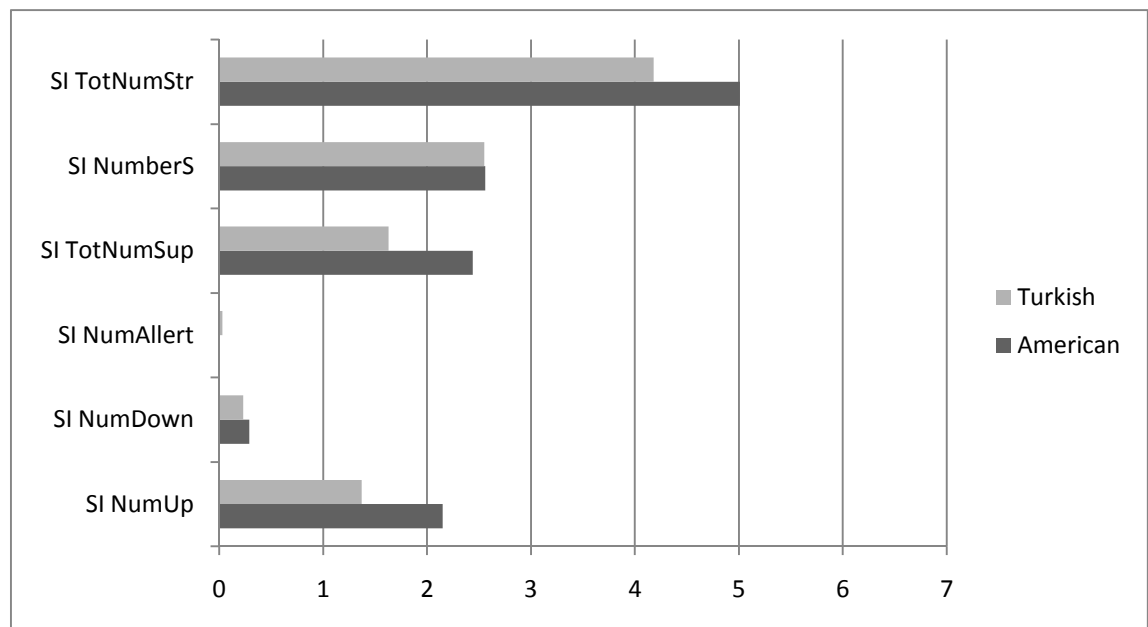
Graph 5: Length of apologies in situation I



When we look at the *t*-test results of the mean values of the numbers of strategies used by the groups, we could see significant differences in three values. The first one is the total number of strategies including head act strategies and supportive moves. The average number of strategies used by the American group ($M = 5.01$, $SD = 1.71$) is higher than the Turkish group ($M = 4.18$, $SD = 1.43$), indicating a strong significant difference, $t(198) = 3.71$, $p = .000$, $p < .05$. The groups also differed in the total number of supportive moves including alerters, downgraders and upgraders. The American group ($M = 2.44$, $SD = 1.25$) used supportive moves more than the Turkish group ($M = 1.63$, $SD = 0.93$). These values resulted in a strong significant difference, $t(198) = 5.16$, $p = .000$, $p < .05$. The third significant result in *t*-test results occurred in the average number of upgraders. Again, the American group ($M = 2.15$, $SD = 1.08$) used more upgraders than the Turkish group ($M = 1.37$, $SD = .74$), which results in a very strong significant difference, $t(198) = 5.91$, $p = .000$, $p < .05$. When it comes to the number of strategies in the head act, alerters and downgraders, the two groups did not differ. The mean values of strategies in the head act, alerters and downgraders are 2.56, .00, and .29 for the American group. For the

Turkish group these values are 2.55, .03, and .23. Graph 6 depicts these results. Graph 6 depicts these results.

Graph 6: Number of strategies in situation I



3.3.1. ANALYSIS OF COMMON STRATEGIES IN SITUATION I

T-test results of situation I show us that the average number of strategies used by Americans participants is around five and for Turkish participants is around four. Looking at the average numbers of strategies and supportive moves, it could be said that the apology acts of American participants consist of *sorry*, *offer of repair*, *statement/question of dismay*, *intensifier* and *emotional expression*. The apology acts offered by Turkish participants, however, are composed of *sorry*, *accepting blame*, *statement/question of dismay* and *intensifier*.

Five Common Strategies in American Participants' Acts

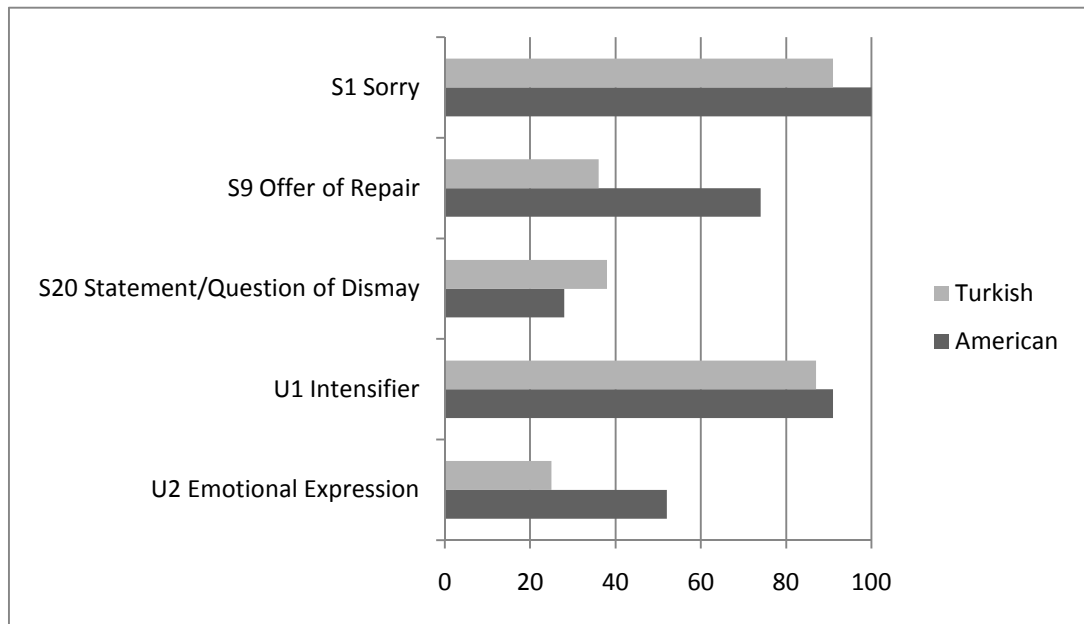
Table 87 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for five common strategies in American participants' apologies in situation I.

Table 87: Common strategies by American participants in Situation I

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SIS1 Sorry	0	0	9	9.424	1	.002*
	1	100	91	7.446		.006*
SIS9 Offer of Repair	0	26	64	29.172	1	.000*
	1	74	36			
SIS20 Statement of Dismay	0	72	62	2.261	1	.133
	1	28	38			
SIU1 Intensifier	0	9	13	.817	1	.366
	1	91	87			
SIU2 Emotional Expression	0	48	75	15.394	1	.000*
	1	52	25			

As is in table 86, American participants differed from Turkish participants in three of the five strategies they commonly used. Those are *sorry*, *offer of repair* and *emotional expression*. All American participants used *sorry*, which was used by 91% of Turkish participants. There is a significant difference in this strategy, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 9.424, p < .05$. *Offer of repair* is another strategy that resulted in a very significant difference. American participants used this strategy more than twice as much as Turkish participants. More specifically, 74% of American and 36% of Turkish participants used it, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 29.172, p < .05$. Another significant difference in these common strategies occurred in upgraders. American participants, again, used *emotional expression* more than twice as much as Turkish participants. While 52% of American participants used *emotional expression*, only 25% of Turkish participants employed it, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 15.394, p < .05$. The other two common strategies in the American participants' apology acts, *statement of dismay* and *intensifier* did not result in a significant difference. Twenty-five percent of American participants resorted to *statement/question of dismay*, which was used by 38% of Turkish participants. On the other hand, *intensifier* was used by 91% of American group while 87% of Turkish participants used it. Graph 07 depicts these results.

Graph 7: Common strategies by American participants in Situation I



Four Common Strategies in Turkish Participants' Acts

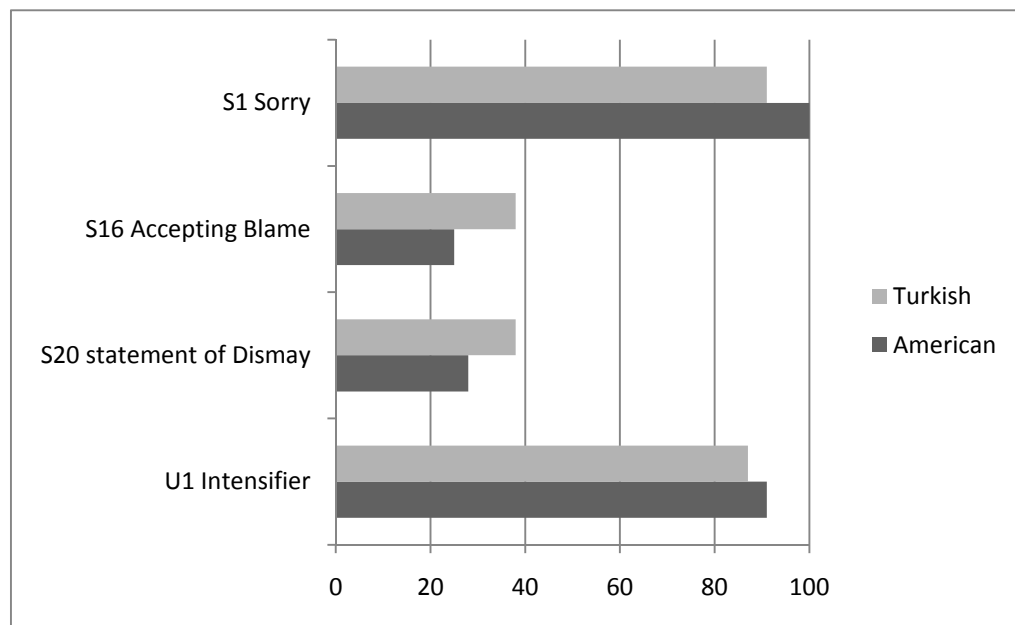
Table 88 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for four common strategies in Turkish participants' apologies.

Table 88: Common strategies by Turkish participants in Situation I

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SIS1 Sorry	0	0	9	9.424	1	.002*
	1	100	91	7.446		.006*
SIS16 Accepting Blame	0	75	62	3.916	1	.048*
	1	25	38			
SIS20 Statement of Dismay	0	72	62	2.261	1	.133
	1	28	38			
SIU1 Intensifier	0	9	13	.817	1	.366
	1	91	87			

Four common strategies Turkish participants' apology acts include three head act strategies and one upgrader. In two of the head act strategies there is a significant difference. As mentioned above, all American participants used *sorry*, which was used by 91% of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 9.424, p < .05$. Moreover, *accepting blame* was used by 25% of American and 38% of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 3.916, p < .05$. The other two strategies, *statement/question of dismay* and *intensifier* did not result in significant differences. While 38% of Turkish participants employed *statement/question of dismay*, only 28% of the American participants did so. As for *intensifier*, 91% of American participants and 87% of Turkish participants resorted to it. Graph 8 depicts these results.

Graph 8: Common strategies by Turkish participants in Situation I



3.4. SITUATION II: CAR ACCIDENT

In this section, the results of the statistical analysis for situation II are given. The situation's sociopragmatic design is given in table 89. In this situation the power of the speaker and the imposition are high, the distance between the speaker and the hearer is low.

Situation II:

You are the director of a department store. As you are leaving for the bank, you notice your car has broken down. Since you have to go to the bank, you borrow a car from one of your employees with whom you have good relationship. While you are coming from the bank, you bump into another car and both cars receive some damage. Now you see him/her.

Table 89: Sociopragmatic design of situation II

<i>Sociopragmatic Design</i>	Power	+	Distance	-	Imposition	+

Situation II Strategies in the Head Act

Table 90 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for the strategies in the head act in situation II.

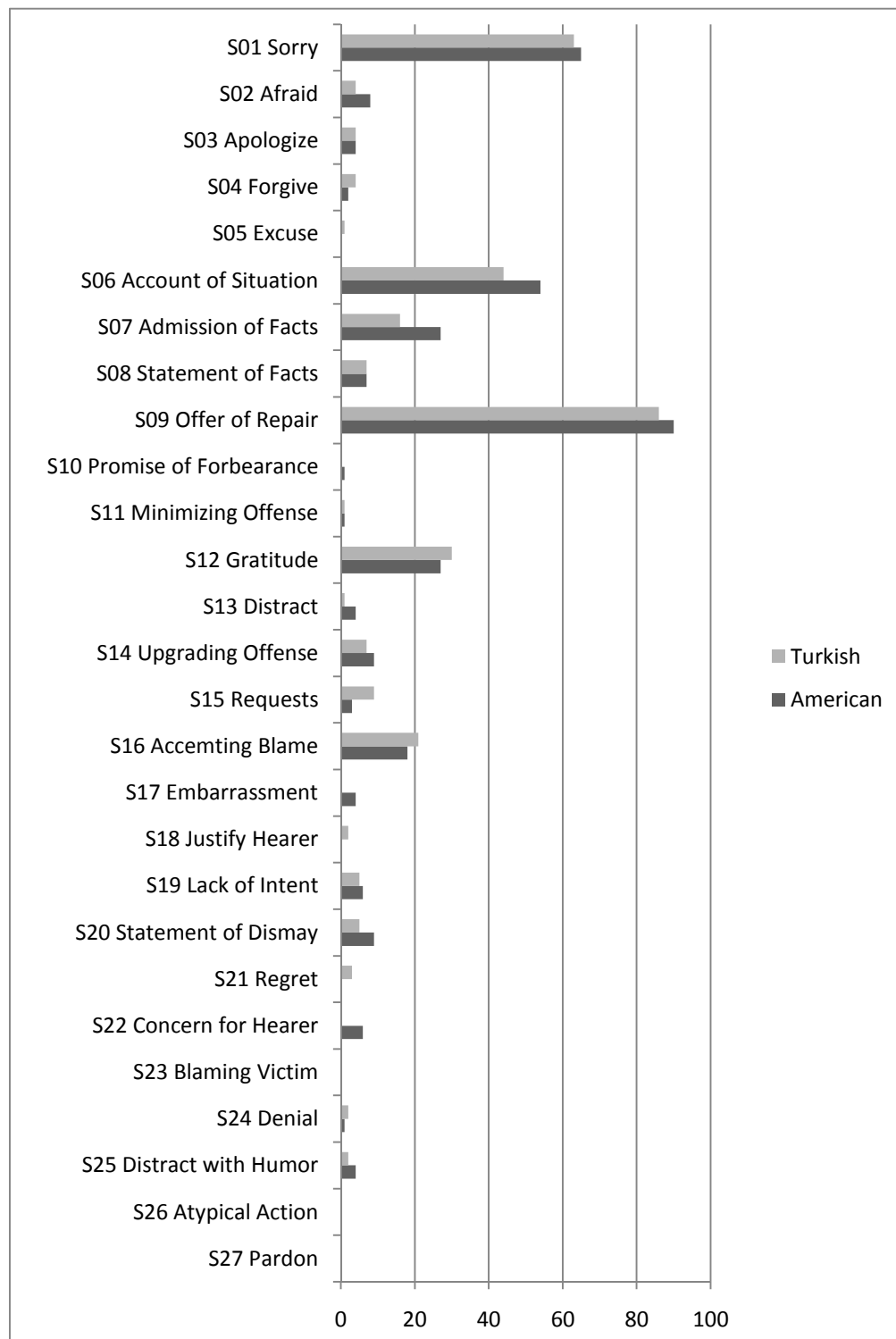
Table 90: Situation II chi square table for strategies in the head act

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SIIS01 Sorry	0	35	37	.087	1	.768
	1	65	63			
SIIS02 Afraid	0	92	96	1.418	1	.234
	1	8	4			
SIIS03 Apologize	0	96	96	.000	1	1.000
	1	4	4			
SIIS04 Forgive	0	98	96	.687	1	.407
	1	2	4			
SIIS05 Excuse	0	100	99	1.005	1	.316

	1	0	1			
SIIS06 Account of Situation	0	46	56	2.001	1	.157
	1	54	44			
SIIS07 Admission of Facts	0	73	84	3.585	1	.058
	1	27	16			
SIIS08 Statement of Facts	0	93	93	.000	1	1.000
	1	7	7			
SIIS09 Offer of Repair	0	10	14	.758	1	.384
	1	90	86			
SIIS10 Promise of Forbearance	0	99	99	.000	1	1.000
	1	1	1	.000		1.000
SIIS11 Minimizing Offense	0	73	70	.221	1	.638
	1	27	30			
SIIS12 Gratitude	0	97	100	3.046	1	.081
	1	3	0	1.354		.245
SIIS13 Distract	0	96	99	1.846	1	.174
	1	4	1	.821		.365
SIIS14 Upgrading Offense	0	91	93	.272	1	.602
	1	9	7			
SIIS15 Request	0	97	91	3.191	1	.074
	1	3	9			
SIIS16 Accepting Blame	0	82	79	.287	1	.592
	1	18	21			
SIIS17 Embarrassment	0	96	100	4.082	1	.043*
	1	4	0	2.296		.130
SIIS18 Justify Hearer	0	100	98	2.020	1	.155
	1	0	2	.505		.477
SIIS19 Lack of Intent	0	94	95	.096	1	.756
	1	6	5			
SIIS20 Statement of Dismay	0	91	95	1.229	1	.268
	1	9	5			
SIIS21 Regret	0	100	97	3.046	1	.081
	1	0	3	1.354		.245
SIIS22 Concern for Hearer	0	94	100	6.186	1	.013*
	1	6	0	4.296		.038*
SIIS23 Blaming Victim	0	100	100			
SIIS24 Denial	0	99	98	.338	1	.561
	1	1	2	.000		1.000
SIIS25 Distract with Humor	0	96	98	.687	1	.407
	1	4	2	.172		.678
SIIS26 Atypical Action	0	100	100			
SIIS27 Pardon	0	100	100			

Table 90 reveals that the participants did not use three of the strategies, which are *blaming victim*, *atypical action* and *pardon*. Of the ones that were used, two strategies resulted in a significant difference. Between these, *expression of embarrassment* was employed by four percent of American and none of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 4.082, p < .05$. With Yates' correction, *expression of embarrassment* does not show a significant difference, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 2.296, p > .05$. The other strategy that resulted in a significant difference is *concern for hearer*, as it was used by six percent of American participants but none of the Turkish participants resorted to using this strategy, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 6.186, p < .05$. Among the rest of the strategies, which did not result in significant differences, *sorry*, *account of situation*, *admission of facts but not responsibility*, *offer of repair*, *minimizing offense*, and *accepting blame* were used relatively more than the other strategies. *Sorry* was used by 65% of the American and 63% of the Turkish group. *Account of situation* was used by 54% of American and 44% of Turkish participants. As for *admission of facts but not responsibility*, it was employed by 27% of American and 16% of Turkish participants. The next and the most common head act strategy in this situation was *offer of repair*. Ninety percent of American and 86% of Turkish participants resorted to using this strategy in their apology acts. *Minimizing offense* and *accepting blame* are other two strategies that were more commonly used. Twenty-seven percent of the American and 30% of the Turkish group employed it. Furthermore, *accepting blame* was used by 18% of American and 21% of Turkish participants. Again, none of these more commonly used strategies in this situation resulted in a significant difference. Most of the other strategies were minimally used and thus did not result in significant differences. For example, *afraid* was only used by eight percent of the American and four percent of the Turkish group. Similarly, *apologize* and *forgive* were used by four percent of the Turkish group whereas American group used them four percent and two percent respectively. In addition, *excuse* was only used by one percent of Turkish and none of American participants. The strategies of *statement of facts but not responsibility* and *promise of forbearance* were equally used by the both groups with the respective usages at seven percent and one percent. Moreover, *expressing gratitude*, was used

Graph 9: Situation II strategies in the head act



by three percent of the American participants only. As the table reveals, *distract* was used by four percent of the American and one percent of the Turkish group. As for

upgrading of offense, nine percent of American and seven percent of Turkish participants used it. Although *request* was used by Turkish participants more than Americans, the difference is not significant. *Justifying hearer* is another strategy that was minimally used. This strategy was employed only by two percent of Turks and none of Americans. *Expressing lack of intent* and *statement/question of dismay* were used by five percent of Turkish participants. The same strategies were used by six and nine percent of American participants, respectively. American participants did not use *regret* while three percent of the Turkish group did so. Also, two percent of the Turkish group used *denial* and *distract with humor* while one percent of the American group used *denial* and four percent of them used *distract with humor*. Graph 9 depicts these results.

Table 91: Situation II chi-square test of overall distribution of head act strategies

	Value	Df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	30,882	23	,126

Table 91 above shows that the overall use of head act strategies by the two groups is not significantly different, $\chi^2(23, N = 200) = 30.882, p > .05$.

Situation II Alerters

Table 92 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for alerters in situation II.

Table 92: Situation II chi square table for alerters

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SIIA1 Attention Getter	0	91	93	.272	1	.602
	1	9	7			
SIIA2 Surname	0	99	100	1.005 .000	1	.316 1.000
	1	1	0			

SIIA3 First Name	0	90	95	1.802	1	.179
	1	10	5			
SIIA4 Undetermined Name	0	93	98	2.909	1	.088
	1	7	2			
SIIA5 Title/Role	0	100	99	1.005	1	.316
	1	0	1			
SIIA6 Preparator	0	49	60	2.440	1	.118
	1	51	40			

Table 92 shows that none of the alerters resulted in a significant difference between the two groups. Other than *preparator*, which was used by 51% of American and 40% of Turkish participants, other strategies were not common in participants' responses. Nine percent of American participants used *attention getters* while seven percent of Turkish participants did so. Moreover, *surname* was used by only one percent of American participants. In contrast, ten percent of the American group used *first name* while only five percent of the Turkish group did so. Likewise, American participants used *undetermined name* more than Turkish participants, as seven percent and two percent respective values suggest. Finally, *title/role* was used by only one percent of Turkish participants. Graph 10 depicts these results.

Graph 10: Situation II alerters

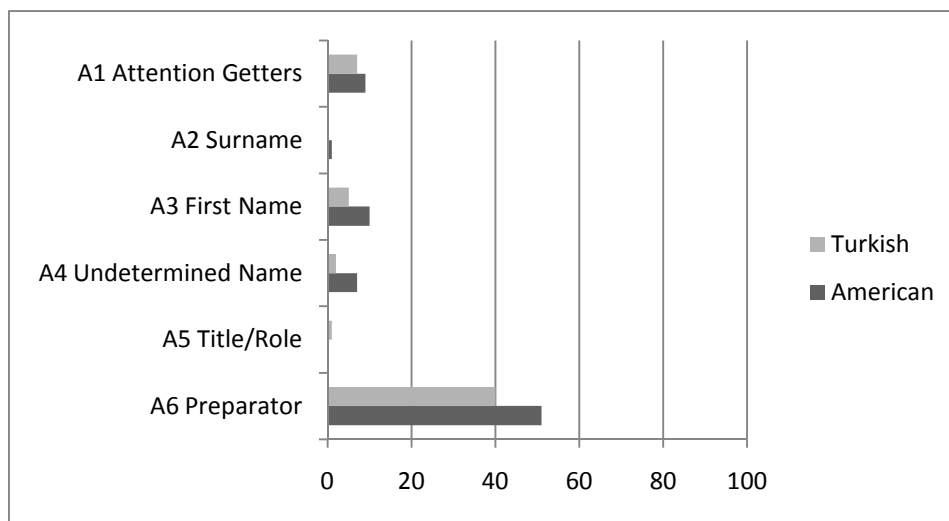


Table 93: Situation II chi-square test of overall distribution of alerters

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	4,171	5	,525

Table 93 shows that the overall alerter use by the two groups is not significantly different, $\chi^2(5, N = 200) = 4.171, p > .05$.

Situation II Downgraders

Table 94 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for downgraders in situation II.

Table 94: Situation II chi square table for downgraders

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SIID1 Politeness Marker	0	95	88	3.150	1	.076
	1	5	12			
SIID2 Subjectivizer	0	96	94	.421	1	.516
	1	4	6			
SIID3 Hedge	0	99	99	.000	1	1.000
	1	1	1			
SIID4 Appealer	0	98	99	.338	1	.561
	1	2	1			
SIID5 Pause Filler	0	95	92	.740	1	.390
	1	5	8			
SIID6 Understater	0	54	90	32.143	1	.000*
	1	46	10			
SIID7 Cajoler	0	98	98	.000	1	1.000
	1	2	2			
SIID8 Surprise	0	90	98	5.674	1	.017*
	1	10	2			

According to table 94, two of the downgraders that resulted in a significant difference are *understater* and *surprise*. While 46% of the American participants used *understater*, only 10% of the Turkish participants employed it, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 32.143, p < .05$. On the other hand, *surprise*, was used by ten percent of American and two percent of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 5.674, p < .05$. *Hedge* and *cajoler* were equally used by both groups. *Hedge* was used by one percent and *cajoler* was used by two percent of American and Turkish participants. Among the rest of the downgraders, *politeness markers* were used by five percent of American and 12% of Turkish participants. Next, *subjectivizer* was used by four percent of American and six percent of Turkish participants. As for *appealer*, two percent of the American and only one percent of the Turkish group used it. Finally, five percent of American participants and eight of Turkish participants used *pause filler*. Graph 11 depicts these results.

Graph 11: Situation II downgraders

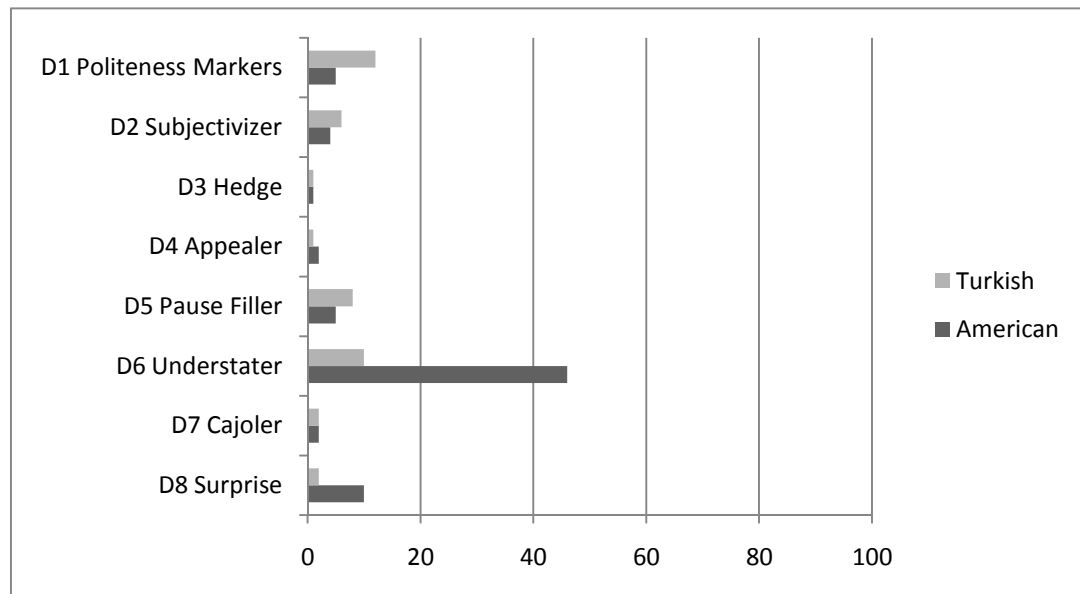


Table 95: Situation II chi-square test of overall distribution of downgraders

	Value	Df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	25,506	7	,001

Table 95 above shows that the overall downgrader use by the two groups is significantly independent, $\chi^2(7, N = 200) = 25.506, p < .05$.

Situation II Upgraders

Table 96 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for upgraders in situation II.

Table 96: Situation II chi square table for upgraders

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SIIU1 Intensifier	0	47	57	2.003	1	.157
	1	53	43			
SIIU2 Emotional Expression	0	91	98	4.714	1	.030*
	1	9	2			
SIIU3 Emphasis	0	86	91	1.228	1	.268
	1	14	9			
SIIU4 Expletive	0	100	100	.740	1	.390
SIIU5 Lexical Uptoner	0	92	95			
	1	8	5	2.240	1	.134
SIIU6 Repetition	0	84	91			
	1	16	9			

According to table 96, although *emotional expression* was the least common strategy, it was the only one that resulted in a significant result. While nine percent of American participants used this strategy, only two percent of Turkish participants resorted to it, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 4.714, p < .05$. As in situation 1, *intensifier* is the most

common upgrader in situation 2. Fifty-three percent of American and 43% of Turkish participants used this strategy. In contrast, *expletive* was not used at all. American participants used the other three upgraders, namely *emphasis*, *lexical uptoner* and *repetition* more than Turkish participants. For example, *emphasis* was used by 14% of American and nine percent of Turkish participants while *lexical uptoner* was used by eight percent of American and five percent of Turkish participants. Furthermore, *repetition* was used by 16% of American participants while only nine percent of Turkish participants did so. Graph 12 depicts these results.

Graph 12: Situation II upgraders

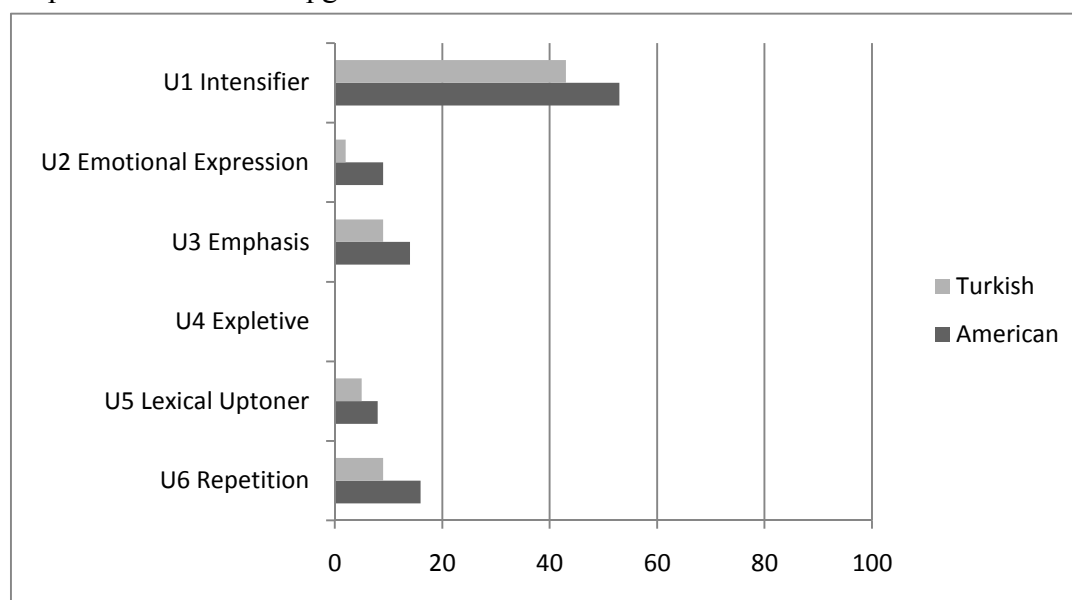


Table 97: Situation II chi-square test of overall distribution of upgraders

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	3,258	4	,516

Table 97 shows that the overall upgrader use by the two groups is not significantly different, $\chi^2(4, N = 200) = 3.258, p > .05$.

Situation II Overall

Overall distribution of tokens across all the strategies in four categories in situation II is shown in table 98.

Table 98: Situation II chi-square test of overall strategy distribution

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	69,646	42	,005

The overall strategy use by the two groups is significantly different, $\chi^2(42, N = 200) = 69.646, p < .05$.

Situation II T-tests

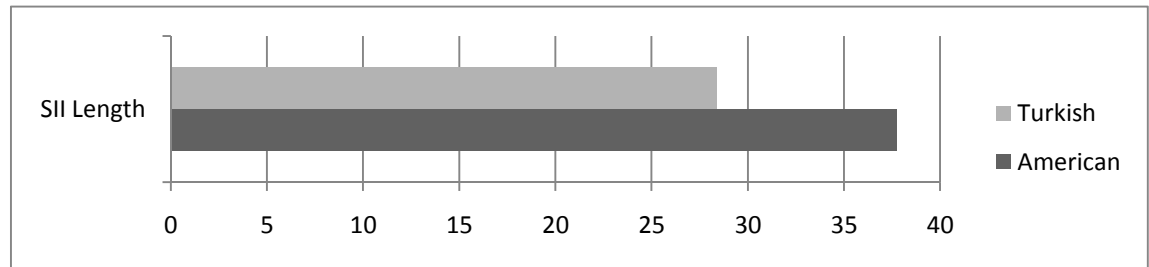
Table 99 shows the results of independent-samples t-test for the length of the apologies and the number of strategies in situation II.

Table 99: T-tests for situation II

	TeacherGroup	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	df	t	Sig.
SIILENGTH	1	100	37,7300	20,35139	198	3,760	,000*
	2	100	28,3900	14,24454			
SIITotNumStr	1	100	6,050	2,5121	198	3,986	,000*
	2	100	4,810	1,8351			
SIINumberS	1	100	3,5300	1,40314	198	2,018	,045*
	2	100	3,1700	1,10147			
SIITotNumSup	1	100	2,5200	1,45976	198	4,454	,000*
	2	100	1,6500	1,29782			
SIINumAlert	1	100	,7700	,70861	198	2,229	,027*
	2	100	,5500	,68718			
SIINumDown	1	100	,7400	,74698	198	3,291	,001*
	2	100	,4200	,62247			
SIINumUp	1	100	1,0300	,97913	198	2,765	,006*
	2	100	,6800	,80252			

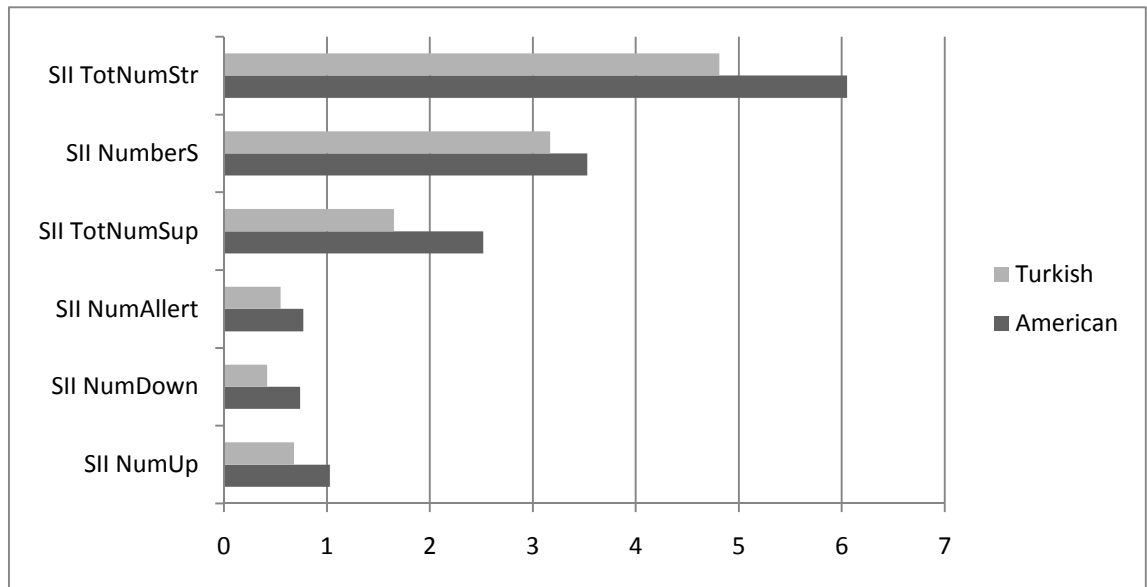
According to the results of the *t*-test analysis, the length of the apologies provided by American participants ($M = 37.73$, $SD = 20.35$) is longer than those of Turkish participants ($M = 28.39$, $SD = 14.24$). This difference is significant, $t(198) = 3.76$, $p = .000$, $p < .05$. Graph 13 depicts this result.

Graph 13: Length of apologies in situation II



When looking at the *t*-test results of the mean values of the numbers of strategies used by the groups, a significant difference in all of the values is seen. The first value is the total number of strategies including head act strategies and supportive moves. Firstly, the American group ($M = 6.05$, $SD = 2.51$) used more strategies than the Turkish group ($M = 4.81$, $SD = 1.83$), indicating a significant difference, $t(198) = 3.98$, $p = .000$, $p < .05$. The next value is the mean of strategies in the head act. The average number of the strategies used by the American group ($M = 3.53$, $SD = 1.40$) is higher than the Turkish group ($M = 3.17$, $SD = 1.10$), which resulted in a significant difference, $t(198) = 2.01$, $p = .045$, $p < .05$. As for supportive moves, the American group ($M = 2.52$, $SD = 1.45$) used more supportive moves than the Turkish group ($M = 1.65$, $SD = 1.29$). The difference is significant, $t(198) = 4.45$, $p = .000$, $p < .05$. The differences in the number of each supportive move are significant. The American group ($M = .77$, $SD = .70$) used alerters more than the Turkish group ($M = .55$, $SD = .68$), indicating a significant difference, $t(198) = 2.29$, $p = .027$, $p < .05$. Likewise, the American group ($M = .74$, $SD = .74$) used more downgraders than the Turkish group ($M = .42$, $SD = .62$). This difference is also significant, $t(198) = 3.29$, $p = .001$, $p < .05$. Finally, the average number of upgraders is also more for Americans ($M = 1.03$, $SD = .97$) than Turks ($M = .68$, $SD = .80$), resulting in a significant difference, $t(198) = 2.76$, $p = .006$, $p < .05$. Graph 14 depicts these results.

Graph 14: Number of strategies in situation II



3.4.1. ANALYSIS OF COMMON STRATEGIES IN SITUATION II

T-test results of situation II show us that the average number of strategies used by American participants is around six and Turkish participants is around five. Looking at the average numbers of strategies and supportive moves, the apology acts of American participants consist of *sorry*, *account of situation*, *offer of repair*, *preparator*, *understater* and *intensifier*. However, the apology acts offered by Turkish participants are composed of *sorry*, *account of situation*, *offer of repair*, *understater* and *intensifier*.

Six Common Strategies in American Participants' Acts

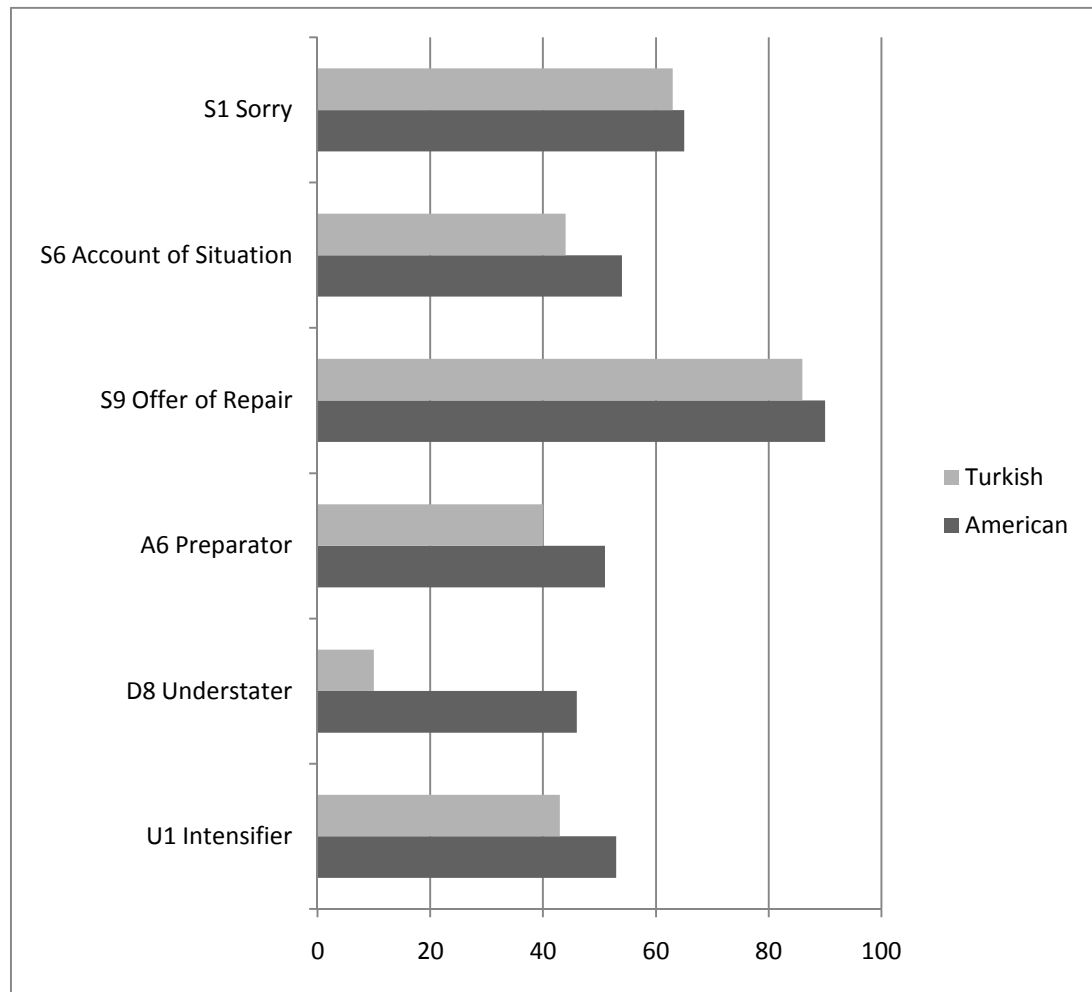
Table 100 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for six common strategies in American participants' apologies in situation II.

Table 100: Common strategies by American participants in Situation II

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SIIS1 Sorry	0	35	37	.087	1	.768
	1	65	63			
SIIS6 Account of Situation	0	46	56	2.001	1	.157
	1	54	44			
SIIS9 Offer of Repair	0	10	14	.758	1	.384
	1	90	86			
SIIA6 Preparator	0	49	60	2.440	1	.118
	1	51	40			
SIID6 Understater	0	54	90	32.143	1	.000*
	1	46	10			
SIIU1 Intensifier	0	47	57	2.003	1	.157
	1	53	43			

As is in table 100, American participants differed from Turkish participants in only one of the six strategies they commonly used, which is *understater*. While 46% of American participants used this strategy, only ten percent of Turkish participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 32.143, p < .05$. American participants used all other commonly used strategies more than Turkish participants. These differences are not significant. First, sixty-five percent of American participants used *sorry*, while 63% of Turkish participants did so. Second, *account of situation* was used by 54% of the American and 44% of the Turkish group. Third, *offer of repair* was the most common strategy, which was used by 90% of American and 86% of Turkish participants. Fourth, *preparatory* was used by 51% of American participants while 40% of Turkish participant did so. Finally, 53% of American and 43% of Turkish participants employed *intensifier*. Graph 15 depicts these results.

Graph 15: Common strategies by American participants in Situation II



Five Common Strategies in Turkish Participants' Acts

Table 101 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for five common strategies in Turkish participants' apologies in situation II.

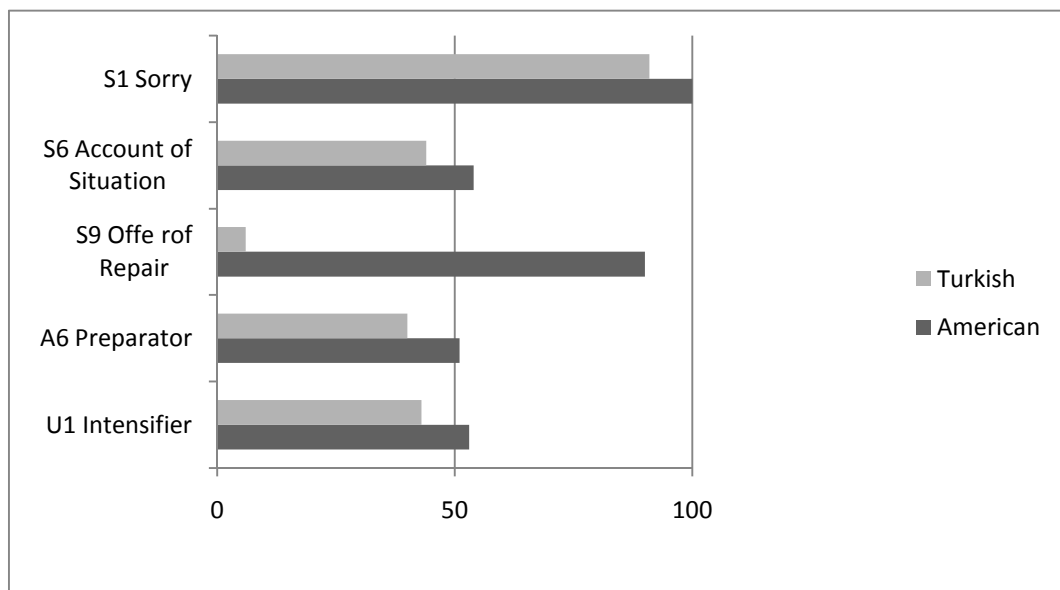
Table 101: Common strategies by Turkish participants in Situation II

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SIIS1 Sorry	0	35	37	.087	1	.768
	1	65	63			
SIIS6 Account of Situation	0	46	56	2.001	1	.157
	1	54	44			

SIIS9 Offer of Repair	0	10	14	.758	1	.384
	1	90	86			
SIIA6 Preparator	0	49	60	2.440	1	.118
	1	51	40			
SIIU1 Intensifier	0	47	57	2.003	1	.157
	1	53	43			

Five common strategies in Turkish participants' apology acts include three head act strategies, one alerter and one upgrader. They are all included in American participants' common strategies. In none of these strategies is there a significant difference. The details of the values are given in the section about the common strategies American participants used in situation II. Graph 16 depicts these results.

Graph 16: Common strategies by Turkish participants in Situation II



3.5. SITUATION III: BURNING CUSTOMER'S HAND

In this section, the results of the statistical analysis for situation III are given. The situation's sociopragmatic design is given in table 102. In this situation the power of the speaker is low, the distance between the speaker and the hearer and the imposition are high.

Situation III:

You work in a coffee shop. You give a cup of coffee to a customer. Because you fail to put the cap on correctly, it spills on him/her and burns his/her hand.

Table 102: Sociopragmatic design of situation III

<i>Sociopragmatic Design</i>	Power	- Distance	+ Imposition	+

Situation III Strategies in the Head Act

Table 103 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for the strategies in the head act in situation III.

Table 103: Situation III chi square table for strategies in the head act

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SIIS1 Sorry	0	21	17	.520	1	.471
	1	79	83			
SIIS2 Afraid	0	100	100	4.031	1	.045*
	1	3	10			
SIIS4 Forgive	0	100	92	8.333	1	.004*
	1	0	8			
SIIS5 Excuse	0	99	95	2.749	1	.097
	1	1	5			
SIIS6 Account of Situation	0	99	99	.000	1	1.000
	1	1	1			
SIIS7 Admission of Facts	0	100	100			

SIIS8 Statement of Facts	0	98	98	.000	1	1.000
	1	2	2	.000		1.000
SIIS9 Offer of Repair	0	29	41	3.165	1	.075
	1	71	59			
SIIS10 Promise of Forbearance	0	99	99	.000	1	1.000
	1	1	1	.000		1.000
SIIS11 Minimizing Offense	0	100	97	3.046	1	.081
	1	0	3	1.354		.245
SIIS12 Expressing Gratitude	0	100	100			
SIIS13 Distract	0	93	95	.355	1	.552
	1	7	5			
SIIS14 Upgrading Offense	0	97	99	1.020	1	.312
	1	3	1	.255		.614
SIIS15 Request	0	100	94	6.186	1	.013*
	1	0	6	4.296		.038*
SIIS16 Accepting Blame	0	82	62	9.921	1	.002*
	1	18	38			
SIIS17 Expression of Embarrassment	0	100	99	1.005	1	.316
	1	0	1	.000		1.000
SIIS18 Justifying Hearer	0	100	99	1.005	1	.316
	1	0	1	.000		1.000
SIIS19 Lack of Intent	0	98	95	1.332	1	.248
	1	2	5	.592		.442
SIIS20 Statement of Dismay	0	80	85	.866	1	.352
	1	20	15			
SIIS21 Regret	0	100	100			
SIIS22 Concern for Hearer	0	46	85	33.654	1	.000*
	1	54	15			
SIIS23 Blaming Victim	0	100	100			
SIIS24 Denial	0	99	100	1.005	1	.316
	1	1	0	.000		1.000
SIIS25 Distract with Humor	0	100	100			
SIIS26 Atypical Action	0	100	99	1.005	1	.316
	1	0	1	.000		1.000
SIIS27 Pardon	0	100	96	4.082	1	.043*
	1	0	4	2.296		.130

As table 103 reveals, the participants did not use six of the strategies, including *afraid*, *admission of facts but not responsibility*, *expressing gratitude*, *regret*, *blaming victim* and *distract with humor*. Six others resulted in significant differences between the two groups. The first one of these is *apologize*. Ten percent of Turkish participants used this strategy while only three percent of American participants did

so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 4.031, p < .05$. Similarly, eight percent of the Turkish group employed *forgive*, which was not used by the American group, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 8.333, p < .05$. Likewise, *request* was only used by eight percent of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 6.186, p < .05$. The next strategy that resulted in a significant difference is *accepting blame*. While 38% of Turkish participants used this strategy, only 18% of American participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 9.921, p < .05$. This is just the opposite in the use of *concern for hearer*, where 54% of American participants and 15% of Turkish participants used this strategy, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 33.654, p < .05$. The last strategy that resulted in a significant difference is *pardon*, which was used only by four percent of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 4.082, p < .05$. When Yates' correction factor is applied, this strategy shows no difference, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 2.296, p > .05$. Among the strategies that did not result in a significant difference, three of them were equally used by the both groups. One percent of Americans and Turks used *account of situation*, two percent used *statement of facts but not responsibility* and one percent used *promise of forbearance*. *Denial* was used only by one percent of the American group. Four strategies, on the other hand, were only used by Turkish participants: three percent of Turks used *minimizing offense* and one percent used *expressing embarrassment*, *justifying hearer* and *atypical action*. Of the remaining seven strategies, three strategies were more commonly used. The first one is *sorry*, which was used by 79% of American and 83% of Turkish participants. The second one is *offer of repair* where 71% percent of American and 59% of Turkish participants resorted to it. Third, *statement/question of dismay* was used by 20% of American and 15% of Turkish participants. As for the remaining strategies, five percent of Turkish participants used *excuse* and *expressing lack of intent*, which were used by one percent and two percent of American participants, respectively. Furthermore, *distract* was used by seven percent of American participants, while five percent of Turkish participants did so. The final strategy is *upgrading of offense*. Three percent of American and one percent of Turkish participants employed this strategy in their apology acts. Graph 17 depicts these results.

Graph 17: Situation III strategies in the head act

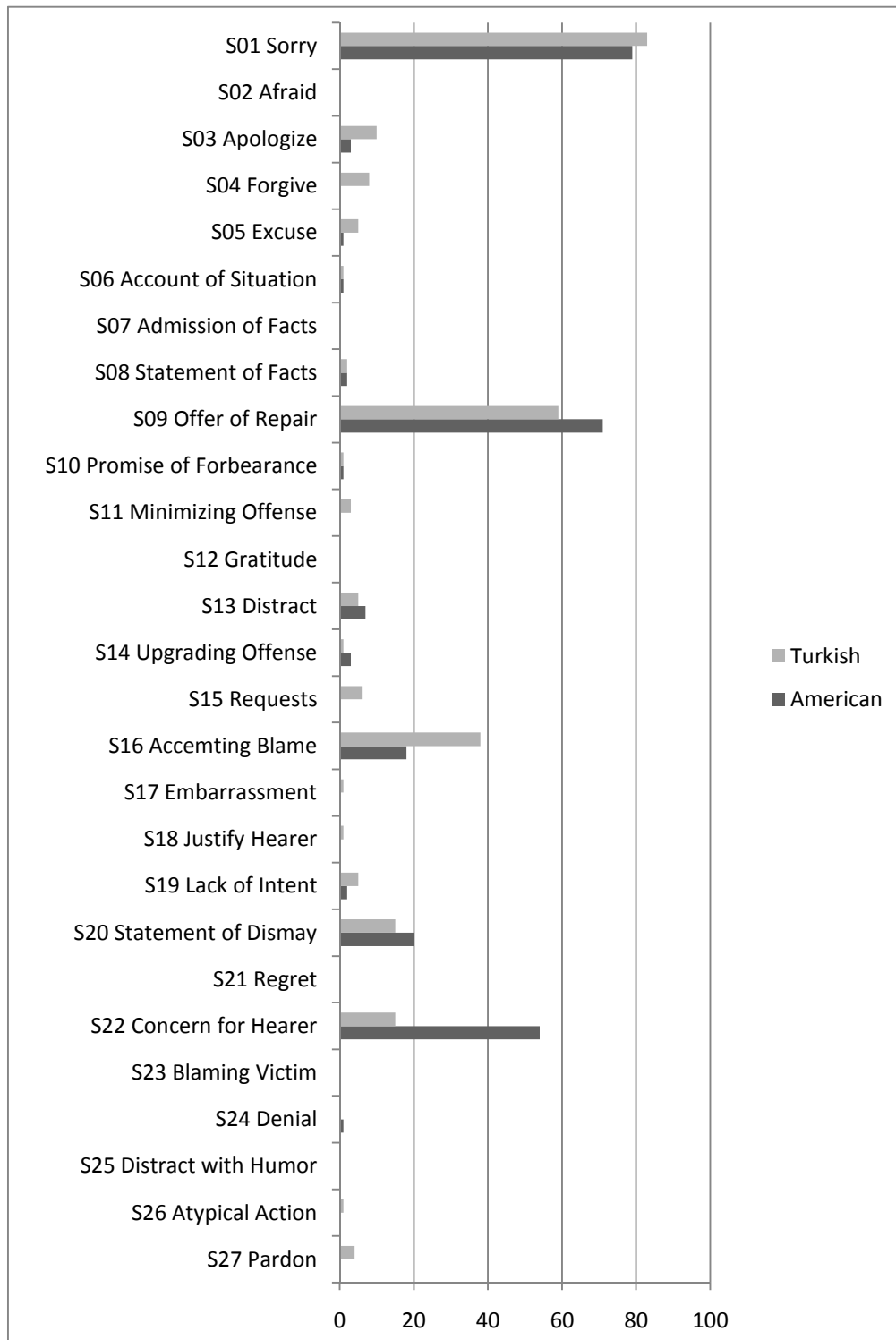


Table 104: Situation III chi-square test of overall distribution of head act strategies

	Value	Df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	65,160	20	,000

Table 104 above shows that the overall use of head act strategies by the two groups is significantly independent, $\chi^2(20, N = 200) = 65.160, p < .05$.

Situation III Alerters

Table 105 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for alerters in situation III.

Table 105: Situation III alerters

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SIIIA1 Attention Getters	0	100	100			
SIIIA2 Surname	0	100	100			
SIIIA3 First Name	0	100	99	1.005	1	.316
	1	0	1	.000		1.000
SIIIA4 Undetermined Name	0	100	100			
SIIIA5 Title/Role	0	94	64	27.125	1	.000*
	1	6	36			
SIIIA6 Preparator	0	100	100			

As seen from in table 104, four of the six alerters were not employed by both groups: *attention getters*, *surname*, *undetermined name*, and *preparator*. First name was only used by one percent of Turkish participants. The only strategy that was commonly used and resulted in a significant difference was *title/role*. While 36% of Turkish participants employed this strategy, only six percent of American participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 27.125, p < .05$. Graph 18 depicts these results.

Graph 18: Situation III alerters

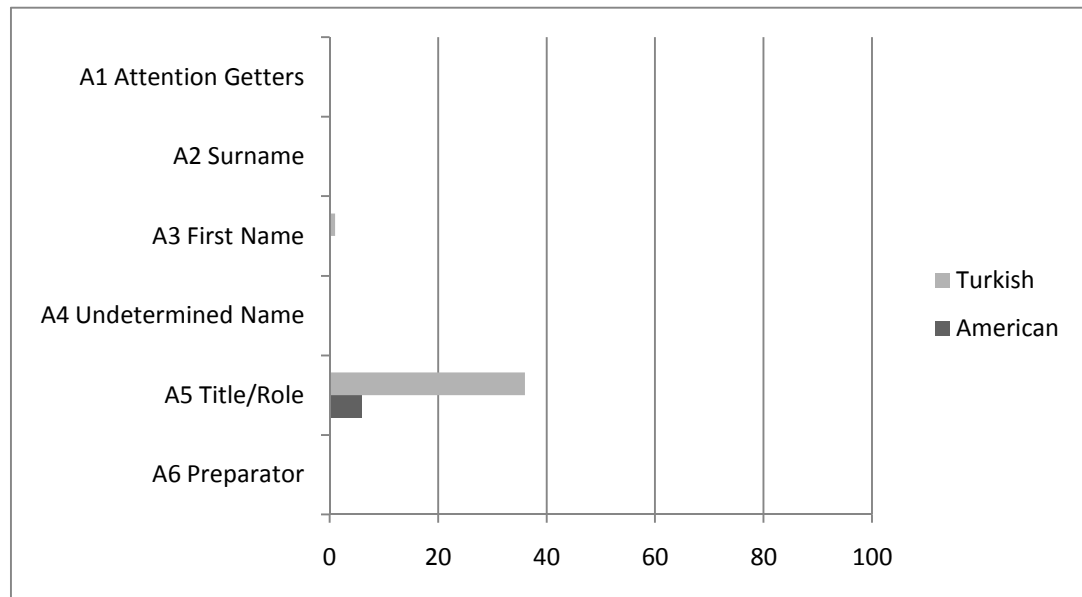


Table 106: Situation III chi-square test of overall distribution of alerters

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	,166	1	,684

Table 106 shows that the overall alerter use by the two groups is not significantly different, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = .166, p > .05$.

Situation III Downgraders

Table 107 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for alerters in situation III.

Table 107: Situation III downgraders

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SIIID1 Politeness Markers	0	93	74	13.101	1	.000*
	1	7	26			
SIIID2 Subjectivizer	0	96	98	.687	1	.407

	1	4	2			
SIID3 Hedge	0	100	100			
SIID4 Appealer	0	100	99	1.005	1	.316
	1	0	1	.000		1.000
SIID5 Pause Filler	0	100	99	1.005	1	.316
	1	0	1	.000		1.000
SIID6 Understater	0	100	100			
SIID7 Cajoler	0	100	99	1.005	1	.316
	1	0	1	.000		1.000
SIID8 Surprise	0	97	100	3.046	1	.081
	1	3	0	1.354		.245

As table 106 shows, two strategies, namely *hedge* and *understater*, were not used at all. Three of the strategies, *appealer*, *pause filler* and *cajoler*, were only used by one percent of Turkish participants and none of American participants. *Surprise*, on the other hand, was only used by three percent of American and none of the Turkish participants. *Politeness marker* is the only strategy that resulted in a significant difference between the two groups. While 26% of Turkish participants employed politeness markers, only seven percent of American participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 13.101, p < .05$. The final downgrader is *subjectivizer*, which was used by four percent of American and three percent of Turkish participants. Graph 19 depicts these results.

Graph 19: Situation III downgraders

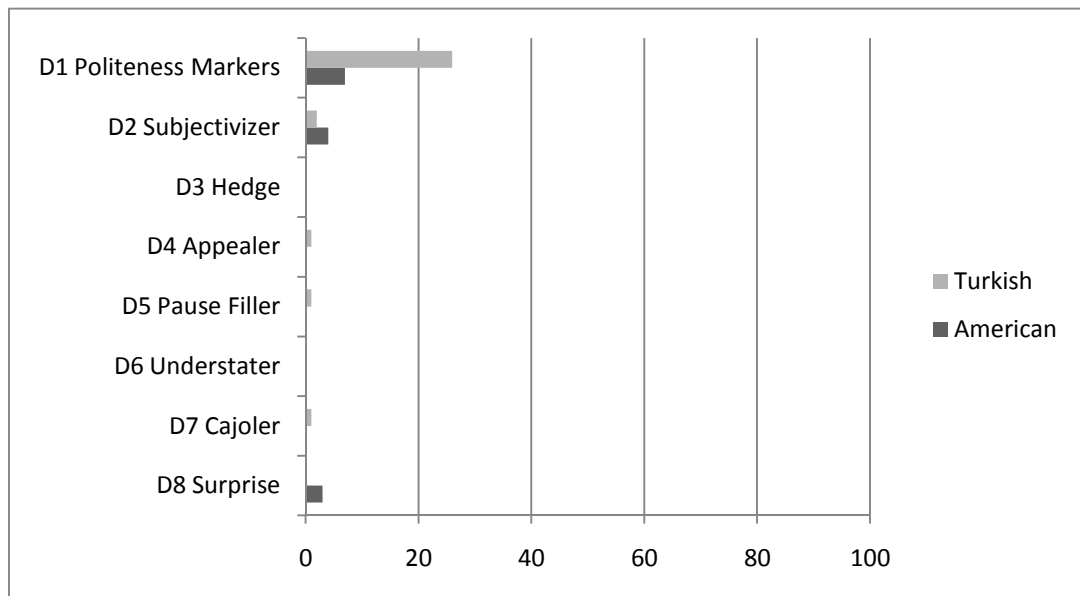


Table 108: Situation III chi-square test of overall distribution of downgraders

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	13,046	5	,023

Table 108 shows that the overall downgrader use by the two groups is significantly different, $\chi^2(5, N = 200) = 13.046, p < .05$.

Situation III Upgraders

Table 109 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for upgraders in situation III.

Table 109: Situation III upgraders

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SIIIU1 Intensifier	0	32	30	.094	1	.760
	1	68	70			
SIIIU2 Emotional Expression	0	45	75	18.750	1	.000*
	1	55	25			
SIIIU3 Emphasis	0	58	76	7.327	1	.007*
	1	42	24			
SIIIU4 Expletive	0	99	100	1.005	1	.316
	1	1	0			
SIIIU5 Lexical Uptoner	0	99	92	5.701	1	.017*
	1	1	8			
SIIIU6 Repetition	0	69	86	8.287	1	.004*
	1	31	14			

As is in table 109, four of the six upgraders resulted in a significant difference. The first one of these is *emotional expression*. While 55% of American participants used it, only 25% of the Turkish group did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 18.750, p < .05$. Similarly, 42% of American participants employed *emphasis* whereas only 24% of Turkish participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 7.327, p < .05$. *Repetition* follows a similar pattern. While 31% of American participants used *repetition*, only 14% of Turkish

participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 8.287, p < .05$. The last strategy that resulted in a significant difference is *lexical uptoner*, which was used by one percent of American and eight percent of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 5.701, p < .05$. Of the last two upgraders, *intensifier* was used commonly by both groups. Sixty-eight percent of the American and 70% of the Turkish group employed it. The final strategy in this category is *expletive*, which was used only by one percent of American participants. Graph 20 depicts these results.

Graph 20: Situation III upgraders

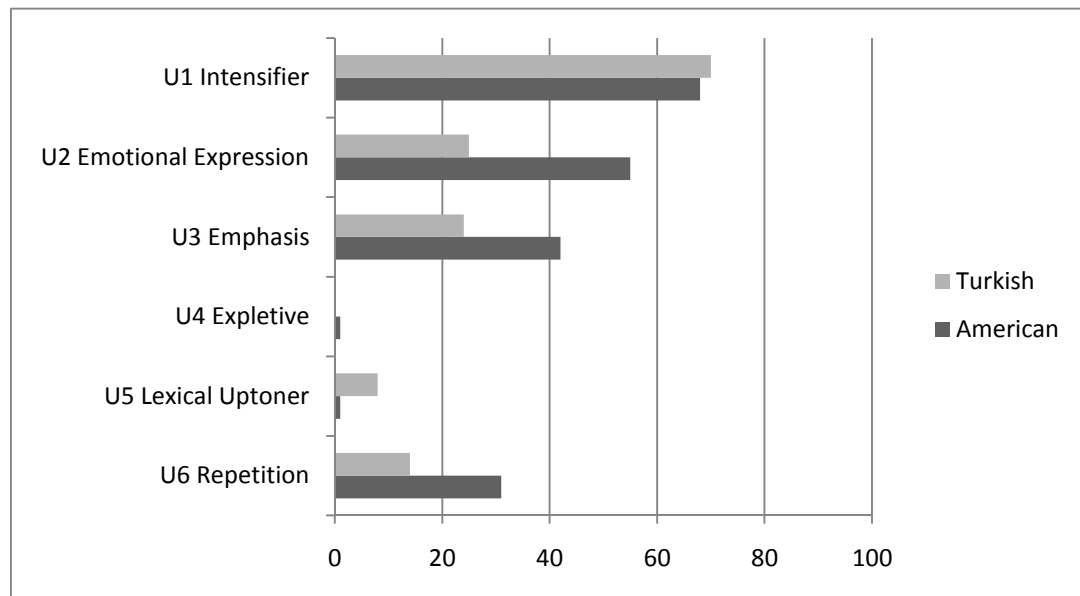


Table 110: Situation III chi-square test of overall distribution of upgraders

	Value	Df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	20,037	5	,001

Table 110 shows that the overall upgrader use by the two groups is significantly different, $\chi^2(5, N = 200) = 20.037, p < .05$.

Situation III Overall

Overall distribution of tokens across all the strategies in four categories in situation III is shown in table 111.

Table 111: Situation III chi-square test of overall strategy distribution

	Value	Df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	134,194	34	,000

The overall strategy use including head act strategies, alerters, downgraders and upgraders by the two groups is significantly different, $\chi^2(34, N = 200) = 134.194, p < .05$.

Situation III T-tests

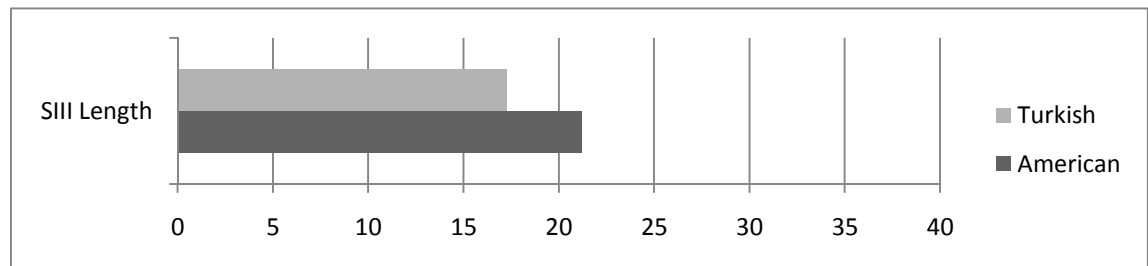
Table 112 shows the results of independent-samples t-test for the length of the apologies and the number of strategies.

Table 112: T-tests for situation III

	TeacherGroup	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Df	t	Sig.
SIILLENGTH	1	100	21,2000	13,12566	198	2,346	,020*
	2	100	17,2900	10,27235			
SIITotNumStr	1	100	4,8300	1,86437	198	,429	,669
	2	100	4,7200	1,76429			
SIINumberS	1	100	2,6400	,99005	198	,076	,940
	2	100	2,6300	,87219			
SIITotNumSup	1	100	2,1900	1,32341	198	,542	,589
	2	100	2,0900	1,28782			
SIINumAlert	1	100	,0600	,23868	198	-5,526	,000*
	2	100	,3800	,52762			
SIINumDown	1	100	,1400	,37659	198	-2,427	,016*
	2	100	,3000	,54123			
SIINumUp	1	100	1,9900	1,21850	198	3,731	,000*
	2	100	1,4100	,96499			

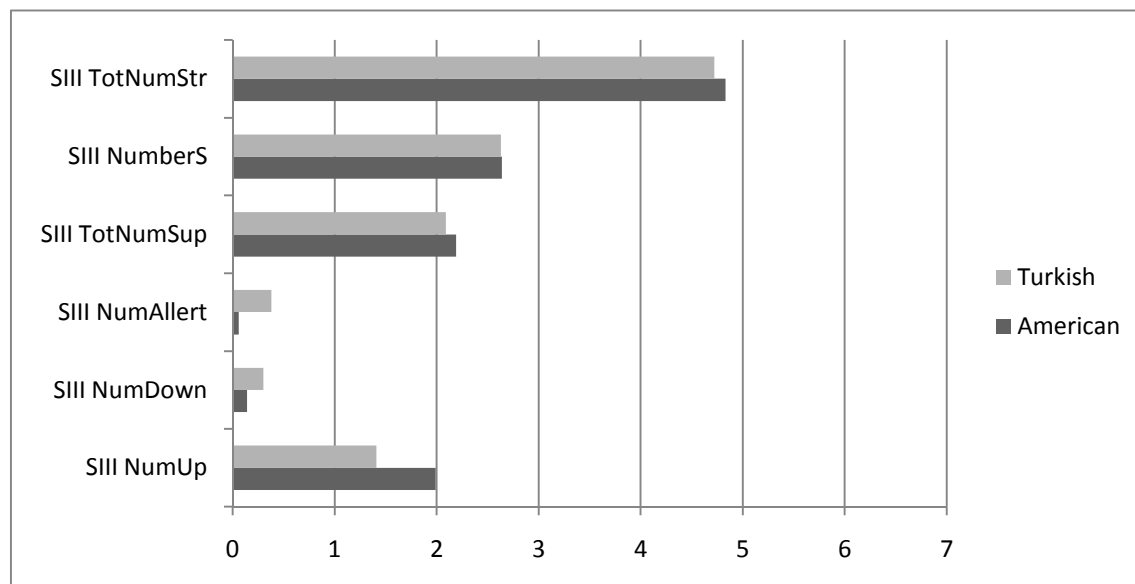
According to the results of the *t*-test analysis, the length of the apologies provided by American participants ($M = 12.20$, $SD = 13.12$) is longer than those of Turkish participants ($M = 17.29$, $SD = 10.27$). Moreover, this difference is significant, $t(198) = 2.34$, $p = .020$, $p < .05$. Graph 21 depicts this result.

Graph 21: Length of apologies in situation III



According to the *t*-test results, the participant groups did not differ in the total number of strategies, the number of strategies in the head act or the number of supportive moves. The American group used an average of 4.83 total strategies. This value is 4.72 for Turkish participants. The values of number of strategies in the head act are also very similar, 2.64 for Americans and 2.63 for Turks. Likewise, both the American and the Turkish groups used a similar number of supportive moves as 2.19 for Americans and 2.09 for Turks indicate. However, specific supportive moves resulted in significant differences. For example, while the Turkish group used an average of .38 alerters ($SD = .52$), American participants used only .09 alerters ($SD = .23$), which resulted in a significant difference, $t(198) = -5.26$, $p = .000$, $p < .05$. Likewise, the Turkish group used an average of .30 downgraders ($SD = .54$) while the American group used only .14 ($SD = .37$), another significant difference, $t(198) = -2.42$, $p = .016$, $p < .05$. Upgraders, on the other hand, were used by American participants ($M = 19.18$, $SD = 10.48$) more than Turkish participants ($M = 19.18$, $SD = 10.48$). The difference is also significant, $t(198) = 3.73$, $p = .000$, $p < .05$. Graph 22 depicts these results.

Graph 22: Number of strategies in situation III



3.5.1. ANALYSIS OF COMMON STRATEGIES IN SITUATION III

T-test results of the situation III show us that the average number of strategies used by both American and Turkish participants is around five. The five most common strategies in American participants' apology acts are *sorry*, *offer of repair*, *concern for hearer*, *intensifier* and *emotional expression*. The five most common strategies in Turkish participants' apology acts, however, are *sorry*, *offer of repair*, *accepting blame*, *title/role* and *intensifier*.

Five Common Strategies in American Participants' Acts

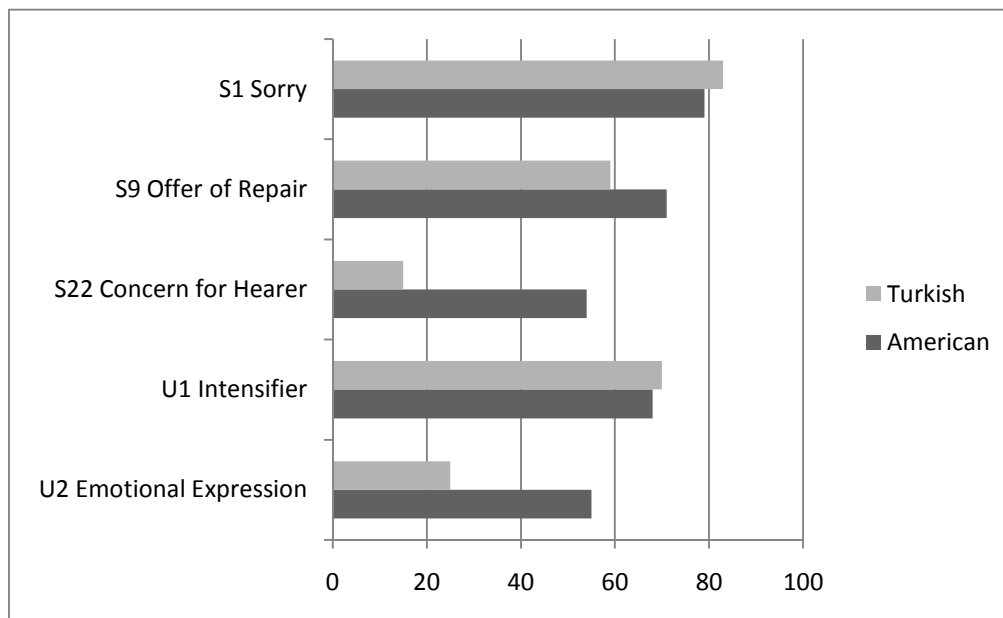
Table 113 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for five common strategies in American participants' apologies in situation III.

Table 113: Common strategies by American participants in situation III

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SIIS1 Sorry	0	21	17	.520	1	.471
	1	79	83			
SIIS9 Offer of Repair	0	29	41	3.165	1	.075
	1	71	59			
SIIS22 Concern for Hearer	0	46	85	33.654	1	.000*
	1	54	15			
SIIU1 Intensifier	0	32	30	.094	1	.760
	1	68	70			
SIIU2 Emotional Expression	0	45	75	18.750	1	.000*
	1	55	25			

As is seen in table 112, American participants differed from Turkish participants in two of the five strategies they commonly used, *concern for hearer* and *emotional expression*. While 54% of American participants used *concern for hearer*, only 15% of Turkish participants used it, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 33.654, p < .05$. Similarly, 55% of American participants used *emotional expression*, whereas only 25% of Turkish participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 18.750, p < .05$. Since the other three common strategies are also commonly used by Turkish participants, there is no significant difference in these strategies. For example, 79% of American and 83% of Turkish participants employed *sorry*. Meanwhile, *offer of repair* was used by 71% of American participants and 59% of Turkish participants. Finally, *intensifier* was resorted to by 68% of American and 70% of Turkish participants. Graph 23 depicts these results.

Graph 23: Common strategies by American participants in situation III



Five Common Strategies in Turkish Participants' Acts

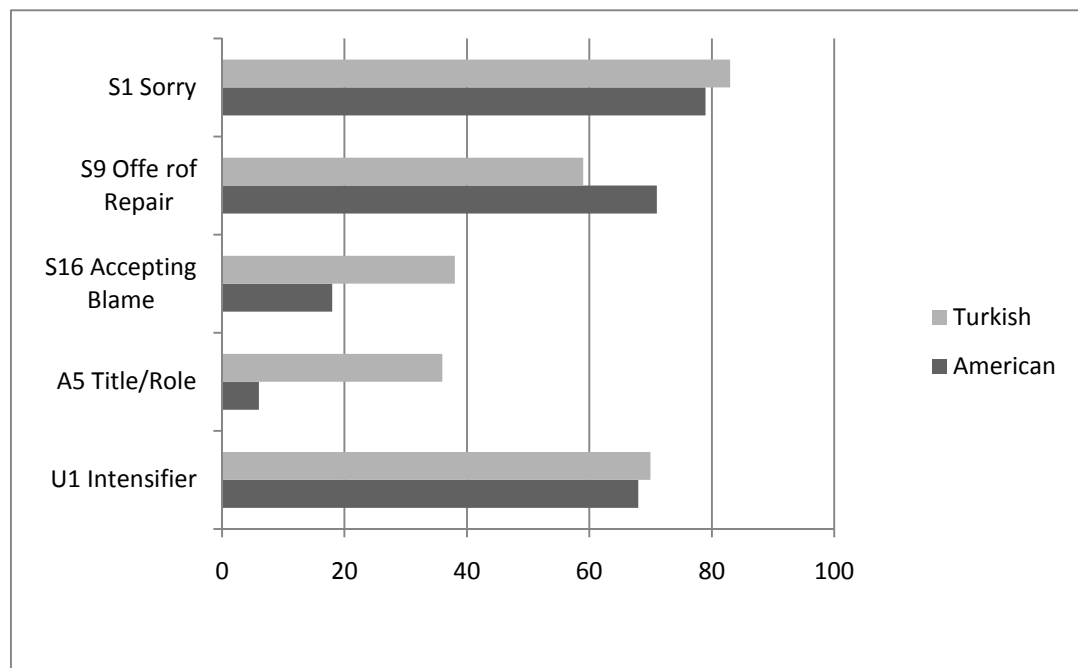
Table 114 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for five common strategies in Turkish participants' apologies in situation III.

Table 114: Common strategies by Turkish participants in situation III

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SIIS1 Sorry	0	21	17	.520	1	.471
	1	79	83			
SIIS9 Offer of Repair	0	29	41	3.165	1	.075
	1	71	59			
SIIS16 Accepting Blame	0	82	62	9.921	1	.002*
	1	18	38			
SIIIA5 Title/Role	0	94	64	27.125	1	.000*
	1	6	36			
SIIIU1 Intensifier	0	32	30	.094	1	.760
	1	68	70			

Five common strategies in Turkish participants' apology acts include three head act strategies, one alerter and one upgrader. *Sorry*, *offer of repair* and *intensifier* are also common strategies in American participants' acts and thus the details of these strategies are given in the section about common strategies American participants used in situation III. The other two strategies are not used by American participants as commonly as Turkish participants. For example, while 38% of Turkish participants used *accepting blame*, only 18% of American participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 9.921, p < .05$. Likewise, 36% of Turkish participants employed *title/role* whereas only six percent of American participants resorted to it, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 27.125, p < .05$. Graph 24 depicts these results.

Graph 24: Common strategies by Turkish participants in situation III



3.6. SITUATION IV: WRONG SIGNATURE

In this section, the results of the statistical analysis for situation IV are given. The situation's sociopragmatic design is given in table 115. In this situation the power of the speaker and the distance between the speaker and the hearer are low and the imposition is high.

Situation VI:

You are the vice-president of a company. The president of the company, who is also the owner, was on a business trip last week. While s/he was away, you were the acting president. You notice now that you signed a document which should not have been signed at all costs. Now you see the president.

Table 115: Sociopragmatic design of situation IV

<i>Sociopragmatic Design</i>	Power	- Distance	- Imposition	+

Situation IV Strategies in the Head Act

Table 116 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for the strategies in the head act in situation IV.

Table 116: Situation IV chi-square table for strategies in the head act

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SIVS1 Sorry	0	74	79	.695	1	.404
	1	26	21			
SIVS2 Afraid	0	93	96	.866	1	.352
	1	7	4			
SIVS3 Apologize	0	92	88	.889	1	.346
	1	8	12			
SIVS4 Forgive	0	100	95	5.128	1	.024*
	1	0	5	3.285		.070
SIVS5 Excuse	0	100	100			
SIVS6 Account of Situation	0	76	79	.258	1	.611
	1	24	21			
SIVS7 Admission of Facts	0	67	77	2.480	1	.115
	1	33	23			
SIVS8 Statement of	0	95	97	.521	1	.470

	1	5	3			
SIVS9 Offer of Repair	0	75	62	3.916	1	.048*
	1	25	38			
SIVS10 Promise of Forbearance	0	100	98	2.020	1	.155
	1	0	2	.505		.477
SIVS11 Minimizing Offense	0	97	98	.205	1	.651
	1	3	2	.000		1.000
SIVS12 Expressing Gratitude	0	100	100			
SIVS13 Distract	0	97	100	3.046	1	.081
	1	3	0	1.354		.245
SIVS14 Upgrading Offense	0	61	64	.192	1	.661
	1	39	36			
SIVS15 Request	0	97	90	4.031	1	.045*
	1	3	10			
SIVS16 Accepting Blame	0	36	30	.814	1	.367
	1	64	70			
SIVS17 Expression of Embarrassment	0	100	99	1.005	1	.316
	1	0	1	.000		1.000
SIVS18 Justifying Hearer	0	99	94	3.701	1	.054
	1	1	6	2.369		.124
SIVS19 Lack of Intent	0	71	79	1.707	1	.191
	1	29	21			
SIVS20 Statement of Dismay	0	49	80	20.985	1	.000*
	1	51	20			
SIVS21 Regret	0	98	93	2.909	1	.088
	1	2	7	1.862		.172
SIVS22 Concern for Hearer	0	99	100	1.005	1	.316
	1	1	0	.000		1.000
SIVS23 Blaming Victim	0	100	100			
SIVS24 Denial	0	98	99	.338	1	.561
	1	2	1	.000		1.000
SIVS25 Distract with Humor	0	100	100			
SIVS26 Atypical Action	0	95	94	.096	1	.756
	1	5	6			
SIVS27 Pardon	0	100	100			

As is seen in table 116, the strategies *excuse*, *expressing gratitude*, *blaming victim*, *distract with humor* and *pardon* were not used by any of the participants. Of the ones that were used, four strategies resulted in a significant difference. The first one is *forgive*, which was only used by five percent of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 5.128, p < .05$. When Yates' correction factor is applied, *forgive* does not reveal a significant difference, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 3.285, p > .05$. The next one is *offer of repair*.

While 38% of Turkish participants used it, 25% of American participants employed it in their apologies, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 3.916, p < .05$. Another strategy that resulted in a significant difference is *request*, which was used by 3% of American and 10% of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 4.031, p < .05$. The last strategy that resulted in a significant difference is *statement/question of dismay*. While 51% of American participants employed this strategy, only 20% of Turkish participants resorted to it, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 20.985, p < .05$. The rest of the strategies did not result in a statistical difference between the groups. Six of these remaining strategies were more commonly used than the others. For example, *sorry* was used by 26% of American and 21% of Turkish participants. Likewise, *account of the situation* was employed by 24% of American and 21% of Turkish participants. As for *admission of facts but not responsibility*, 33% of American and 21% of Turkish participants resorted to it. In this situation, *upgrading of offense* was also used by both groups. It was used by 39% of American and 36% of Turkish participants. *Accepting blame* was the most commonly used strategy in this situation. Sixty-four percent of American participants and 70% of Turkish participants employed it. *Lack of intent* is the last one of the more commonly used strategies, which was used by 29% of American and 21% of Turkish participants. Of the remaining strategies, *promise of forbearance* and *expression of embarrassment*, were only used by Turkish participants at two percent and one percent, respectively. There were also two strategies that were used only by American participants, *distract* at three percent and *concern for hearer* at one percent, respectively. The rest of the strategies were minimally used by both groups. To illustrate, *afraid* was used by seven percent of the American and four percent of the Turkish group. Meanwhile, *apologize* was used by 12% of Turkish and eight percent of American participants. As for *statement of facts but not responsibility*, five percent of American and three percent of Turkish participants used it. Another strategy with minimal usage is *minimizing offense*. Three percent of American and two percent of Turkish participants used it. Moving on, *justifying hearer* was employed by one percent of American participants and seven percent of Turkish participants. *Denial* is another strategy that was less favorable than most others. It was used by two percent of American and one percent of Turkish participants.

Finally, five percent of American and six percent of Turkish participants used *atypical action*. Graph 25 depicts these results.

Graph 25: Situation IV strategies in the head act

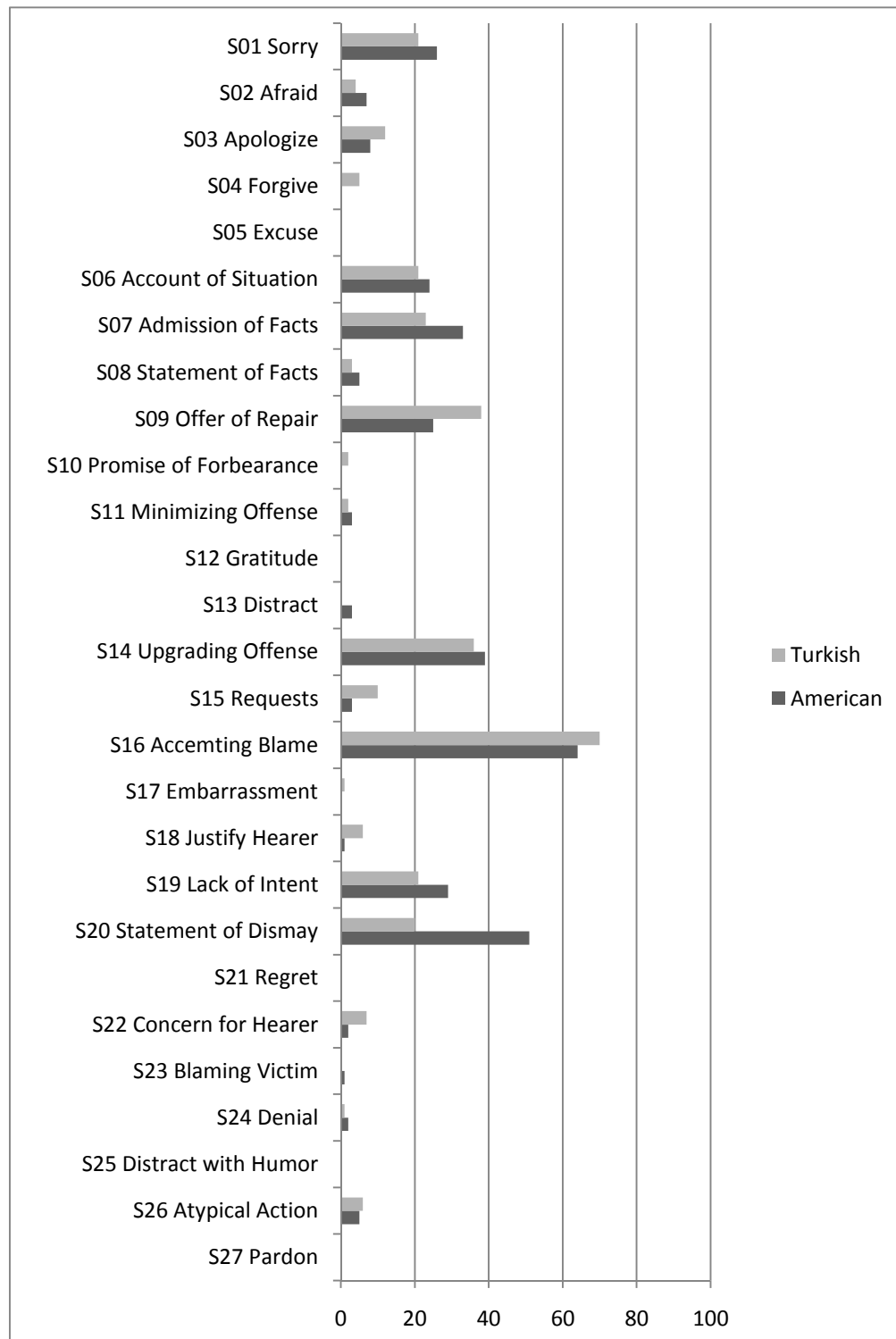


Table 117: Situation IV chi-square test of overall distribution of head act strategies

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	44,561	21	,002

Table 117 shows that the overall use of head act strategies by the two groups is significantly different, $\chi^2(21, N = 200) = 44.561, p < .05$.

Situation IV Alerters

Table 118 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for alerters in situation IV.

Table 118: Situation IV alerters

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SIVA1 Attention Getter	0	90	93	.579	1	.447
	1	10	7			
SIVA2 Surname	0	95	97	.521	1	.470
	1	5	3			
SIVA3 First Name	0	96	100	4.082	1	.043*
	1	4	0			
SIVA4 Undetermined Name	0	94	93	.082	1	.774
	1	6	7			
SIVA5 Title/Role	0	93	75	12.054	1	.001*
	1	7	25			
SIVA6 Preparator	0	52	68	5.333	1	.021*
	1	48	32			

As table 117 reveals, three alerters resulted in a significant difference between the two groups. The first one is *first name* which was only used by four percent of the American group, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 4.082, p < .05$. With Yates' correction, there is no significant difference between the groups, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 2.296, p > .05$. The next significant strategy is *title/role*. While 25% of Turkish participants used *title/role*,

only seven percent of American participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 12.054, p < .05$. *Preparator* is the third alerter that resulted in a significant difference. While forty-eight percent of American participants employed it, 32% of the Turkish group did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 5.333, p < .05$. The other three alerters did not result in a significant difference. *Attention getters* were used by 10% of American and seven percent of Turkish participants. Meanwhile, *surname* was used by five percent of the American and three percent of the Turkish group. Finally, *undetermined name* was used by six percent of American and seven percent of Turkish participants. Graph 26 depicts these results.

Graph 26: Situation IV alerters

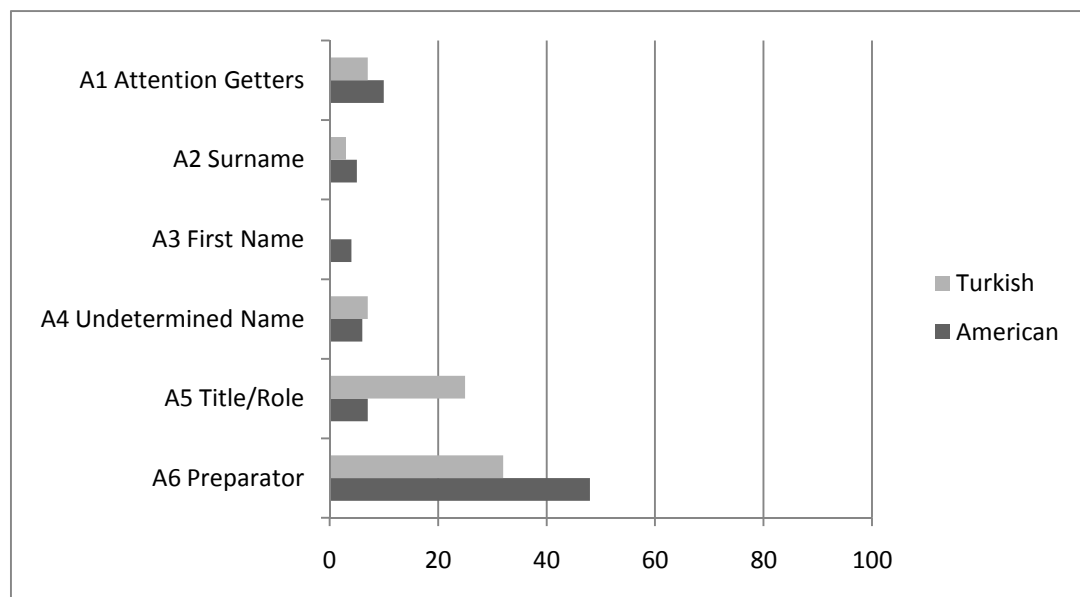


Table 119: Situation IV chi-square test of overall distribution of alerters

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	18,225	5	,003

Table 119 shows that the overall alerter use by the two groups is significantly different, $\chi^2(5, N = 200) = 18.225, p < .05$.

Situation IV Downgraders

Table 120 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for downgraders in situation IV.

Table 120: Situation IV downgraders

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SIVD1 Politeness Markers	0	95	92	.740	1	.390
	1	5	8			
SIVD2 Subjectivizer	0	86	80	1.276	1	.259
	1	14	20			
SIVD3 Hedge	0	96	99	1.846	1	.174
	1	4	1			
SIVD4 Appealer	0	100	99	1.005	1	.316
	1	0	1			
SIVD5 Pause Filler	0	95	94	.096	1	.756
	1	5	6			
SIVD6 Understater	0	99	100	1.005	1	.316
	1	1	0			
SIVD7 Cajoler	0	100	99	1.005	1	.316
	1	0	1			
SIVD8 Surprise	0	93	100	7.254	1	.007*
	1	7	0			

As is seen in table 119, the only downgrader that resulted in a significant difference is *surprise*, which was only used by seven percent of the American group, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 7.254, p < .05$. The rest of the strategies did not result in significant differences. Of these, *subjectivizer* was more commonly used than the others. It was used by 14% of American and 20% of Turkish participants. The least common strategies were *appealer*, *understater* and *cajoler*. *Understater* was used by only one percent of the American group. *Appealer* and *cajoler*, however, were only used by one percent of the Turkish group. Meanwhile, *politeness markers* were used by both groups. More specifically, five percent of the American and eight percent of the Turkish group used this strategy. Moving on, *hedge* was preferred by four percent of American and only one percent of Turkish participants. Lastly, *pause filler* was employed by five percent of American and six percent of Turkish participants. Graph 27 depicts these results.

Graph 27: Situation IV downgraders

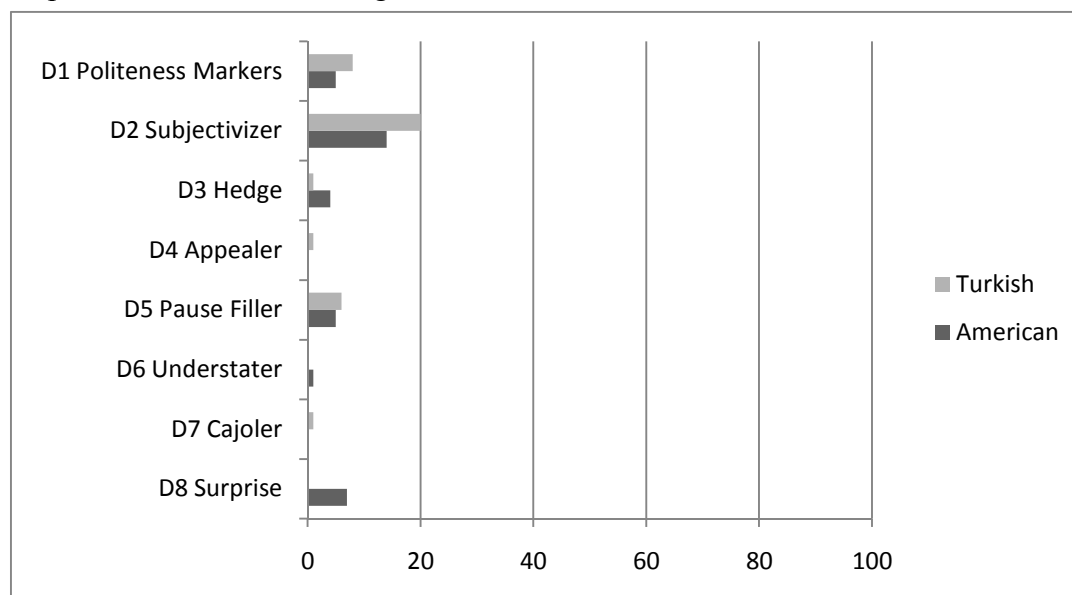


Table 121: Situation IV chi-square test of overall distribution of downgraders

	Value	Df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	13,631	7	,058

Table 121 shows that the overall downgrader use by the two groups is not significantly different, $\chi^2(7, N = 200) = 13.631, p > .05$.

Situation IV Upgraders

Table 122 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for upgraders in situation IV.

Table 122: Situation IV upgraders

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SIVU1 Intensifier	0	83	84	.036	1	.849
	1	17	16			

SIVU2 Emotional Expression	0	100	100			
SIVU3 Emphasis	0	97	96	.148	1	.700
	1	3	4	.000		1.000
SIVU4 Expletive	0	100	100			
SIVU5 Lexical Uptoner	0	99	97	1.020	1	.312
	1	1	3	.255		.614
SIVU6 Repetition	0	92	95	.740	1	.390
	1	8	5			

As table 122 shows, two of the upgraders were not used by the participants: *emotional expression* and *expletive*. The table also shows that the groups did not significantly differ in any of the strategies. The most common upgrader was *intensifier*, which was used by 17% of American and 16% of Turkish participants. The other three upgraders were not common in either group. For example, three percent of American and four percent of Turkish participants employed *emphasis*. Also, only one percent of the American and three percent of the Turkish group used *lexical uptoner*. Finally, *repetition* was included in the apologies of eight percent of American and five percent of Turkish participants. Graph 28 depicts these results.

Graph 28: Situation IV upgraders

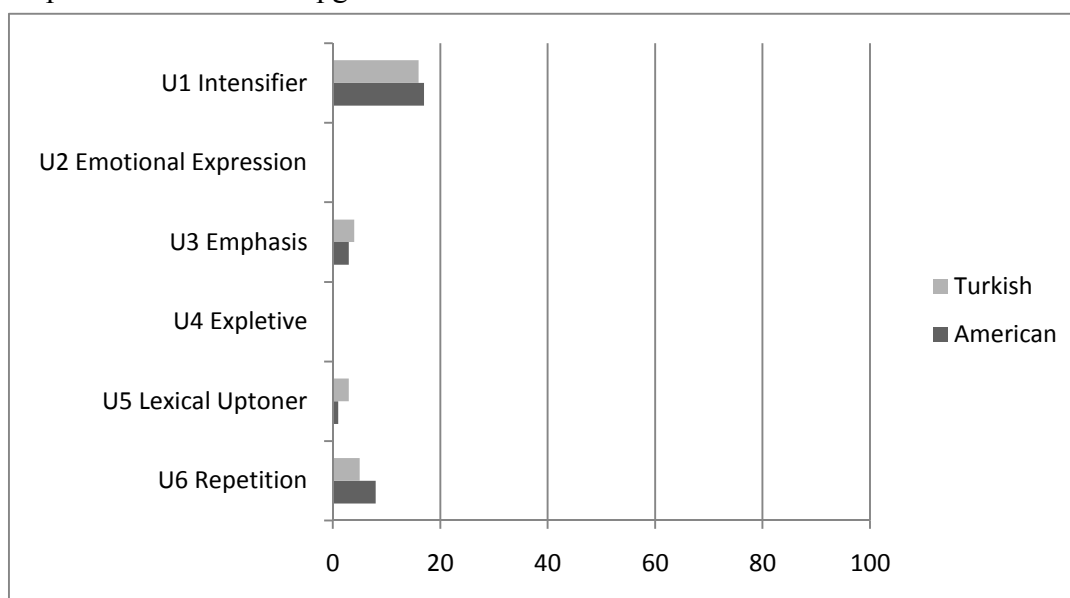


Table 123: Situation IV chi-square test of overall distribution of upgraders

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	1,848	3	,604

Table 123 shows that the overall upgrader use by the two groups is not significantly different, $\chi^2(3, N = 200) = 1.848, p > .05$.

Situation IV Overall

Overall distribution of tokens across all the strategies in four categories in situation IV is shown in table 124.

Table 124: Situation IV chi-square test of overall strategy distribution

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	78,427	39	,000

The overall use strategies including head act strategies, alerters, downgraders and upgraders by the two groups is significantly different, $\chi^2(39, N = 200) = 78.427, p < .05$.

Situation IV T-tests

Table 125 shows the results of independent-samples t-test for the length of apologies and the number of strategies in situation IV.

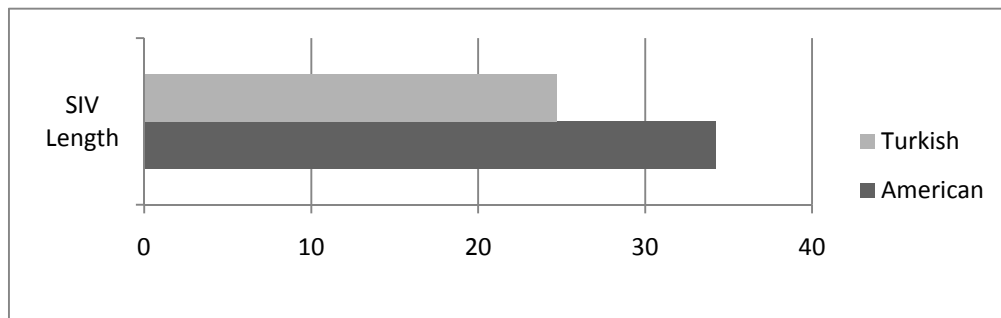
Table 125: T-tests for situation IV

	TeacherGroup	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	df	t	Sig.
SIVLENGTH	1	100	34,2200	20,06735	198	4,044	,000*
	2	100	24,6700	12,45116			
SIVTotNumStr	1	100	4,7500	2,46337	198	,872	,384
	2	100	4,4700	2,06194			
SIVNumberS	1	100	3,2700	1,56253	198	,915	,361
	2	100	3,0800	1,36833			

SIVTotNumSup	1	100	1,4500	1,38078	198	,339	,735
	2	100	1,3900	1,10914			
SIVNumAlert	1	100	,8000	,77850	198	,538	,591
	2	100	,7400	,79924			
SIVNumDown	1	100	,3500	,71598	198	-,222	,824
	2	100	,3700	,54411			
SIVNumUp	1	100	,3000	,57735	198	,254	,799
	2	100	,2800	,53333			

According to the *t*-test results, the length of the apologies provided by American participants ($M = 34.22$, $SD = 20.06$) is significantly more than the length of Turkish participants' apologies ($M = 24.67$, $SD = 12.45$). The *t*-test resulted in a significant difference, $t(198) = 4.04$, $p = .000$, $p < .05$. Graph 29 depicts this result.

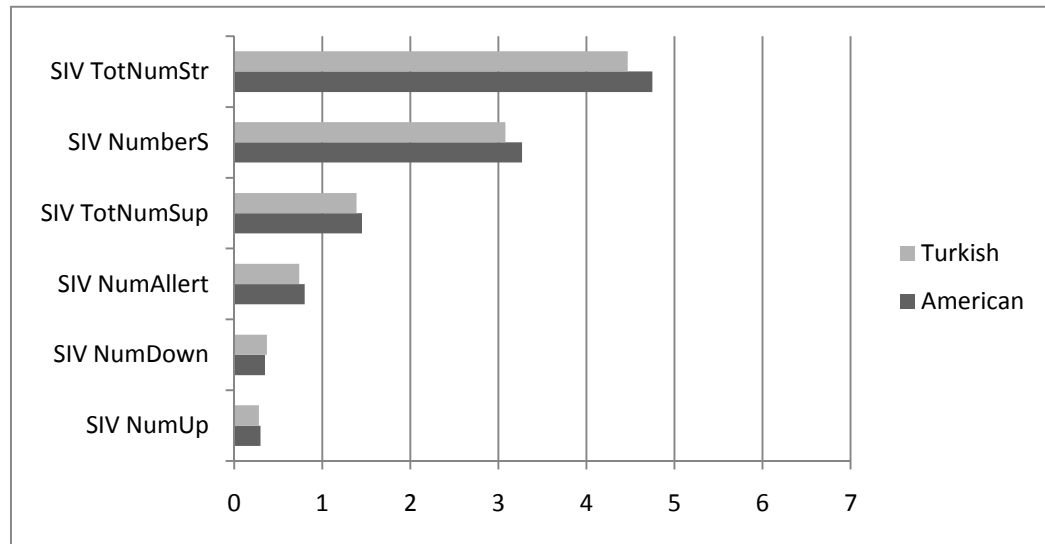
Graph 29: Length of apologies in situation IV



T-tests for the numbers of strategies did not show any significant results. In other words, the groups were not different in the numbers of strategies they used. The American group used an average of 4.75 strategies while the Turkish group used an average of 4.47 strategies. Total number of strategies in the head act used by Americans is 3.27. Meanwhile, Turkish participants used an average of 3.08 strategies in the head act. The groups are also similar in the number of supportive moves they used. The number of supportive moves is 1.45 for the American group and 1.39 for the Turkish group. As for alerters, American participants used an average of .80 alerters and Turkish participants used an average of .74 alerters. Again, downgrader usage is similar in both groups. Americans used an average of .35 downgraders and Turks an average of .37. Finally, the American group used an

average of .30 upgraders and the Turkish group an average of .28 upgraders. Graph 30 depicts these results.

Graph 30: Number of strategies in situation IV



3.6.1. ANALYSIS OF COMMON STRATEGIES IN SITUATION IV

T-test results of the situation IV show us that the average number of strategies used by American participants is around five and for Turkish participants around four. The five most common strategies in American participants' apology acts are *admission of facts, but not responsibility, upgrading offense, accepting blame, statement/question of dismay* and *preparator*. However, the four most common strategies in Turkish participants' apology acts are *offer of repair, upgrading offense, accepting blame* and *preparator*.

Five Common Strategies in American Participants' Acts

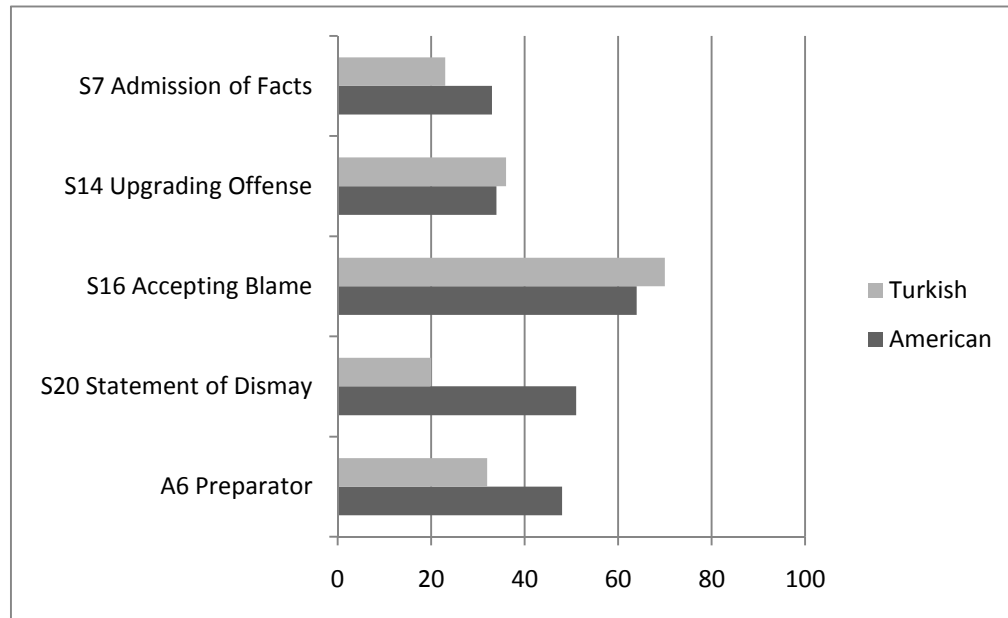
Table 126 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for five common strategies in American participants' apologies in situation IV.

Table 126: Common strategies by American participants in situation IV

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SIVS7 Admission of Facts	0	67	77	2.480	1	.115
	1	33	23			
SIVS14 Upgrading Offense	0	66	64	.192	1	.661
	1	34	36			
SIVS16 Accepting Blame	0	36	30	.814	1	.367
	1	64	70			
SIVS20 Statement of Dismay	0	49	80	20.985	1	.000*
	1	51	20			
SIVA6 Preparator	0	52	68	5.333	1	.021*
	1	48	32			

As is seen in table 126, American participants differed from Turkish participants in two of the five strategies they commonly used: *statement/question of dismay* and *preparator*. While 51% of American participants used *statement/question of dismay*, only 20% of Turkish participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 20.985, p < .05$. Likewise, 48% of American participants resorted to using *preparator* whereas 32% of the Turkish group used it, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 5.333, p < .05$. The other three strategies did not result in significant differences. *Admission of facts but not responsibility* was used by 33% of the American and 23% of the Turkish participants. Meanwhile, *upgrading of offense* was employed by 34% of American and 36% of Turkish participants. Finally, *accepting blame* was the most common strategy, which was used by 64% of American and 70% of Turkish participants. Graph 31 depicts these results.

Graph 31: Common strategies by American participants in situation IV



Four Common Strategies in Turkish Participants' Acts

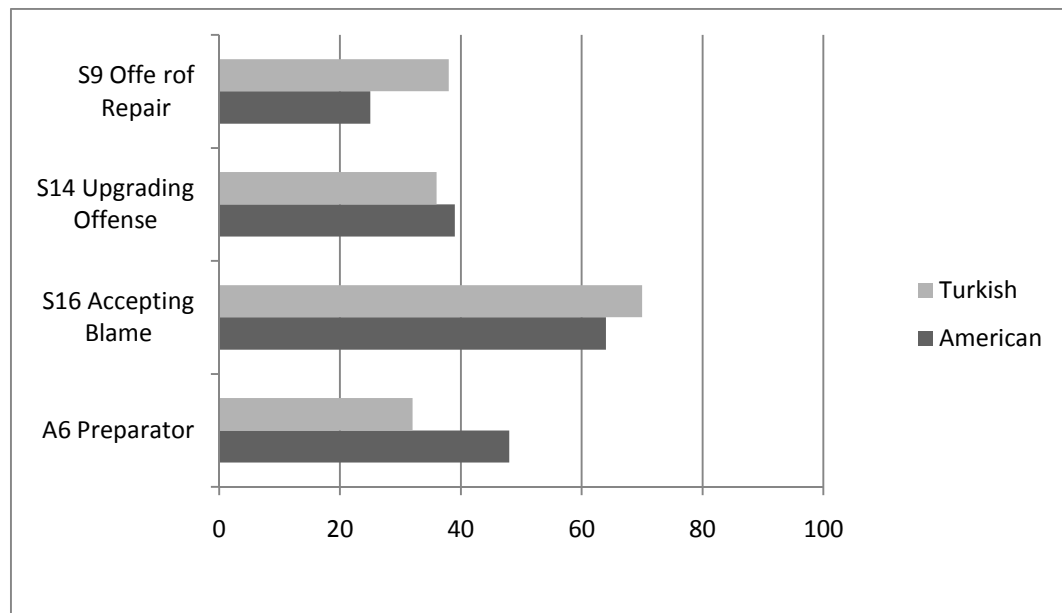
Table 127 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for four common strategies in Turkish participants' apologies in situation IV.

Table 127: Common strategies by Turkish participants in situation IV

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SIVS9 Offer of Repair	0	75	62	3.916	1	.048*
	1	25	38			
SIVS14 Upgrading Offense	0	61	64	.191	1	.661
	1	39	36			
SIVS16 Accepting Blame	0	36	30	.814	1	.307
	1	64	70			
SIVA6 Preparator	0	52	68	5.333	1	.021*
	1	48	32			

Three of the four common strategies in Turkish participants' apology acts are also among the common strategies in American participants' apology acts. The details of these strategies are given in the section about the common strategies American participants used in situation III. Another common strategy in Turkish participants' apologies is *offer of repair*. While 38% of Turkish participants used it, only 25% of American participants preferred this strategy, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 3.916, p < .05$. Graph 32 depicts these results.

Graph 32: Common strategies by Turkish participants in situation IV



3.7. SITUATION V: RUNNING LATE

In this section, the results of the statistical analysis for situation V are given. The situation's sociopragmatic design is given in table 128. In this situation the power of the speaker and the distance between the speaker and the hearer are high and the imposition is low.

Situation V:

You are the human resources manager of a company. You have made an appointment with an applicant for today, but unfortunately you arrive five minutes late because of traffic. Now you go to your office and see the applicant.

Table 128: Sociopragmatic design of situation V

<i>Sociopragmatic Design</i>	Power	+	Distance	+	Imposition	-

Situation V Strategies in the Head Act

Table 129 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for the strategies in the head act in situation V.

Table 129: Situation V chi-square table for strategies in the head act

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVS1 Sorry	0	31	22	2.079	1	.149
	1	69	78			
SVS2 Afraid	0	100	100	16.503	1	.000*
	0	78	97			
SVS3 Apologize	1	22	3	3.701	1	.054
	1	6	1			
SVS4 Forgive	0	94	99	1.020	1	.312
	1	1	3			
SVS5 Excuse	0	99	97	.312	1	.421
	1	1	3			
SVS6 Account of Situation	0	91	94	6.366	1	.012*
	1	9	6			
SVS7 Admission of Facts	0	81	93	6.366	1	.012*
	1	19	7			

SVS8 Statement of Facts	0	51	33	6.650	1	.010*
	1	49	67			
SVS9 Offer of Repair	0	95	99	2.749	1	.097
	1	5	1	1.546		.214
SVS10 Promise of Forbearance	0	100	99	1.005	1	.316
	1	0	1	.000		1.000
SVS11 Minimizing Offense	0	100	97	3.046	1	.081
	1	0	3	1.354		.245
SVS12 Expressing Gratitude	0	87	98	8.721	1	.003*
	1	13	2			
SVS13 Distract	0	57	69	3.089	1	.079
	1	43	31			
SVS14 Upgrading of Offense	0	97	99	1.020	1	.312
	1	3	1	.255		.614
SVS15 Request	0	91	99	6.737	1	.009*
	1	9	1			
SVS16 Accepting Blame	0	16	29	4.846	1	.028*
	1	84	71			
SVS17 Expression of Embarrassment	0	98	100	2.020	1	.155
	1	2	0	.505		.477
SVS18 Justifying Hearer	0	98	99	.338	1	.561
	1	2	1	.000		1.000
SVS19 Lack of Intent	0	95	89	2.446	1	.118
	1	5	11			
SVS20 Statement of Dismay	0	100	99	1.005	1	.316
	1	0	1	.000		1.000
SVS21 Regret	0	100	100			
SVS22 Concern for Hearer	0	84	84	.000	1	1.000
	1	16	16	.000		1.000
SVS23 Blaming Victim	0	100	100			
SVS24 Denial	0	100	98	2.020	1	.174
	1	0	2	.505		.477
SVS25 Distract with Humor	0	99	96	1.846	1	.174
	1	1	4	.821		.365
SVS26 Atypical Action	0	100	100			
SVS27 Pardon	0	100	99	1.005	1	.316
	1	0	1	.000		1.000

Table 128 above shows that four of the strategies were not used by any of the participants. Six strategies resulted in significant differences. The first one of these is *apologize*. While 22% of American participants employed it, only three percent of Turkish participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 16.503, p < .05$. The next strategy,

admission of facts but not responsibility, was used by 19% of American and seven percent of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 6.366, p < .05$. *Statement of facts not responsibility* is another strategy that resulted in a significant difference. It was used by 49% of American and 67% of Turkish participants; $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 6.650, p < .05$. Another strategy is *expressing gratitude*. While 13% of American participants employed *expressing gratitude*, only two percent of Turkish participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 8.721, p < .05$. Another strategy that resulted in a significant difference is *request*, which was used by nine percent of American and one percent of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 6.737, p < .05$. Finally, *accepting blame* is used by 84% of American and 71% of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 4.846, p < .05$. The rest of the strategies did not result in a statistical difference between the two groups. Of these, three strategies were more commonly used. The first one is *sorry*, which was used by 69% of American and 78% of Turkish participants. The next one is *distract*. Forty-three percent of the American and 31% of the Turkish group employed this strategy in their apology acts. Although not as common, *concern for hearer* was used by 16% of both groups. The rest of the strategies were less commonly used. Some of these strategies only occurred in Turkish participants' apologies: *promise of forbearance*, one percent; *minimizing offense*, three percent; *statement/question of dismay*, one percent; *denial*, two percent; and *pardon*, one percent. *Expression of embarrassment*, on the other hand was only used by two percent of American participants. The rest of the strategies were used minimally by either group. *Forgive* was used by six percent of American and one percent of Turkish participants. Likewise, *offer of repair* was used by five percent of American and one percent of Turkish participants. Meanwhile, *promise of forbearance* was used by one percent of American and three percent of Turkish participants. Similarly, *distract with humor* was used by one percent of American and four percent of Turkish participants. As for *account of situation*, nine percent of American and six percent of Turkish participants employed it. *Lack of intent*, on the other hand, was used by five percent of American and 11% of Turkish participants. Finally, *justifying hearer* was used by two percent of American and one percent of Turkish participants. Graph 33 depicts these results.

Graph 33: Situation V strategies in the head act

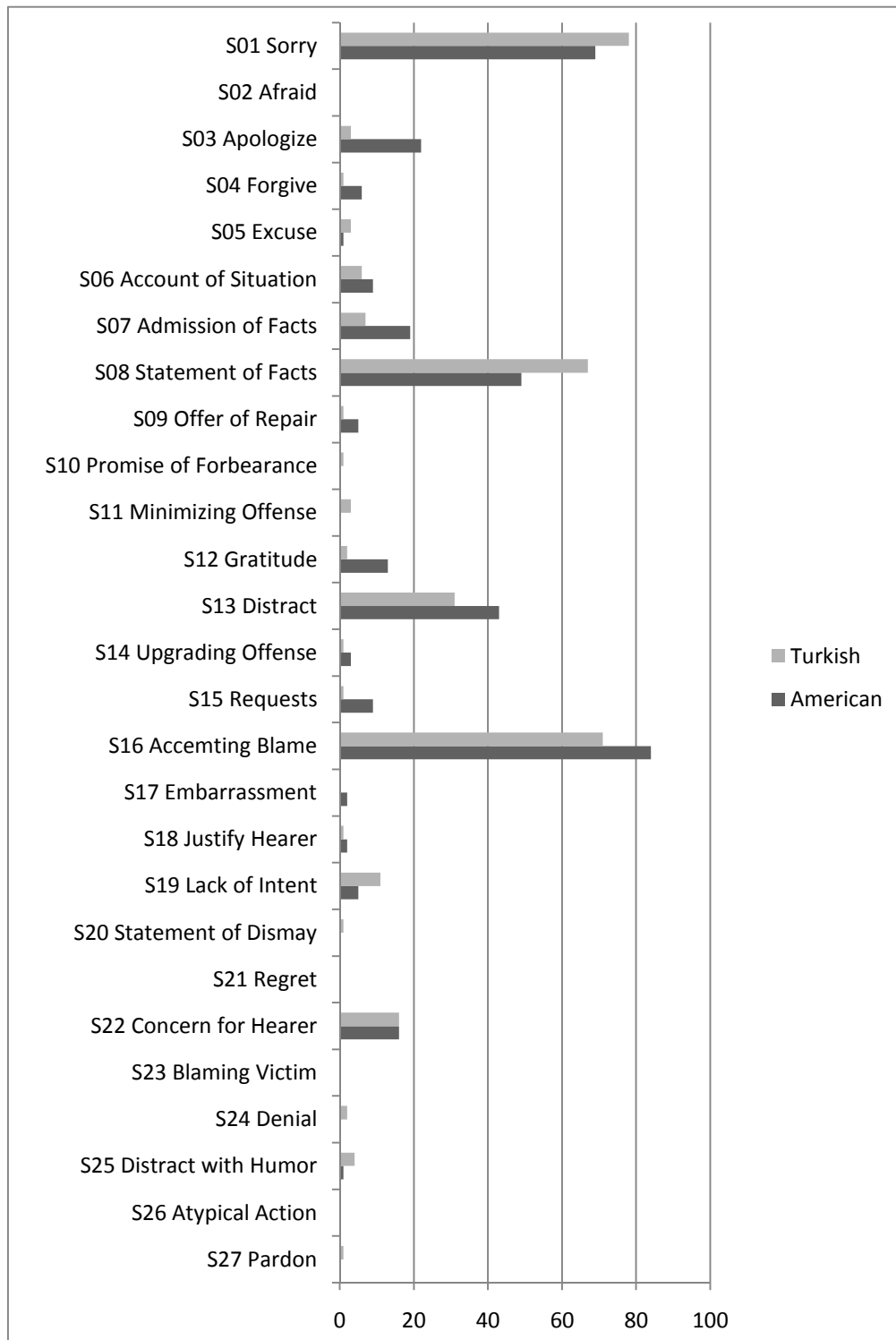


Table 130: Situation V chi-square test of overall distribution of head act strategies

	Value	Df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	61.177	22	.000

Table 130 above shows that the overall use of head act strategies by the two groups is significantly independent, $\chi^2(22, N = 200) = 61.177, p < .05$.

Situation V Alerters

Table 131 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for alerters in situation V.

Table 131: Situation V alerters

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVA1 Attention Getter	0	62	82	9.921	1	.002*
	1	38	18			
SVA2 Surname	0	100	97	3.046	1	.081
	1	0	3	1.354		.245
SVA3 First Name	0	97	100	3.046	1	.081
	1	3	0	1.354		.245
SVA4 Undetermined Name	0	96	97	.148	1	.700
	1	4	3	.000		1.000
SVA5 Title/Role	0	100	98	2.020	1	.155
	1	0	2	.505		.477
SVA6 Preparator	0	99	100	1.005	1	.316
	1	1	0	.000		1.000

As table 130 reveals, *attention getter* is used more commonly than the other five alerters and it is the only one that resulted in a significant difference between American and Turkish participants. While 38% of American participants used *attention getters*, only 18% of Turkish participants did so. The probability value for

this strategy is .002, which indicates a strong significant difference between the groups, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 9.921, p < .05$. Two of the strategies were only used by American participants. Three percent of them used *first name* and one percent used *preparator*. In contrast, two strategies were only used by Turkish participants. Three percent used *surname* and two percent used *title/role*. Finally, *undetermined name* was used by four percent of American and three percent of Turkish participants. Graph 34 depicts these results.

Graph 34: Situation V alerters

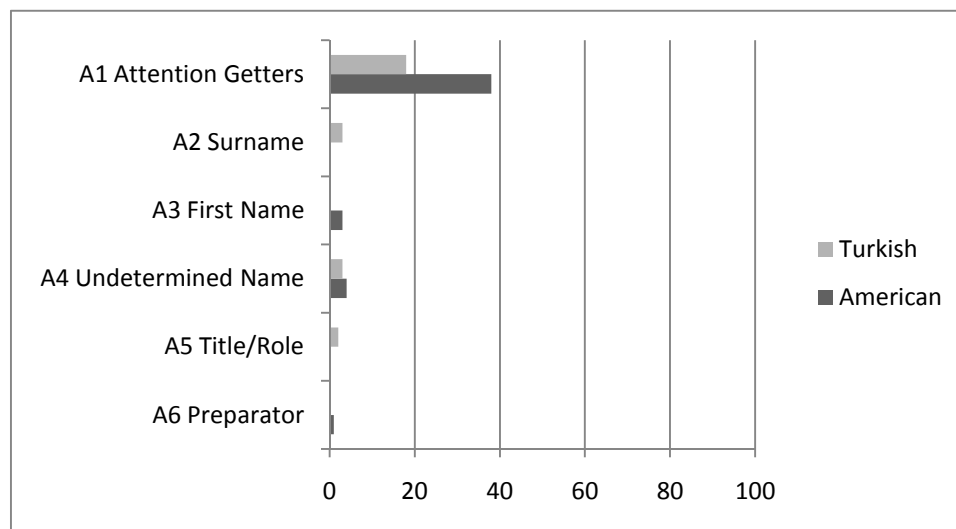


Table 132: Situation V chi-square test of overall distribution of alerters

	Value	Df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	11,627	5	,040

Table 132 shows that the overall alerter use by the two groups is significantly different, $\chi^2(5, N = 200) = 11.627, p < .05$.

Situation V Downgraders

Table 133 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for downgraders in situation V.

Table 133: Situation V downgraders

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVD1 Politeness	0	89	98	6.664	1	.010*
Markers	1	11	2			
SVD2 Subjectivizer	0	90	94	1.087	1	.297
	1	10	6			
SVD3 Hedge	0	100	100	.687	1	.407
SVD4 Appealer	0	96	98			
	1	4	2	.172		.678
SVD5 Pause Filler	0	91	90	.058	1	.809
	1	9	10			
SVD6 Understater	0	90	99	7.792	1	.005*
	1	10	1			
SVD7 Cajoler	0	97	80	14.198	1	.000*
	1	3	20			
SVD8 Surprise	0	100	100			

As is seen in table 133, *hedge* and *surprise* were not used by American and Turkish participants. Three strategies, on the other hand, resulted in significant differences. The first one is *politeness markers*. While 11% of American participants used this strategy, only two percent of Turkish participants resorted to it, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 6.664, p < .05$. The next one is *understater*, which was employed by 10% of American participants and only one percent of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 7.792, p < .05$. The third strategy that resulted in a significant difference is *cajoler*. Twenty percent of Turkish participants resorted to using *cajoler* whereas only three percent of American participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 14.198, p < .05$. The remaining three strategies did not show a statistical difference between the two groups. *Subjectivizer* was used by 10% of American and six percent of Turkish

participants. Moreover, *appealer* was used less than *subjectivizer*. Four percent of American and two percent of Turkish participants preferred this downgrader. Finally, *pause filler* was used by nine percent of American and 10% of Turkish participants. Graph 35 depicts these results.

Graph 35: Situation V downgraders

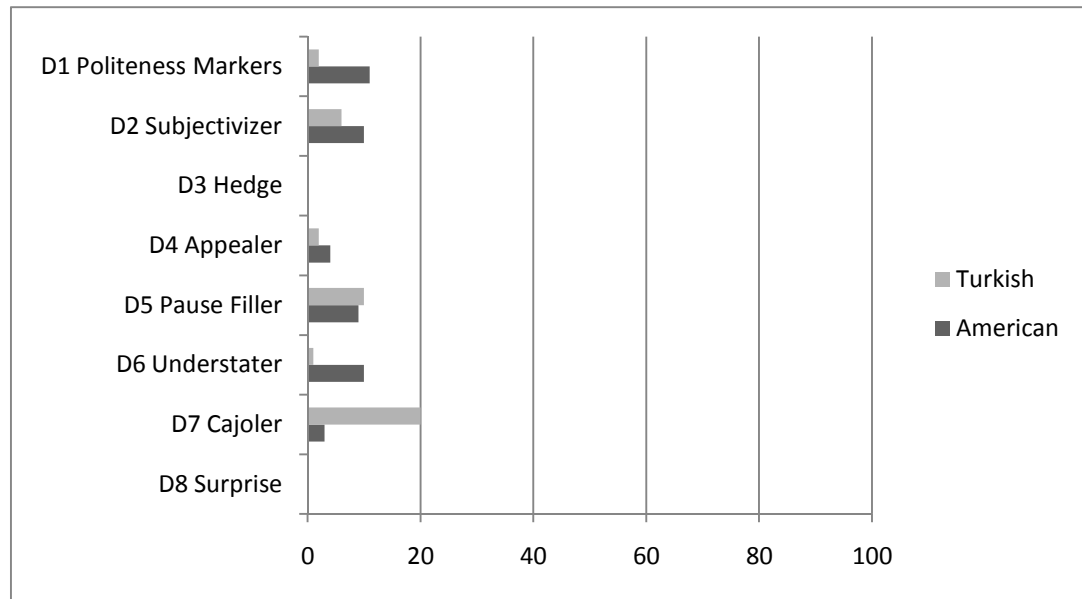


Table 134: Situation V chi-square test of overall distribution of downgraders

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	27,598	5	,000

Table 134 shows that the overall downgrader use by the two groups is significantly different, $\chi^2(5, N = 200) = 27.598, p < .05$.

Situation V Upgraders

Table 135 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for upgraders in situation V.

Table 135: Situation V upgraders

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVU1 Intensifier	0	80	90	3.922	1	.048*
	1	20	10			
SVU2 Emotional Expression	0	95	99	2.749	1	.097
	1	5	1	1.546		.214
SVU3 Emphasis	0	85	93	3.269	1	.071
	1	15	7			
SVU4 Expletive	0	100	100			
SVU5 Lexical Uptoner	0	94	99	3.701	1	.054
	1	6	1	2.369		.124
SVU6 Repetition	0	95	98	1.332	1	.248
	1	5	2	.592		.442

According to table 134, neither group used *expletive*. Among the ones that they used, only *intensifier* gave a significant result. While 20% of American participants employed *intensifier*, only 10% of Turkish participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 3.922, p < .05$. The remaining four strategies did not prove to be different between the groups. Of these four, *emphasis* was used relatively more as fifteen percent of American and seven percent of Turkish participants employed it. Also, the American group used the remaining three strategies more. For examples, five percent of them used *emotional expression*, which was only used by one percent of the Turkish group. Likewise, six percent of American and one percent of Turkish participants used *lexical uptoner*. The last upgrader, *repetition*, was used by five percent of American and two percent of Turkish participants. Graph 36 depicts these results.

Graph 36: Situation V upgraders

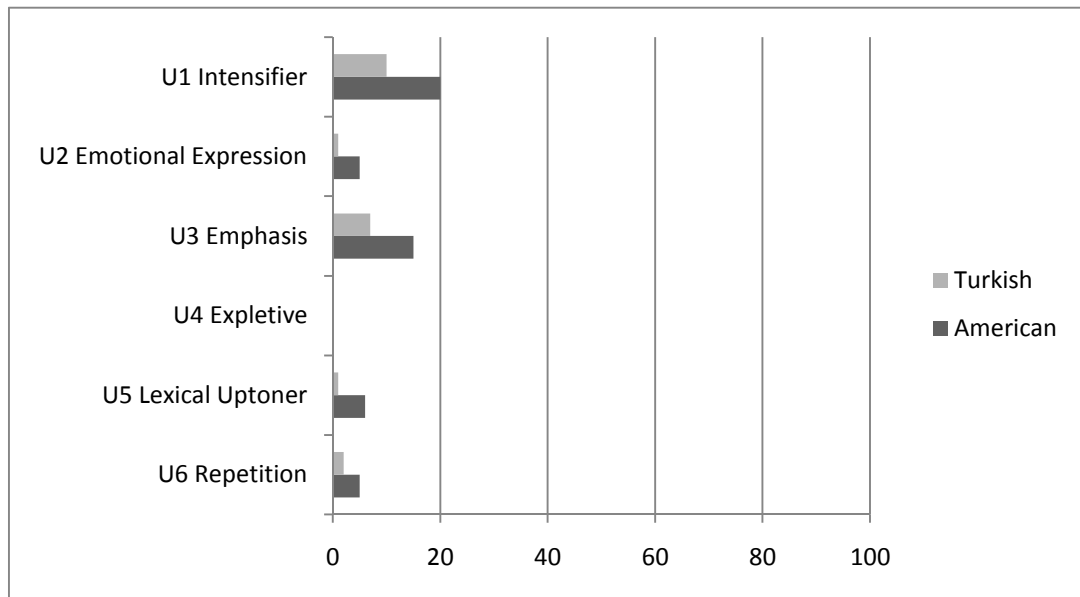


Table 136: Situation V chi-square test of overall distribution of upgraders

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	1,532	4	,821

Table 136 shows that the overall upgrader use by the two groups is not significantly different, $\chi^2(4, N = 200) = 1.532, p < .05$.

Situation V Overall

Overall distribution of tokens across all the strategies in four categories in situation V is shown in table 137.

Table 137: Situation V chi-square test of overall strategy distribution

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	111,874	39	,000

The overall strategy use including head act strategies, alerters, downgraders, upgraders by the two groups is significantly different, $\chi^2(39, N = 200) = 111.874, p < .05$.

Situation V T-tests

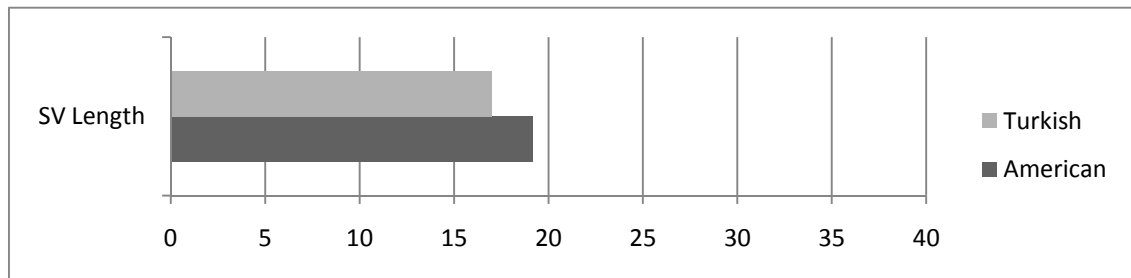
Table 138 shows the results of independent-samples t-test for the length of apologies and the number of strategies in situation V.

Table 138: T-tests for Situation V

	TeacherGroup	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	df	t	Sig.
SVLENGTH	1	100	19,2000	10,45143	198	1,601	,111
	2	100	17,0100	8,82432			
SVTotNumStr	1	100	5,0200	1,88015	198	4,143	,000*
	2	100	4,0000	1,58910			
SVNumberS	1	100	3,5800	1,08414	198	3,079	,002*
	2	100	3,1200	1,02770			
SVTotNumSup	1	100	1,4400	1,18339	198	3,588	,000*
	2	100	,8800	1,01782			
SVNumAlert	1	100	,4500	,62563	198	2,198	,029*
	2	100	,2600	,59662			
SVNumDown	1	100	,4700	,67353	198	,909	,365
	2	100	,3900	,56667			
SVNumUp	1	100	,5100	,83479	198	2,804	,006*
	2	100	,2300	,54781			

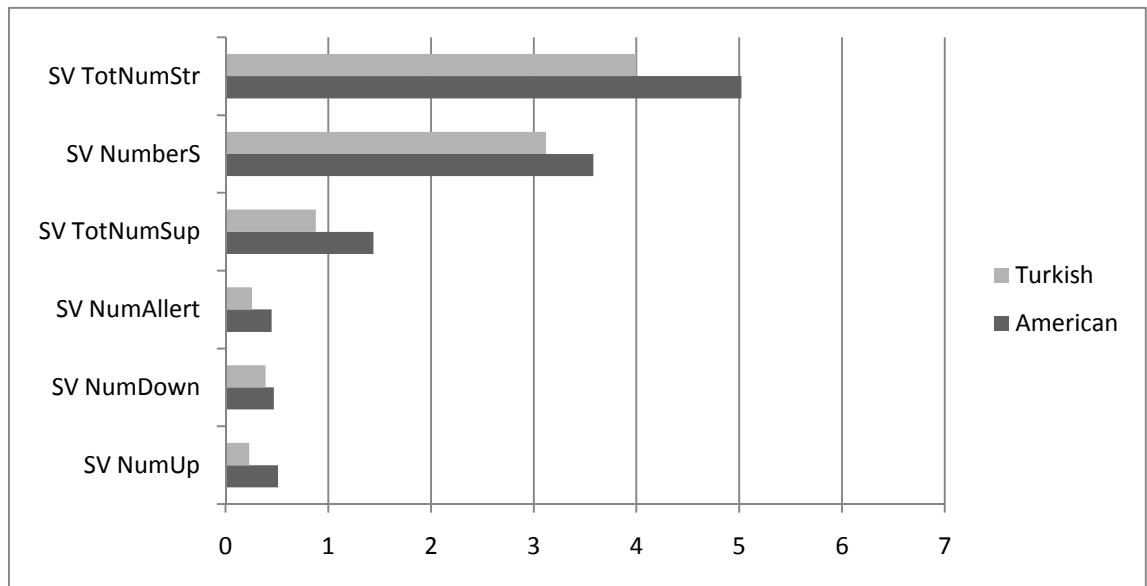
As table 137 reveals, unlike in previous situations the groups did not differ statistically in the mean lengths of the apologies they provided. The length of American participants' apologies is 19.2 ($SD = 19.20$) and the length of Turkish participants' apologies is 17.01 ($SD = 8.82$). This difference is insignificant $t(198) = 1.61, p = .111, p > .05$. Graph 37 depicts this result.

Graph 37: Length of apologies in situation V



When the numbers of strategies the participants used is looked at, significant differences in five categories are observed. Firstly, the groups differed in the total numbers of strategies they used. The American group ($M = 5.02$, $SD = 1.88$) used more strategies than the Turkish group ($M = 4.00$, $SD = 1.58$), which indicates a very strong significant difference, $t(198) = 4.14$, $p = .000$, $p < .05$. The groups also differed statistically in the number of strategies they used in the head act. American participants ($M = 3.58$, $SD = 1.08$) used more strategies in the head act than Turkish participants ($M = 3.12$, $SD = 1.02$). This difference is significant, $t(198) = 3.07$, $p = .002$, $p < .05$. When the total number of supportive moves is investigated, statistical difference is observed. The American group used 1.44 total supportive moves ($SD = 1.18$) as opposed to .88 supportive moves by the Turkish group ($SD = 1.01$), indicating a strong significance, $t(198) = 3.58$, $p = .000$, $p < .05$. The number of alerters is another category in which the groups differed, $t(198) = 2.19$, $p = .029$, $p < .05$. The American group ($M = .45$, $SD = .62$) used more alerters than the Turkish group ($M = .26$, $SD = .59$). The last category indicating a significant difference is upgraders. Again, the average number of upgraders the American group ($M = .51$, $SD = .83$) used is higher than that of the Turkish group ($M = .23$, $SD = .54$), resulting in a significant difference, $t(198) = 2.80$, $p = .006$, $p < .05$. The groups did not differ in the number of downgraders they employed. The American group used .47 and the Turkish group used .39 downgraders. Graph 38 depicts these results.

Graph 38: Numbers of strategies in situation V



3.7.1. ANALYSIS OF COMMON STRATEGIES IN SITUATION V

T-test results of the situation V show us that the average number of strategies used by the American participants is around five and for Turkish participants around four. The five most common strategies in the American participants' apology acts are *sorry*, *statement of facts, but not responsibility*, *distract*, *accepting blame* and *attention getter*. Meanwhile, the four most common strategies in the Turkish participants' apology acts, however, are *sorry*, *statement of facts, but not responsibility*, *distract* and *accepting blame*.

Five Common Strategies in American Participants' Acts

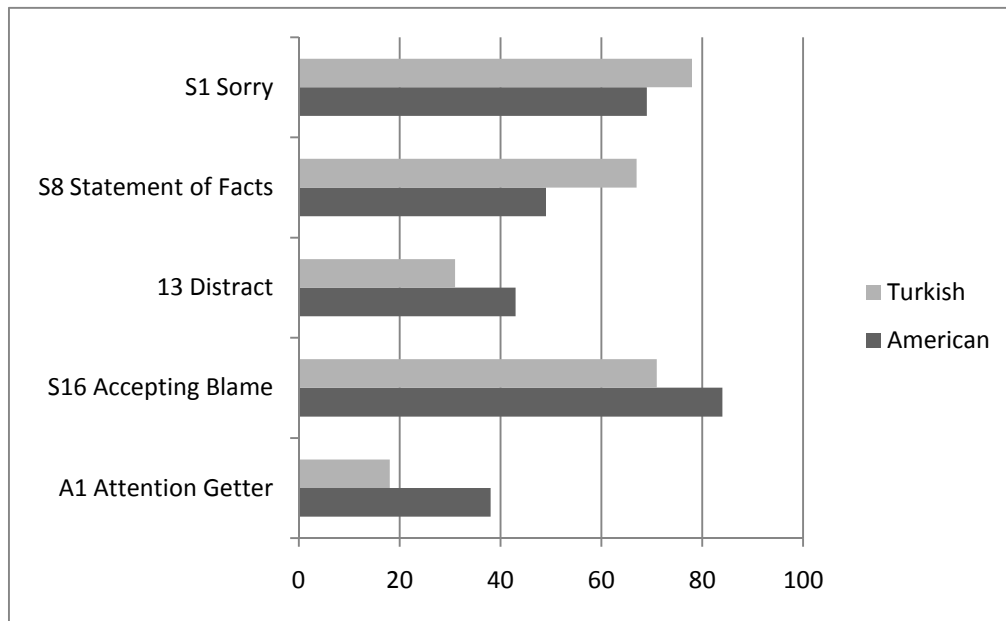
Table 139 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for five common strategies in American participants' apologies in situation V.

Table 139: Common strategies by American participants in situation V

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVS1 Sorry	0	31	22	2.079	1	.149
	1	69	78			
SVS8 Statement of Facts	0	51	33	6.650	1	.010*
	1	49	67			
SVS13 Distract	0	57	69	3.089	1	.079
	1	43	31			
SVS16 Accepting Blame	0	16	29	4.846	1	.028*
	1	84	71			
SVA1 Attention Getter	0	62	82	9.921	1	.002*
	1	38	18			

As is seen table 139, American participants differed from Turkish participants in three of the five strategies they commonly used: *statement of facts but not responsibility*, *accepting blame* and *attention getter*. While 67% the Turkish participants used *statement of facts but not responsibility*, 49% of American participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 6.650, p < .05$. Moreover, *accepting blame* was used by 84% of American participants while it is used by 71% of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 4.846, p < .05$. The other strategy that resulted in a significant difference is *attention getter*, which was used by 38% of American participants and only 18% of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 9.921, p < .05$. The other strategies did not result in significant differences. *Sorry* was used by 69% of American and 78% of Turkish participants. *Distract* was employed by 43% of American and 31% of Turkish participants. Graph 39 depicts these results.

Graph 39: Common strategies by American participants in situation V



Four Common Strategies in Turkish Participants' Acts

Table 140 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for four common strategies in Turkish participants' apologies in situation V.

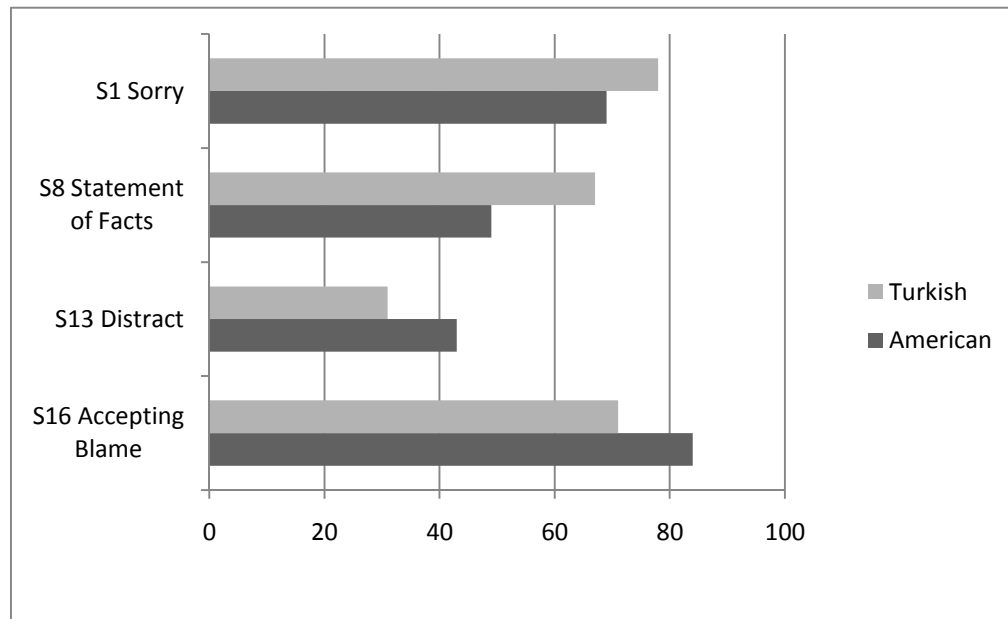
Table 140: Common strategies by Turkish participants in situation V

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVS1 Sorry	0	31	22	2.079	1	.149
	1	69	78			
SVS8 Statement of Facts	0	51	33	6.650	1	.010*
	1	49	67			
SVS13 Distract	0	57	69	3.089	1	.079
	1	43	31			
SVS16 Accepting Blame	0	16	29	4.846	1	.028*
	1	84	71			

The four common strategies in the Turkish participants' apology acts are also in the common strategies in the American participants' apology acts. The details of these

strategies are given in the section about the common strategies American participants used in situation V. Graph 39 depicts these results.

Graph 40: Common strategies by Turkish participants in situation V



3.8. SITUATION VI: KNOCKING OVER A VASE AND A PICTURE

In this section, the results of the statistical analysis for situation VI are given. The situation's sociopragmatic design is given in table 141. In this situation the power of the speaker is high and the distance between the speaker and the hearer and the imposition are low.

Situation VI:

You are the director of a department in a company. As you are passing by your secretary's table, you accidentally knock over a vase and a framed picture on the ground. Luckily, they don't break.

Table 141: Sociopragmatic design of situation VI

<i>Sociopragmatic Design</i>	Power	+	Distance	-	Imposition	-

Situation VI Strategies in the Head Act

Table 142 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for the strategies in the head act in situation VI.

Table 142: Situation VI chi-square table for strategies in the head act

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVIS1 Sorry	0	20	41	10.402	1	.001*
	1	80	59			
SVIS2 Afraid	0	100	100	2.020	1	.155
SVIS3 Apologize	0	98	100			
	1	2	0	.505		.477
SVIS4 Forgive	0	98	99	.338	1	.561
	1	2	1	.000		1.000
SVIS5 Excuse	0	97	99	1.020	1	.312
	1	3	1	.255		.614
SVIS6 Account of Situation	0	97	97	.000	1	1.000
	1	3	3	.000		1.000

SVIS7 Admission of Facts	0	100	100			
SVIS8 Statement of Facts	0	100	100			
SVIS9 Offer of Repair	0 1	67 33	93 7	21.125	1	.000*
SVIS10 Promise of Forbearance	0 1	94 6	99 1	3.701 2.369	1	.054 .124
SVIS11 Minimizing Offense	0 1	51 49	37 63	3.977	1	.046*
SVIS12 Expressing Gratitude	0	100	100			
SVIS13 Distract	0 1	88 12	97 3	5.838	1	.016*
SVIS14 Upgrading Offense	0 1	99 1	99 1	.000 .000	1	.081 1.000
SVIS15 Request	0 1	100 0	97 3	3.046 1.354	1	.081 .245
SVIS16 Accepting Blame	0 1	60 40	78 22	7.574	1	.006*
SVIS17 Expression of Embarrassment	0 1	100 0	99 1	1.005 .000	1	.316 1.000
SVIS18 Justifying Hearer	0	100	100			
SVIS19 Lack of Intent	0 1	97 3	97 3	.000 .000	1	1.000 1.000
SVIS20 Statement of Dismay	0 1	96 4	100 0	4.082 2.296	1	.043* .130
SVIS21 Regret	0 1	100 0	99 1	1.005 .000	1	.316 1.000
SVIS22 Concern for Hearer	0 1	94 6	96 4	.421	1	.516
SVIS23 Blaming Victim	0 1	100 0	96 4	4.082 2.296	1	.043* .130
SVIS24 Denial	0 1	99 1	100 0	1.005 .000	1	.316 1.000
SVIS25 Distract with Humor	0 1	88 12	86 14	.177	1	.674
SVIS26 Atypical Action	0 1	100 0	99 1	1.005 .000	1	.316 1.000
SVIS27 Pardon	0 1	99 1	99 1	.000 .000	1	1.000 1.000

According to table 142, five of the strategies were not used by the participants. These strategies are *afraid*, *admission of facts but not responsibility*, *statement of facts but not responsibility*, *expressing gratitude* and *justifying hearer*. Seven of the strategies

resulted in significant differences. The first one is *sorry*. While 80% of American participants used this strategy, only 59% of Turkish participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 10.402, p < .05$. *Offer of repair* was used by 33% of American and seven percent of Turkish participants, which resulted in a p value of .000, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 21.125, p < .05$. On the other hand, *minimizing offense* was used by Turkish participants more. Sixty-three percent of Turkish participants employed *minimizing offense* whereas only 49% of American participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 3.977, p < .05$. As for *distract*, 12% of American and three percent of Turkish participants used it, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 5.838, p < .05$. *Accepting blame* is another strategy that resulted in a significant difference. While 40% of American participants used this strategy, only 22% of Turkish participants resorted to it, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 7.574, p < .05$. Although *statement/question of dismay* and *blaming victim* were not commonly used, they resulted in a significant difference. Only American participants (4%) used *statement/question of dismay*, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 4.082, p < .05$. *Blaming victim*, however, was only used by four percent of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 4.082, p < .05$. Both strategies show no difference when Yates' correction factor is applied, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 2.296, p > .05$. The remaining strategies did not result in significant differences between American and Turkish participants. Two of these were only used by American participants. Two percent of American participants used *apologize* and one percent used *denial*. Four strategies were only used by Turkish participants: *request*, *expression of embarrassment*, *regret* and *atypical action*. Three percent of Turkish participants used *request* and only one percent of them used *expression of embarrassment*, *regret* and *atypical action*. Four other strategies were equally used by both groups. Three percent of the groups used *account of the situation* and *expressing lack of intent*. One percent of the groups used *upgrading offense* and *pardon*. The other five strategies were minimally used by both groups. *Forgive* was used by two percent of American and one percent of Turkish participants. Likewise, *excuse* was used by three percent of American and one percent of the Turkish participants. Six percent of American participants used *promise of forbearance* and *concern for hearer*, which were used by one percent and four percent of Turkish participants, respectively. Finally, *distract with humor* was

used by 12% of American and 14% of Turkish participants. Graph 41 depicts these results.

Graph 41: Situation VI strategies in the head act

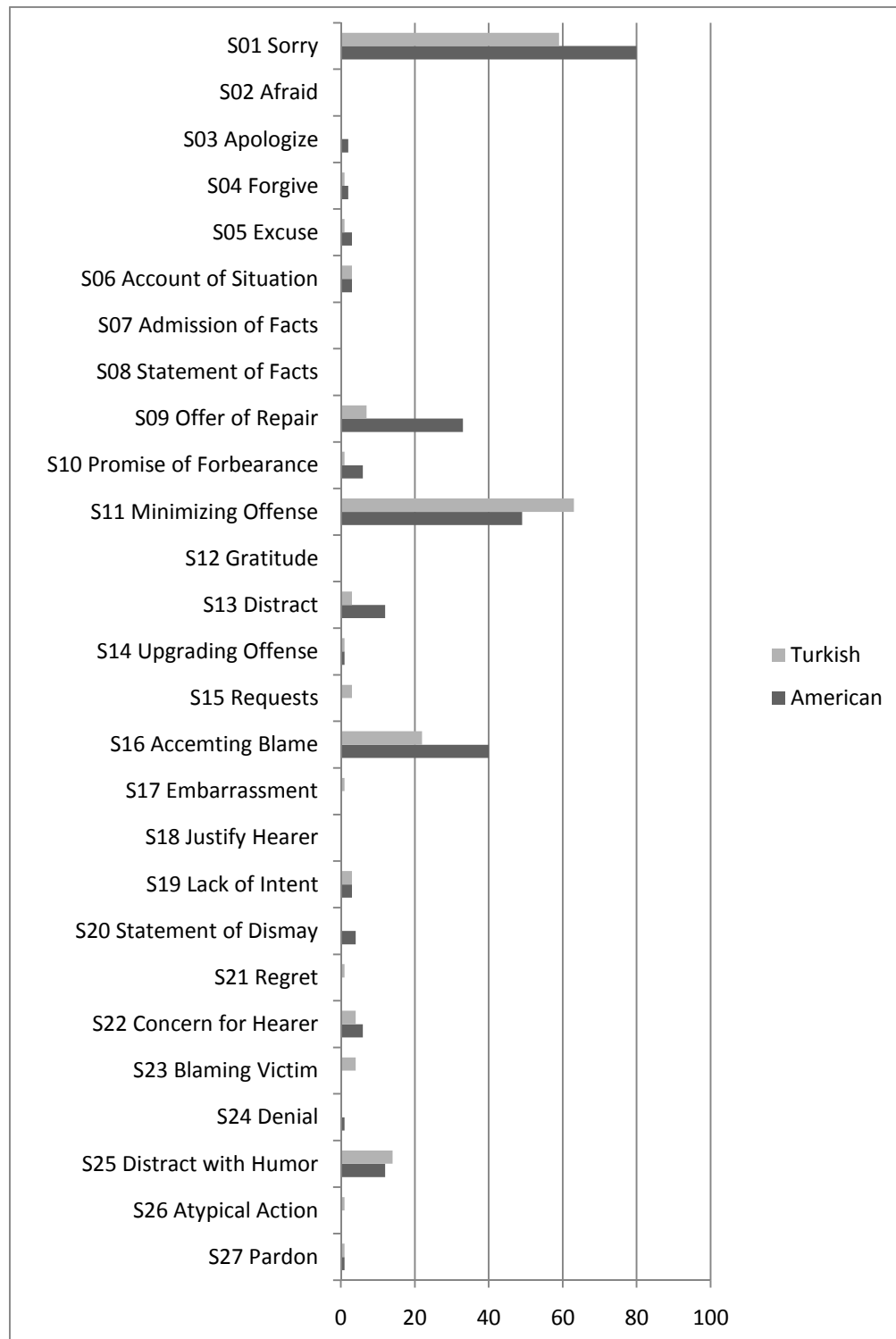


Table 143: Situation VI chi-square test of overall distribution of head act strategies

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	46,505	21	,001

Table 143 shows that the overall use of head act strategies by the two groups is significantly different, $\chi^2(21, N = 200) = 46.505, p < .05$.

Situation VI Alerters

Table 144 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for alerters in situation VI.

Table 144: Situation VI alerters

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVIA1 Attention Getters	0	100	100			
SVIA2 Surname	0	100	98	2.020	1	.155
	1	0	2	.505		.477
SVIA3 First Name	0	95	100	5.128	1	.024*
	1	5	0	3.282		.070
SVIA4 Undetermined Name	0	95	98	1.332	1	.248
	1	5	2	.592		.442
SVIA5 Title/Role	0	100	98	2.020	1	.155
	1	0	2	.505		.477
SVIA6 Preparator	0	100	100			

As table 143 shows, alerters were not common in participants' apology acts in situation VI. Two of them were not used at all: *attention getter* and *preparator*. *First name* resulted in a significant difference and was used only by five percent of

American participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 5.128, p < .05$. However, when Yates' correction is applied, this strategy shows no difference, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 3.282, p > .05$. Two of the strategies, *surname* and *title/role*, were only used by two percent of Turkish participants. Finally, *undetermined name* was used by five percent of American and two percent of Turkish participants. Graph 42 depicts these results.

Graph 42: Situation VI alerters

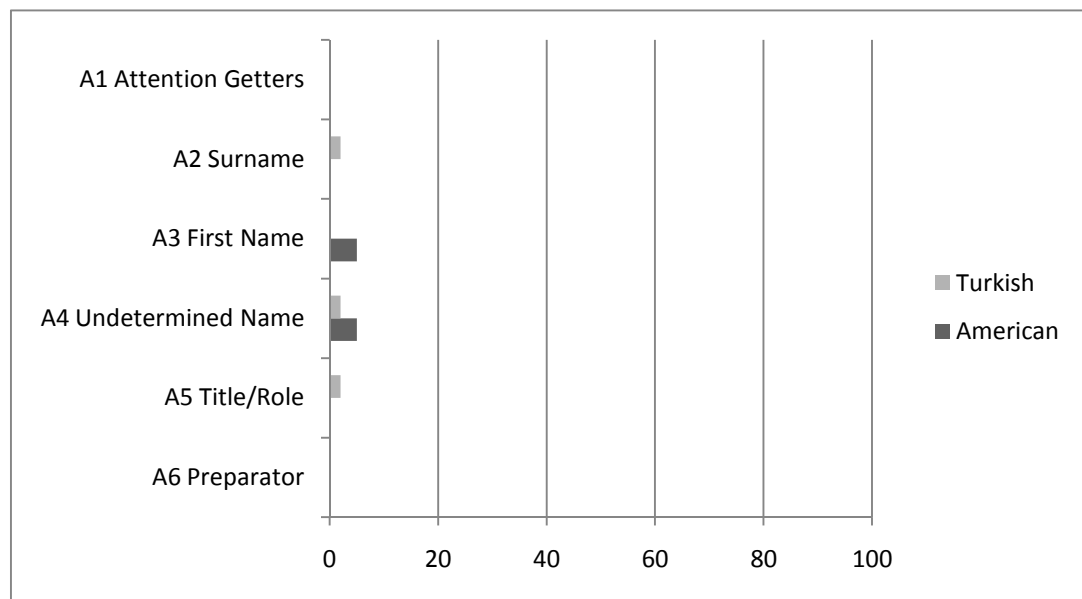


Table 145: Situation VI chi-square test of overall distribution of alerters

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	9,905	3	,019

Table 145 shows that the overall alerter use by the two groups is significantly different, $\chi^2(3, N = 200) = 9.905, p < .05$.

Situation VI Downgraders

Table 146 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for downgraders in situation VI.

Table 146: Situation VI downgraders

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVID1 Politeness	0	96	97	.148		.700
Markers	1	4	3	.000	1	1.000
SVID2 Subjectivizer	0	97	92	2.405	1	.121
	1	3	8			
SVID3 Hedge	0	99	100	1.005	1	.316
	1	1	0	.000		1.000
SVID4 Appealer	0	98	96	.687	1	.407
	1	2	4	.172		.678
SVID5 Pause Filler	0	99	99	.000	1	1.000
	1	1	1	.000		1.000
SVID6 Understater	0	100	99	1.005	1	.316
	1	0	1	.000		1.000
SVID7 Cajoler	0	100	98	2.020	1	.155
	1	0	2	.505		.477
SVID8 Surprise	0	95	100	5.128	1	.024*
	1	5	0	3.282		.070

Table 146 shows that the participants did not resort to downgraders much in situation VI although each one was used. The only downgrader that resulted in a significant difference is *surprise*. While five percent of American participants employed *surprise*, none of Turkish participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 5.128, p < .05$. With Yates' correction, there is no significant difference, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 3.282, p > .05$. *Pause filler*, though, was used by one percent of both groups. Only one percent of American participants used *hedge*. In contrast, only one percent of Turkish participants used *understater* and two percent used *cajoler*. Meanwhile, *politeness markers* were used by four percent of American and three percent of Turkish

participants. *Subjectivizer* was used by three percent of American and eight percent of Turkish participants. Finally, two percent of American and four percent of Turkish participants used *appealer*. Graph 43 depicts these results.

Graph 43: Situation VI downgraders

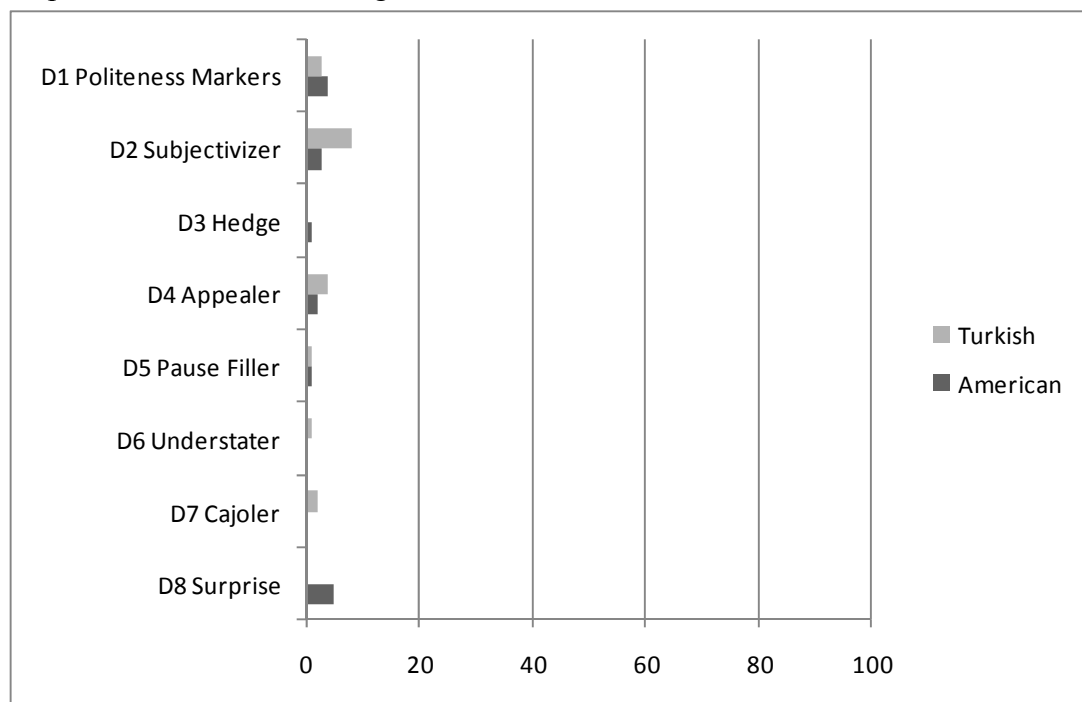


Table 147: Situation VI chi-square test of overall distribution of downgraders

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	11,913	7	,103

Table 147 shows that the overall downgrader use by the two groups is significantly different, $\chi^2(7, N = 200) = 11.913, p < .05$.

Situation VI Upgraders

Table 148 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for upgraders in situation VI.

Table 148: Situation VI upgraders

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVIU1 Intensifier	0	68	91	16.229	1	.000*
	1	32	9			
SVIU2 Emotional Expression	0	33	51	6.650	1	.010*
	1	67	49			
SVIU3 Emphasis	0	63	78	5.409	1	.020*
	1	37	22			
SVIU4 Expletive	0	99	100	1.005	1	.316
	1	1	0			
SVIU5 Lexical Uptoner	0	100	100			
SVIU6 Repetition	0	93	99	4.688	1	.030*
	1	7	1			

As is seen in table 147, four of the six upgraders resulted in significant differences between American and Turkish participants. The first one is *intensifier*, which was used by 32% of American participants while only nine percent of Turkish participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 16.229, p < .05$. *Emotional expression* was also commonly used and resulted in a significant difference. While 67% of American participants used it, only 49% of Turkish participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 6.650, p < .05$. *Emphasis* is another upgrader that resulted in a significant difference. Thirty-seven percent of American participants employed it as opposed to 22% by Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 5.409, p < .05$. The last strategy that resulted in a significant difference is *repetition*, which was used by seven percent of American

and one percent of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 4.688, p < .05$. When Yates' correction is applied, this strategy does not show a significant difference, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 3.255, p > .05$. As for the other two strategies, *expletive* was only used by the American group (1%) and *lexical uptoner* was not used by any of the participants. Graph 44 depicts these results.

Graph 44: Situation VI upgraders

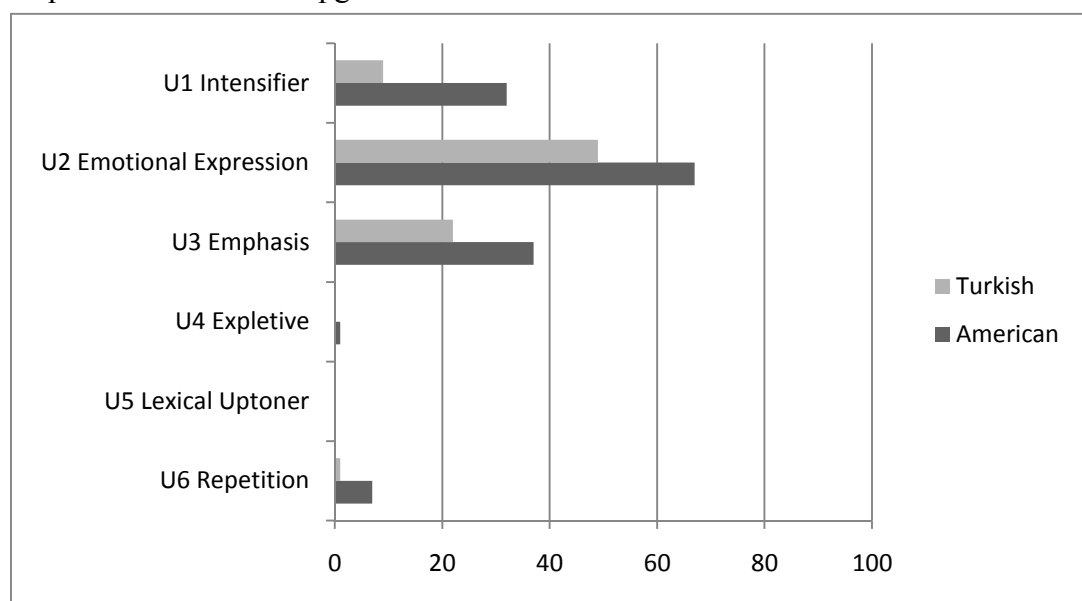


Table 149: Situation VI chi-square test of overall distribution of upgraders

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	7,996	4	,092

Table 149 shows that the overall upgrader use by the two groups is not significantly different, $\chi^2(4, N = 200) = 44.561, p > .05$.

Situation VI Overall

Overall distribution of tokens across all the strategies in four categories in situation VI is shown in table 150.

Table 150: Situation VI chi-square test of overall strategy distribution

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	81,975	38	,000

The overall strategy use including head act strategies, alerters, downgraders and upgraders by American and Turkish participants is significantly independent, $\chi^2(38, N = 200) = 81.975, p < .05$.

Situation VI T-tests

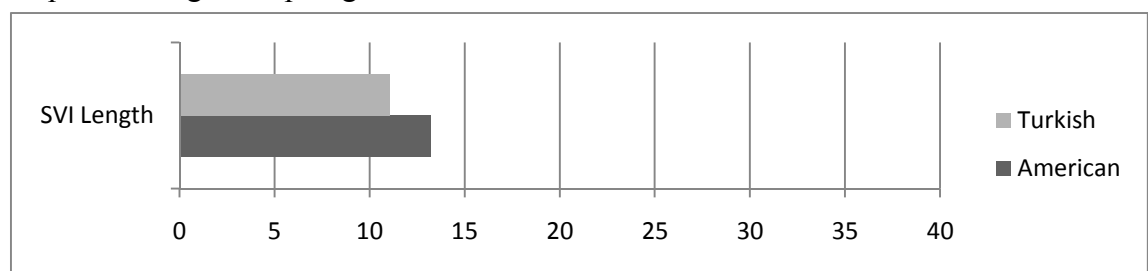
Table 151 shows the results of independent-samples t-test for the length of apologies and the number of strategies in situation VI.

Table 151: T-tests for situation VI

	TeacherGroup	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	df	t	Sig.
SVILENGTH	1	100	13,2100	7,89616	198	1,945	,053
	2	100	11,0800	7,58744			
SVITotNumStr	1	100	4,2800	1,68822	198	5,580	,000*
	2	100	2,9900	1,57951			
SVINumberS	1	100	2,5800	1,08414	198	4,352	,000*
	2	100	1,9300	1,02745			
SVITotNumSup	1	100	1,7000	,97959	198	4,627	,000*
	2	100	1,0700	,94554			
SVINumAlert	1	100	,1000	,30151	198	1,040	,300
	2	100	,0600	,23868			
SVINumDown	1	100	,1600	,39492	198	-,506	,614
	2	100	,1900	,44256			
SVINumUp	1	100	1,4400	,87985	198	5,497	,000*
	2	100	,8100	,73437			

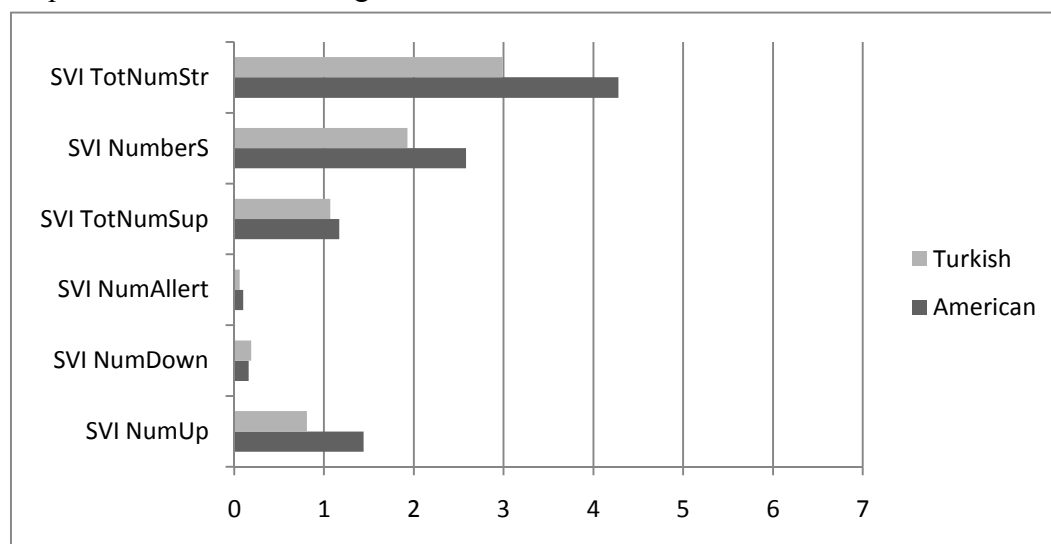
According to the results of the *t*-test analysis shown in table 151, the mean lengths of the apologies of both groups are not statistically different. The length of the apologies provided by American participants is 13.21 words (*SD* = 7.89) while the length of the apology acts of Turkish participants is 11.08 (*SD* = 7.58), $t(198) = 1.945$, $p = .053$ $p > .05$. Graph 45 depicts this result.

Graph 45: Length of apologies in situation VI



As is seen in the *t*-test results of the number of strategies used by the two groups, significant differences occurred in four categories. The first one is the total number of strategies. American participants ($M = 4.28$, $SD = 1.68$) used more strategies than Turkish participants ($M = 2.99$, $SD = 1.57$). This difference is very significant, $t(198) = 5.58$, $p = .000$, $p < .05$. The next category in which the groups differed is the number of strategies in the head act. Again, American participants ($M = 2.58$, $SD = 1.08$) used more strategies in the head act than Turkish participants ($M = 1.93$, $SD = 1.02$), which resulted in a significant difference, $t(198) = 4.35$, $p = .000$, $p < .05$. The groups also differed in total number of supportive moves they used. The number of supportive moves the American group ($M = 1.70$, $SD = .97$) used is significantly higher than the Turkish group ($M = 1.07$, $SD = .94$), $t(198) = 4.627$, $p = .000$, $p < .05$. The last category that resulted in a significant difference is the number of upgraders. American participants used 1.44 upgraders ($SD = .87$) whereas Turkish participants used only .81 upgraders ($SD = .73$), $t(198) = 5.497$, $p = .000$, $p < .05$. The other two categories did not result in significant differences. While American participants used an average of .10 alerters, Turkish participants used an average of .06. Also, American participants used an average of .16 and Turkish participants used an average of .19 downgraders. Graph 46 depicts these results.

Graph 46: Number of strategies in situation VI



3.8.1. ANALYSIS OF COMMON STRATEGIES IN SITUATION VI

According to the results of the *t*-test, the average number of strategies used by American participants is around four and for Turkish participants around three. The four most common strategies in American participants' apology acts are *sorry*, *minimizing offense*, *accepting blame* and *emotional expression*. The three most common strategies in Turkish participants' apology acts, however, are *sorry*, *minimizing offense* and *emotional expression*.

Four Common Strategies in American Participants' Acts

Table 152 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for four common strategies in American participants' apologies in situation VI.

Table 152: Common strategies by American participants in situation VI

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVIS1 Sorry	0	20	41	10.402	1	.001*
	1	80	59			
SVIS11 Minimizing Offense	0	51	37	3.977	1	.046*
	1	49	63			
SVIS16 Accepting Blame	0	60	78	7.574	1	.006*
	1	40	22			
SVIU2 Emotional Expression	0	33	51	6.650	1	.010*
	1	67	49			

As table 152 reveals, American participants differed from Turkish participants in all of the strategies they commonly used. To illustrate, *sorry* was used by 80% of American participants while it was used by only 59% of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 10.402, p < .05$. On the contrary, Turkish participants (%69) used *minimizing offense* significantly more than American participants (%49), $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 3.977, p < .05$. *Accepting blame*, on the other hand, was used by 40% of American participants whereas it was used only by 22% of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 7.574, p < .05$. Finally, 67% of American participants employed *emotional expression*, while only 49% of Turkish participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 6.650, p < .05$. Graph 47 depicts these results.

Graph 47: Common strategies by American participants in situation VI



Three Common Strategies in Turkish Participants' Acts

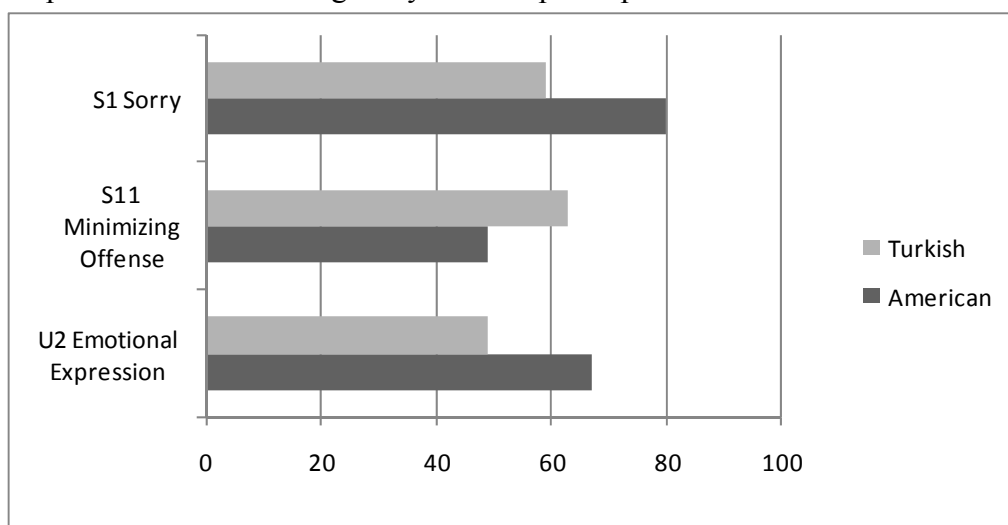
Table 153 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for three common strategies in Turkish participants' apologies in situation VI.

Table 153: Common strategies by Turkish participants in situation VI

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVIS1 Sorry	0	20	41	10.402	1	.001*
	1	80	59			
SVIS11 Minimizing Offense	0	51	37	3.977	1	.046*
	1	49	63			
SVIU2 Emotional Expression	0	33	51	6.650	1	.010*
	1	67	49			

The three common strategies in the Turkish participants' apology acts are also among the common strategies in American participants' apology acts. The details of these strategies are given in the section about the common strategies American participants used in situation VI. Graph 48 depicts these results.

Graph 48: Common strategies by Turkish participants in situation VI



3.9. SITUATION VII: DROPPING BOOKS

In this section, the results of the statistical analysis for situation VII are given. The situation's sociopragmatic design is given in table 154. In this situation the power of the speaker and the imposition are low and the distance between the speaker and the hearer is high.

Situation VII:

You are a researcher. Since you need financial support for one of your projects, you apply to a science foundation for a grant. Now you are in the office of the director of the foundation to present your project. While presenting, you use the board that is next to a bookcase and accidentally hit it with your elbow and a couple of books fall on the ground.

Table 154: Sociopragmatic design of situation VII

<i>Sociopragmatic Design</i>	Power	-	Distance	+	Imposition	-

Situation VII Strategies in the Head Act

Table 155 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for the strategies in the head act in situation VII.

Table 155: Situation VII chi-square table for strategies in the head act

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVIIS1 Sorry	0	47	32	4.708	1	.030*
	1	53	68			
SVIIS2 Afraid	0	100	100			
SVIIS3 Apologize	0	99	98	.338	1	.561
	1	1	2			
SVIIS4 Forgive	0	98	97	.205	1	.651
	1	2	3			
SVIIS5 Excuse	0	80	94	8.665	1	.003*
	1	20	6			
SVIIS6 Account of Situation	0	96	80	12.121	1	.000*
	1	4	20			

SVIIS7 Admission of Facts	0 1	99 1	99 1	.000 .000	1	1.000 1.000
SVIIS8 Statement of Facts	0 1	100 0	97 3	3.046 1.354	1	.081 .245
SVIIS9 Offer of Repair	0 1	62 38	68 32	.791	1	.374
SVIIS10 Promise of Forbearance	0	100	100			
SVIIS11 Minimizing Offense	0 1	99 1	97 3	1.020 .255	1	.312 .614
SVIIS12 Expressing Gratitude	0	100	100			
SVIIS13 Distract	0 1	86 14	87 13	.043	1	.836
SVIIS14 Upgrading Offense	0	100	100			
SVIIS15 Request	0 1	99 1	98 2	.338 .000	1	.561 1.000
SVIIS16 Accepting Blame	0 1	84 16	68 32	7.018	1	.008*
SVIIS17 Expression of Embarrassment	0	100	100			
SVIIS18 Justifying Hearer	0	100	100			
SVIIS19 Lack of Intent	0 1	99 1	93 7	4.688 3.255	1	.030* .070
SVIIS20 Statement of Dismay	0 1	94 6	100 0	6.186 4.296	1	.013* .038*
SVIIS21 Regret	0 1	100 0	99 1	1.005 .000	1	.316 1.000
SVIIS22 Concern for Hearer	0 1	99 1	100 0	1.005 .000	1	.316 1.000
SVIIS23 Blaming Victim	0	100	100			
SVIIS24 Denial	0	100	100			
SVIIS25 Distract with Humor	0 1	88 12	86 14	.177	1	.674
SVIIS26 Atypical Action	0	100	100			
SVIIS27 Pardon	0 1	99 1	94 6	3.701 2.369	1	.054 .124

Table 155 reveals that nine strategies were not used by American and Turkish participants. These strategies are *afraid*, *promise of forbearance*, *expecting gratitude*, *upgrading offense*, *expression of embarrassment*, *justifying hearer*, *blaming victim*, *denial* and *atypical action*. Six strategies resulted in significant results. First, while 68% of Turkish participants used *sorry*, only 53% of American participants did so,

$\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 4.708, p < .05$. Second, while *excuse* was used by 20% of American participants, only six percent of Turkish participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 8.665, p < .05$. Third, *account of the situation* is the next strategy that resulted in a significant difference. Twenty percent of Turkish participants used this strategy whereas only four percent of American participants used it, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 12.121, p < .05$. As for *accepting blame*, 32% of Turkish participants used this strategy while only 16% of American participants resorted to it, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 7.018, p < .05$. The other two strategies that resulted in a significant difference were less commonly used. For example, *expressing lack of intent* was used by one percent of American and seven percent of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 4.688, p < .05$. However, when Yates' correction factor is applied, this strategy does not show a significant difference, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 3.255, p > .05$. Also uncommon, *statement/question of dismay* was used by six percent of American and none of the Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 6.186, p < .05$. The remaining strategies did not result in statistical differences between the groups. Among these, *offer of repair*, *distract* and *distract with humor* were used more commonly than the others. *Offer of repair* was used by 38% of American and 32% of Turkish participants. Meanwhile, *distract* was used by 14% of American and 13% of Turkish participants. Likewise, *distract with humor* was used by 12% of American and 14% of Turkish participants. The remaining nine strategies are as follows: First, *apologize* was used by one percent of American and two percent of Turkish participants. Second, *forgive* was used by two percent of American and three percent of Turkish participants. Third, *admission of facts but not responsibility* was used by one percent of both groups. Fourth, *statement of facts but not responsibility* was used by three percent of Turkish participants but none of Americans. Fifth, *minimizing offense* was used by one percent of American and three percent of Turkish participants. Sixth, *request* was used by one percent of American and three percent of Turkish participants. Seventh, *regret* was only used by one percent of Turkish participants. Eighth, *concern for hearer* was only used by one percent of American participants. Finally, *pardon* was used by one percent of American and six percent of Turkish participants. Graph 49 depicts these results.

Graph 49: Situation VII strategies in the head act

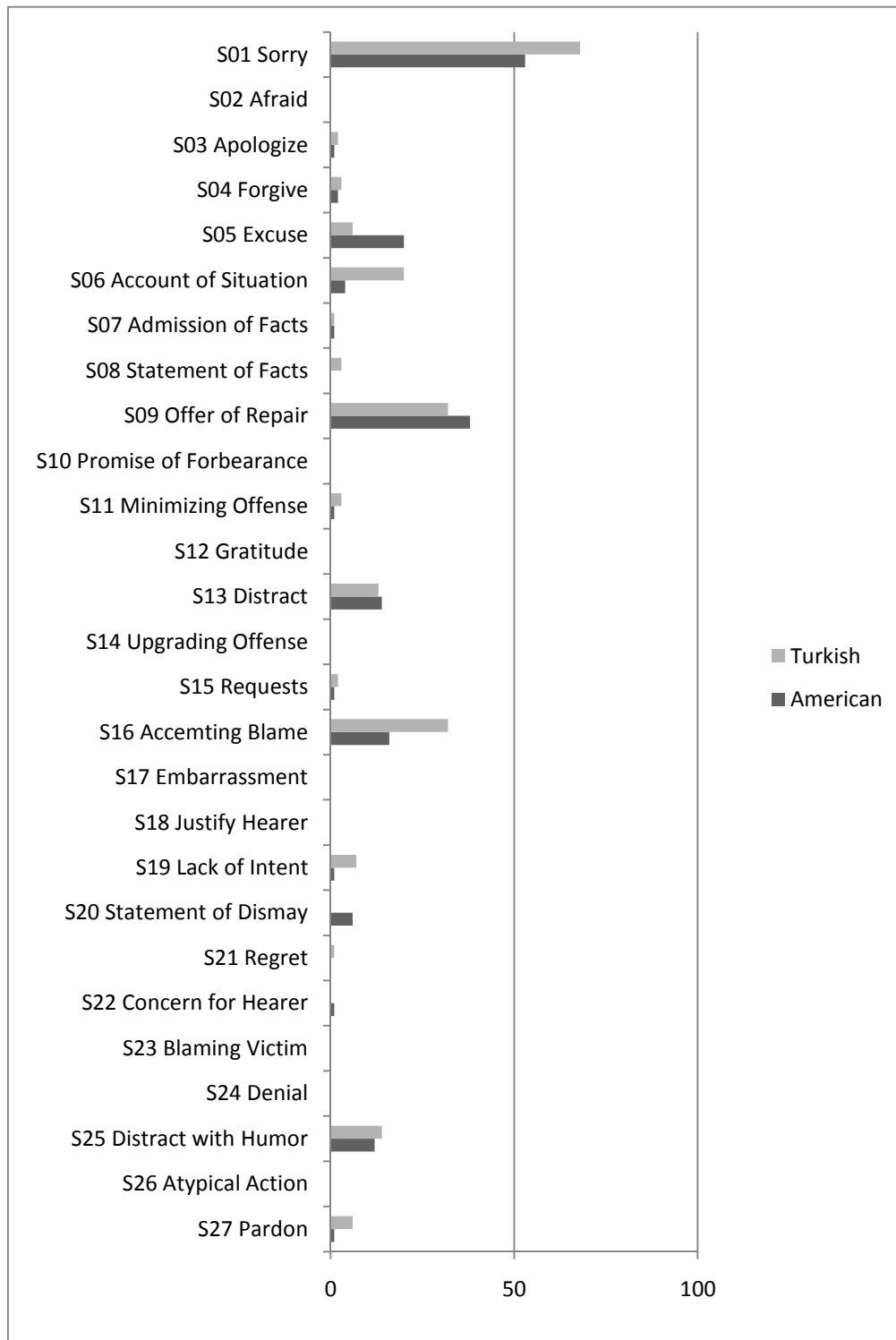


Table 156: Situation VII chi-square test of overall distribution of head act strategies

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	43,165	17	,000

Table 156 shows that the overall use of head act strategies by the two groups is significantly independent, $\chi^2(17, N = 200) = 43.165, p < .05$.

Situation VII Alerters

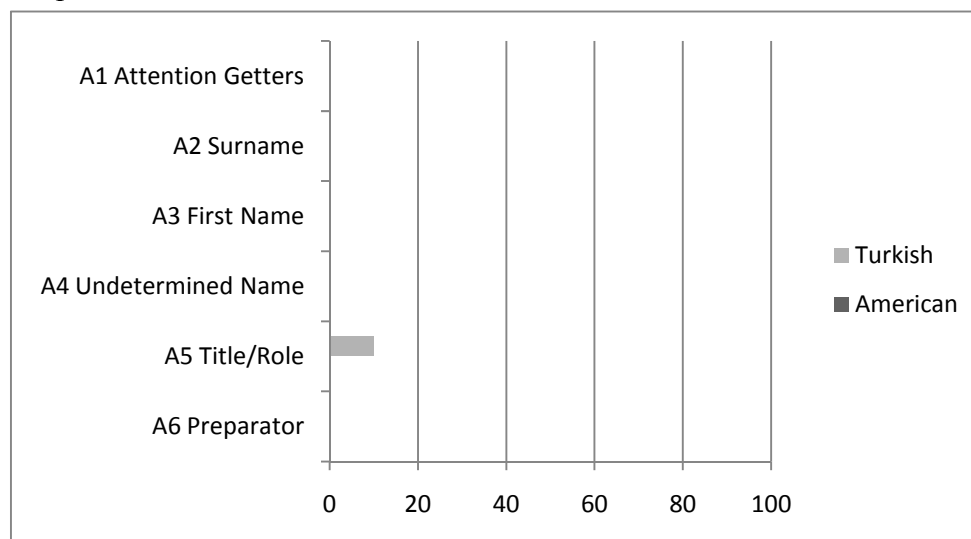
Table 157 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for alerters in situation VII.

Table 157: Situation VII alerters

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVIIA1 Attention Getter	0	100	100	10.526	1	.001*
SVIIA2 Surname	0	100	100			
SVIIA3 First Name	0	100	100			
SVIIA4 Undetermined Name	0	100	100			
SVIIA5 Title/Role	0	100	90			
	1	0	10			
SVIIA6 Preparator	0	100	100			

According to table 157, the only alerter that was used is *title/role*. It was used by 10% of Turkish participants but none of the American participants. This difference is significant, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 10.526, p < .05$. The other alerter types were not used in this situation. Graph 50 depicts these results.

Graph 50: Situation VII alerters



Situation VII Downgraders

Table 158 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for downgraders in situation VII.

Table 158: Situation VII downgraders

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVIID1 Politeness Markers	0	96	93	.866	1	.352
	1	4	7			
SVIID2 Subjectivizer	0	93	87	2.000	1	.157
	1	7	13			
SVIID3 Hedge	0	100	100	1.005	1	.316
SVIID4 Appealer	0	100	99			
	1	0	1	.000		1.000
SVIID5 Pause Filler	0	98	97	.205	1	.651
	1	2	3			
SVIID6 Understater	0	100	87	13.904	1	.000*
	1	0	13			
SVIID7 Cajoler	0	100	95	5.128	1	.024*
	1	0	5			
SVIID8 Surprise	0	99	99	.000	1	1.000
	1	1	1			
				.000		1.000

Table 157 reveals that two of the downgraders resulted in a significant difference. The first one is *understater*. It was used only by 13% of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 13.904, p < .05$. The other one is *cajoler*, which was used only by five percent of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 5.128, p < .05$. With Yates' correction factor, there is no significant difference, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 3.282, p > .05$. *Hedge*, on the other hand was not used by any of the participants. The remaining five strategies did not result in significant differences. One of them, *surprise*, was used by one percent of both groups. *Appealer*, moreover, was used only by one percent of Turkish participants. *Politeness markers* were used by four percent of American and seven percent of Turkish participants. *Subjectivizer* was also used by Turkish participants more. Thirteen percent of Turkish participants used *subjectivizer* whereas seven percent of American participants did so, but this difference is not significant. Finally, *pause filler* was used by two percent of American and three percent of Turkish participants. Graph 51 depicts these results.

Graph 51: Situation VII downgraders

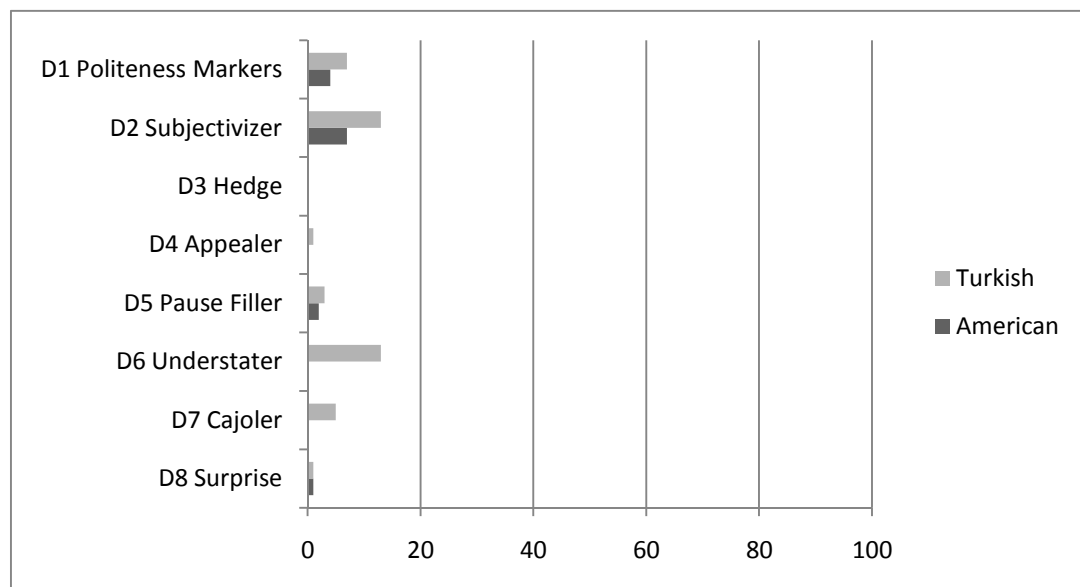


Table 159: Situation VII chi-square test of overall distribution of downgraders

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	9,531	6	,146

Table 159 shows that the overall downgrader use by the two groups is not significantly different, $\chi^2(6, N = 200) = 9.531, p > .05$.

Situation VII Upgraders

Table 160 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for upgraders in situation VII.

Table 160: Situation VII upgraders

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVIIU1 Intensifier	0	92	80	5.980	1	.014*
	1	8	20			
SVIIU2 Emotional Expression	0	37	81	40.017	1	.000*
	1	63	19			
SVIIU3 Emphasis	0	84	79	.829	1	.363
	1	16	21			
SVIIU4 Expletive	0	100	100			
SVIIU5 Lexical Uptoner	0	99	95	2.749	1	.097
	1	1	5	1.546		.214
SVIIU6 Repetition	0	98	100	2.020	1	.155
	1	2	0	.505		.477

According to table 160, five of the six upgraders were used by the participants. The only one not used by any of the participants was *expletive*. Two upgraders resulted in a significant difference. First, *intensifier* was used by 20% of Turkish participants and only eight percent of American participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 5.980, p < .05$. *Emotional expression* is the second strategy that resulted in a significant difference. While 63% of American participants used *emotional expression*, only 19% of

Turkish participants resorted to it, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 40.017, p < .05$. The remaining three strategies did not result in significant differences. *Emphasis* was used more than the other two. It was employed by 16% of the American and 21% of the Turkish group. *Repetition* was only used by two percent of American participants. The last strategy in this category, *lexical up-toner*, was used by one percent of American and five percent of Turkish participants. Graph 52 depicts these results.

Graph 52: Situation VII upgraders

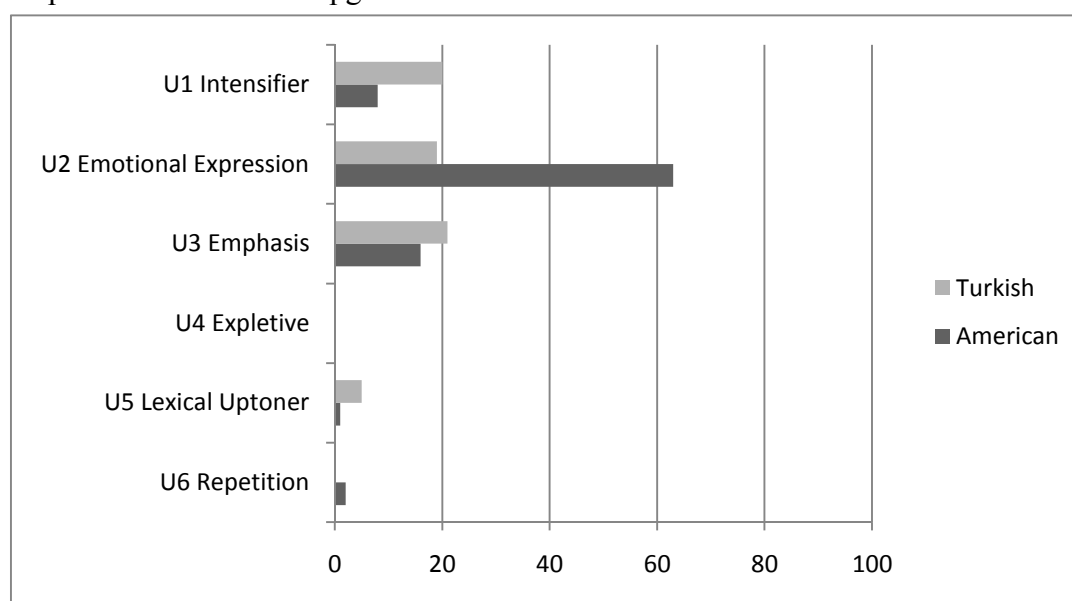


Table 161: Situation VII chi-square test of overall distribution of upgraders

	Value	Df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	30,866	4	,000

Table 161 shows that the overall upgrader use by the two groups is significantly different, $\chi^2(4, N = 200) = 30.866, p < .05$.

Situation VII Overall

Overall distribution of tokens across all the strategies in four categories in situation VII is shown in table 162.

Table 162: Situation VII chi-square test of overall strategy distribution

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	108,865	30	,000

The overall strategy use including head act strategies, alerter, downgraders and upgraders by the two groups is significantly different, $\chi^2(30, N = 200) = 108.865, p < .05$.

Situation VII T-tests

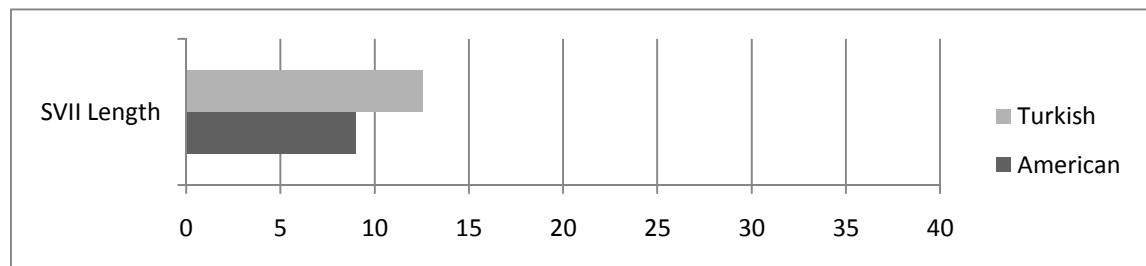
Table 163 shows the results of independent-samples t-test for the length of apologies and the number of strategies in situation VII.

Table 163: T-tests for situation VII

	TeacherGroup	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	df	t	Sig.
SVIILENGTH	1	100	9,0200	7,97088	198	-2,903	,004*
	2	100	12,5400	9,13470			
SVIITotNumStr	1	100	2,7500	1,45904	198	-2,496	,013*
	2	100	3,3100	1,70380			
SVIINumberS	1	100	1,7000	1,03962	198	-2,882	,004*
	2	100	2,1300	1,06983			
SVIITotNumSup	1	100	1,0500	,80873	198	-1,005	,316
	2	100	1,1800	1,00885			
SVIINumAlert	1	100	,0000	,00000	198	-3,317	,001*
	2	100	,1000	,30151			
SVIIDown	1	100	,1400	,37659	198	-3,907	,000*
	2	100	,4300	,63968			
SVIIUp	1	100	,9000	,68902	198	2,466	,015*
	2	100	,6500	,74366			

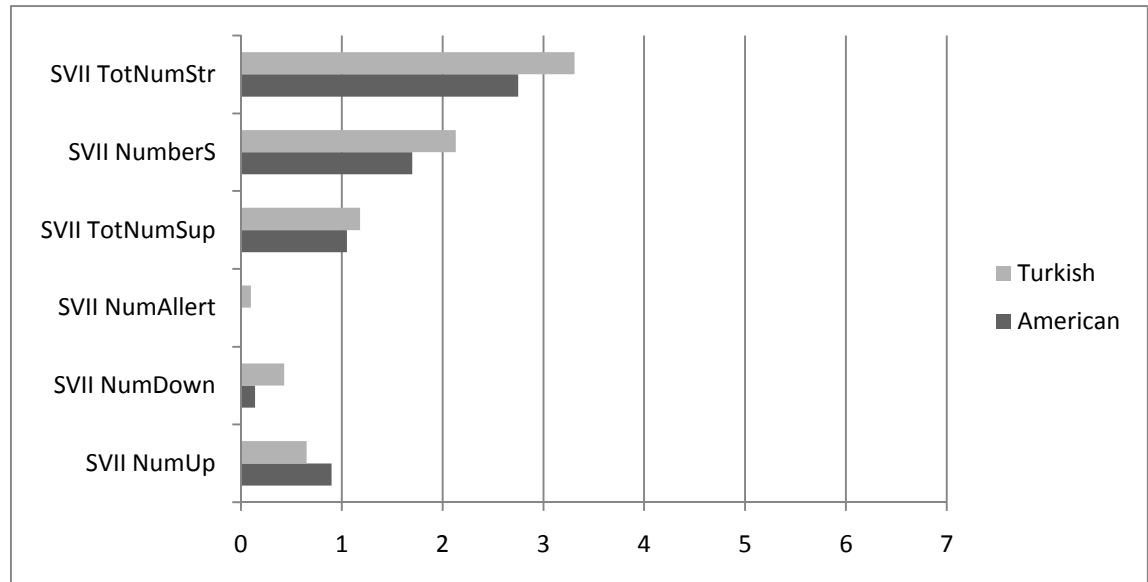
According to the *t*-test analysis shown in table 163, the length of the apologies offered by Turkish participants ($M = 9.02$, $SD = 7.97$) is more than the length of the apologies provided by American participants ($M = 12.54$, $SD = 9.13$). This difference is significant, $t(198) = -2.903$, $p = .004$, $p < .05$. Graph 53 depicts this result.

Graph 53: Length of apologies in situation VII



As could be seen from the *t*-test results of the number of strategies used by both groups, significant differences occurred in five categories. The first one is the total number of strategies. Turkish participants ($M = 3.31$, $SD = 1.70$) used more strategies than American participants ($M = 2.75$, $SD = 1.45$). This difference is significant, $t(198) = -2.496$, $p = .013$, $p < .05$. The next category in which the groups differed is the number of strategies in the head act. American participants ($M = 1.70$, $SD = 1.03$) used more strategies in the head act than Turkish participants ($M = 2.13$, $SD = 1.06$), $t(198) = -2.882$, $p = .004$, $p < .05$. The groups also differed in the number of alerters they used. While Turkish participants used an average of .10 alerters ($SD = .30$), the American participants used none, $t(198) = -3.317$, $p = .001$, $p < .05$. They also differed in the other two supportive move types. To illustrate, American participants used .14 downgraders ($SD = .37$) as opposed to Turkish participants, who used .43 downgraders ($SD = .63$), $t(198) = 3.907$, $p = .000$, $p < .05$. The last category that resulted in a significant difference is the number of upgraders. American participants used .90 upgraders ($SD = .68$) whereas Turkish participants used only .65 upgraders ($SD = .74$), $t(198) = 2.466$, $p = .015$, $p < .05$. However, the groups did not significantly differ in the total number of supportive moves. The Americans used 1.05 and the Turks used 1.18 supportive moves in total. Graph 54 depicts these results.

Graph 54: Number of strategies in situation VII



3.9.1. ANALYSIS OF COMMON STRATEGIES IN SITUATION VII

According to the results of the *t*-test, the average number of strategies used by American and Turkish participants is around three. The three most common strategies in American participants' apology acts are *sorry*, *offer of repair* and *emotional expression*. The three most common strategies in Turkish participants' apology acts, however, are *sorry*, *offer of repair* and *accepting blame*.

Three Common Strategies in American Participants' Acts

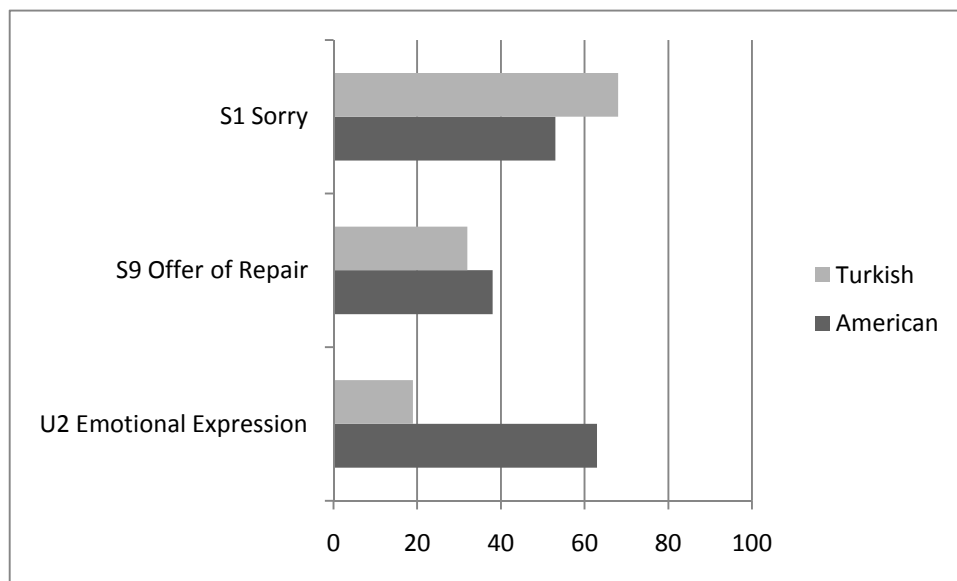
Table 164 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for three common strategies in American participants' apologies in situation VII.

Table 164: Common strategies by American participants in situation VII

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVIIS1 Sorry	0	47	32	4.708	1	.030*
	1	53	68			
SVIIS9 Offer of Repair	0	62	68	.791	1	.374
	1	38	32			
SVIUI2 Emotional Expression	0	37	81	40.017	1	.000*
	1	63	19			

As table 163 reveals, American participants differed from Turkish participants in the two strategies they commonly used. American participants used *sorry* less than Turkish participants. While 68% of Turkish participants used *sorry*, 53% of Americans did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 4.705, p < .05$. On the other hand, *emotional expression* was used by American participants significantly more. While 63% of American participants used *emotional expression*, only 19% of Turkish participant did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 40.017, p < .05$. The remaining strategy did not result in a significant difference. *Offer of repair* was used by 38% of American and 32% of Turkish participants. Graph 55 depicts these results.

Graph 55: Common strategies by American participants in situation VII



Three Common Strategies in Turkish Participants' Acts

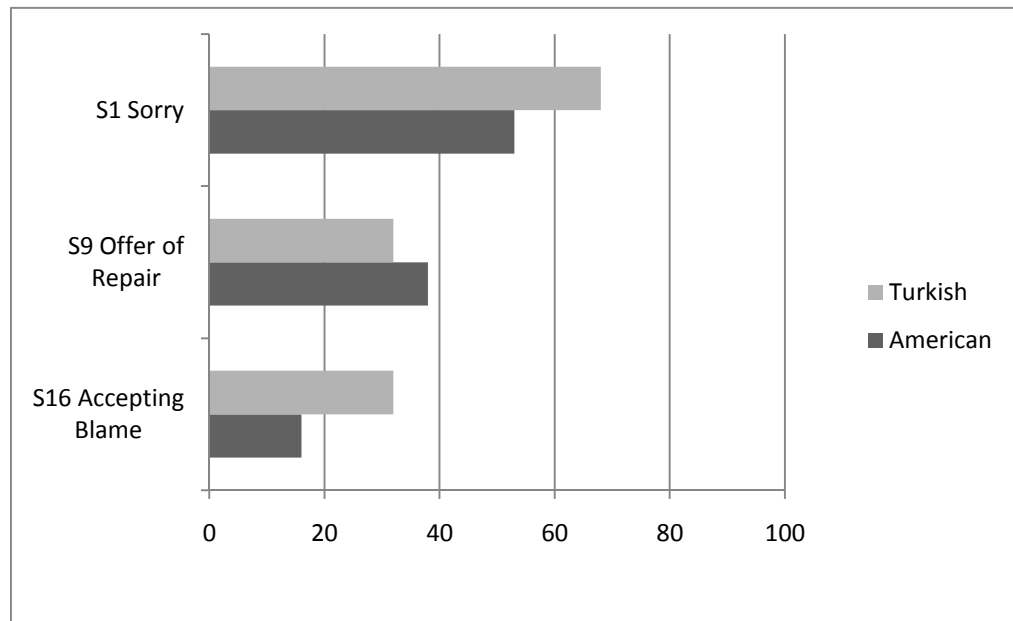
Table 165 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for three common strategies in Turkish participants' apologies in situation VII.

Table 165: Common strategies by Turkish participants in situation VII

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVIIS1 Sorry	0	47	32	4.708	1	.030*
	1	53	68			
SVIIS9 Offer of Repair	0	62	68	.791	1	.374
	1	38	32			
SVIIS16 Accepting Blame	0	84	68	7.018	1	.008*
	1	16	32			

Two of the three common strategies in Turkish participants' apology acts are also among the common strategies in American participants' apology acts. The details of these strategies are given in the section about the common strategies American participants used in situation VII. The third strategy, *accepting blame*, was used by 38% of Turkish participants while only 16% of American participants resorted to it, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 7.018, p < .05$. Graph 56 depicts these results.

Graph 56: Common strategies by Turkish participants in situation VII



3.10. SITUATION VIII: KEEPING A CUSTOMER WAITING

In this section, the results of the statistical analysis for situation VIII are given. The situation's sociopragmatic design is given in table 166. In this situation the power of the speaker, the distance between the speaker and the hearer and the imposition are low.

Situation VIII:

You are a customer representative at a bank. One of your long-term customers you know very well comes today. As you are talking to him/her, you get a phone call from the manager and the customer has to wait a couple of minutes. Now you hang up the phone.

Table 166: Sociopragmatic design of situation VIII

<i>Sociopragmatic Design</i>	Power	- Distance	- Imposition	-

Situation VIII Strategies in the Head Act

Table 167 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for the strategies in the head act in situation VIII.

Table 167: Situation VIII chi-square table for strategies in the head act

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVIIS1 Sorry	0	18	48	20.353	1	.000*
	1	82	52			
SVIIS2 Afraid	0	100	100	3.789	1	.052
	1	92	98			
SVIIS3 Apologize	0	95	100	5.128	1	.024*
	1	5	0			
SVIIS4 Forgive	0	97	97	.000	1	1.000
	1	3	3			
SVIIS5 Excuse	0	98	99	.338	1	.561
	1	2	1			
SVIIS6 Account of Situation	0	97	99	1.020	1	.312
	1	3	1			
SVIIS7 Admission of Facts	0	97	99	.255	1	.614
	1	3	1			

SVIIS8 Statement of Facts	0	76	92	9.524	1	.002*
	1	24	8			
SVIIS9 Offer of Repair	0	99	97	1.020	1	.312
	1	1	3	.255		.614
SVIIS10 Promise of Forbearance	0	99	100	1.005	1	.316
	1	1	0	.000		1.000
SVIIS11 Minimizing Offense	0	100	99	1.005	1	.316
	1	0	1	.000		1.000
SVIIS12 Expressing Gratitude	0	84	96	8.000	1	.005*
	1	16	4			
SVIIS13 Distract	0	46	73	15.126	1	.000*
	1	54	27			
SVIIS14 Upgrading Offense	0	96	99	1.846	1	.174
	1	4	1	.821		.365
SVIIS15 Request	0	98	100	2.020	1	.155
	1	2	0	.505		.477
SVIIS16 Accepting Blame	0	77	61	5.984	1	.014*
	1	23	39			
SVIIS17 Expression of Embarrassment	0	100	100			
SVIIS18 Justifying Hearer	0	100	100			
SVIIS19 Lack of Intent	0	96	99	1.846	1	.174
	1	4	1	.821		.365
SVIIS20 Statement of Dismay	0	100	100			
SVIIS21 Regret	0	100	100			
SVIIS22 Concern for Hearer	0	99	100	1.005	1	.316
	1	1	0	.000		1.000
SVIIS23 Blaming Victim	0	100	100			
SVIIS24 Denial	0	57	76	8.102	1	.004*
	1	43	24			
SVIIS25 Distract with Humor	0	96	99	1.846	1	.174
	1	4	1	.821		.365
SVIIS26 Atypical Action	0	100	100			
SVIIS27 Pardon	0	100	97	3.046	1	.081
	1	0	3	1.354		.245

Table 167 shows that seven strategies were not used by the participants. These strategies are *afraid*, *expression of embarrassment*, *justifying hearer*, *statement/question of dismay*, *regret*, *blaming victim* and *atypical action*. Seven other strategies resulted in a significant difference. The first one is *sorry*, which was used by 82% of American participants and 52% of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) =$

20.353, $p < .05$. The next strategy is *forgive*, which was used only by five percent of American participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 5.128, p < .05$. When Yates' correction factor is applied, this strategy does not show a difference, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 3.282, p > .05$. *Statement of facts but not the responsibility* is another strategy that resulted in significant difference. While 24% of American participants used this strategy, only 8% of the Turkish participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 9.524, p < .05$. American participants also used *expressing gratitude* significantly more than Turkish participants. Sixteen percent of American participants used expressing gratitude whereas only four percent of Turkish participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 8.000, p < .05$. *Distract* was commonly used and resulted in a significant difference. While 54% of American participant employed *distract*, 27% of the Turkish group resorted to it, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 15.126, p < .05$. *Accepting blame* and *denial*, on the other hand, were used by Turkish participants more than American participants. *Accepting blame* was used by 23% of American and 39% of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 5.984, p < .05$. *Denial* was used by 76% of Turkish participants whereas 57% of American participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 8.102, p < .05$. The remaining strategies did not result in significant difference. Three percent of Americans and Turks used *excuse*. Three strategies were only used by American participants: *promise of forbearance*, *concern for hearer* and *request*. One percent of Americans used *promise of forbearance* and *concern for hearer* and two percent used *request*. Meanwhile, two strategies were only used by Turkish participant: *minimizing offense* used *pardon*. One percent of Turks used *minimizing offense* and three percent used *pardon*. Though insignificant, American participants used the remaining strategies more than Turkish participants. Eight percent of Americans used *apologize*, which was used by two percent of Turkish participants. Four percent of the American group used *upgrading offense*, *lack of intent* and *distract with humor*, which were used by one percent of the Turkish group. Account of situation was used by 2% of the American and 1% of Turkish participants. Finally, *admission of facts but not responsibility* was used by three percent of American and one percent of Turkish participants. Graph 57 depicts these results.

Graph 57: Situation VIII strategies in the head act

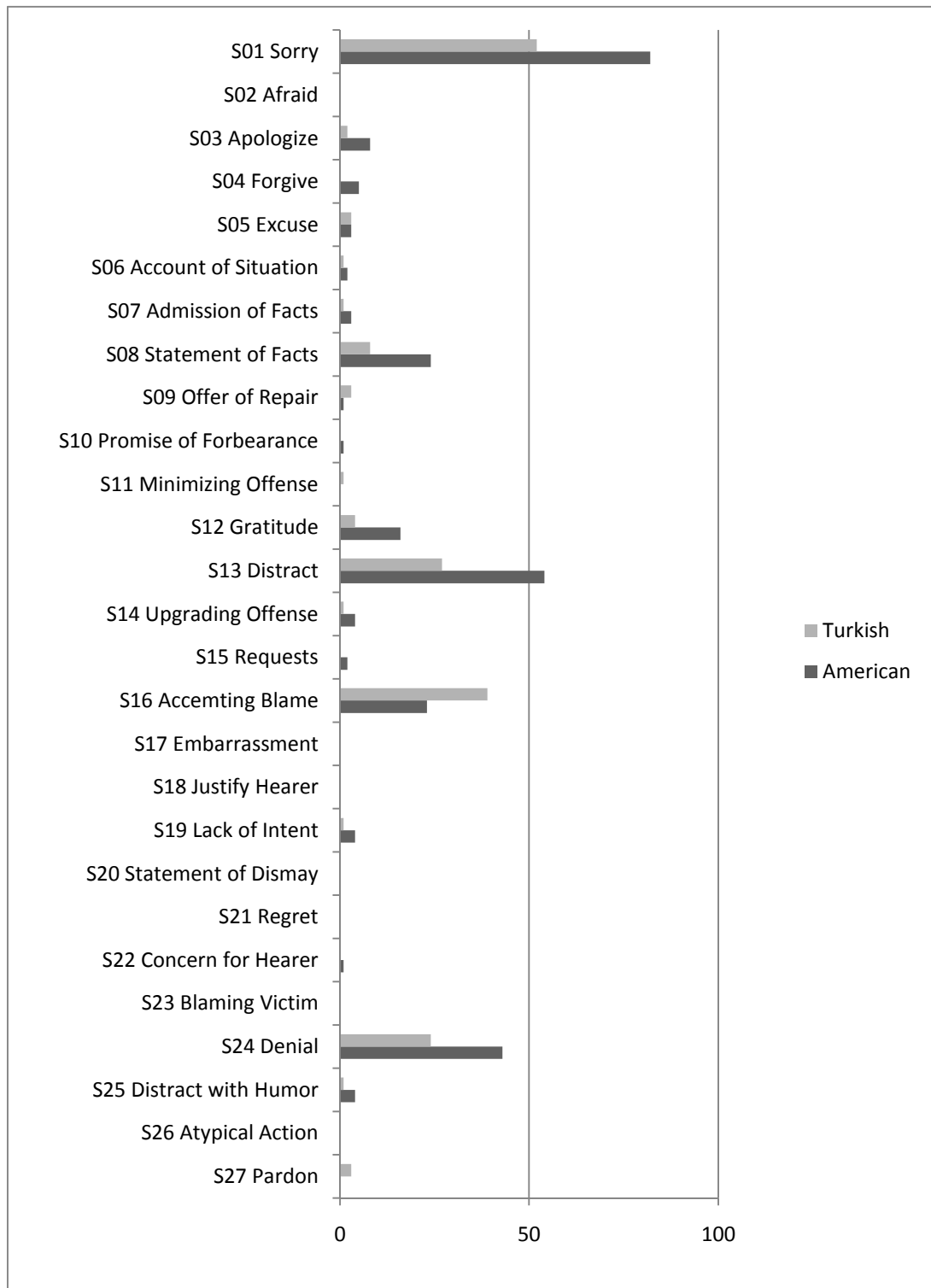


Table 168: Situation VIII chi-square test of overall distribution of head act strategies

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	40,807	19	,003

Table 168 shows that the overall use of head act strategies by the two groups is significantly different, $\chi^2(19, N = 200) = 40.807, p < .05$.

Situation VIII Alerters

Table 169 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for alerters in situation VIII.

Table 169: Situation VIII alerters

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVIIIA1 Attention Getters	0	99	100	1.005	1	.316
	1	1	0	.000		1.000
SVIIIA2 Surname	0	95	100	5.128	1	.024*
	1	5	0	3.282		.070
SVIIIA3 First Name	0	96	99	1.846	1	.174
	1	4	1	.821		.345
SVIIIA4 Undetermined Name	0	98	96	.687	1	.407
	1	2	4	.172		.678
SVIIIA5 Title/Role	0	99	99	.000	1	1.000
	1	1	1	.000		1.000
SVIIIA6 Preparator	0	100	100			

As table 169 reveals, alerters were not commonly used by American and Turkish participants. One of them, *preparator*, was not used at all. The only strategy that resulted in a significant difference is *surname*, which was used only by 5% of American participants but none of the Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 5.128, p < .05$. However, when Yates' correction factor is applied, *surprise* does not reveal a

significant difference, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 3.282, p > .05$. *Attention getter* was only used by one percent of American participants. Moreover, *title/role* was equally used by one percent of American and Turkish participants. Meanwhile, *first name* was used by four percent of American and one percent of Turkish participants. Finally, *undetermined name* was used by two percent of American and four percent of Turkish participants. Graph 58 depicts these results.

Graph 58: Situation VIII alerters

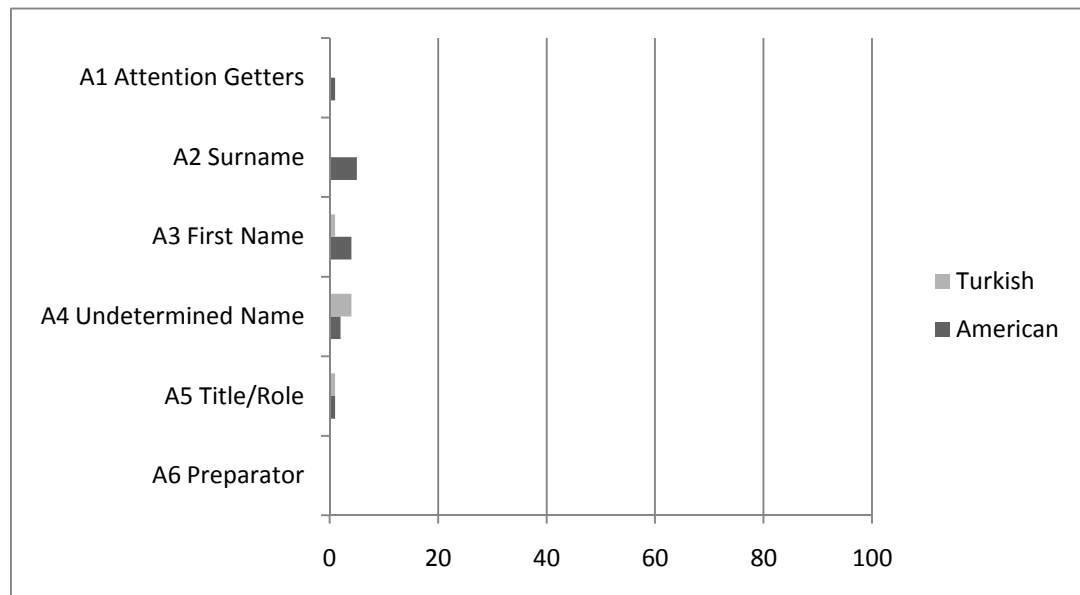


Table 170: Situation VIII chi-square test of overall distribution of alerters

	Value	Df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	6,812	4	,146

Table 170 shows that the overall alerter use by the two groups is not significantly different, $\chi^2(4, N = 200) = 6.812, p < .05$.

Situation VIII Downgraders

Table 171 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for downgraders in situation VIII.

Table 171: Situation VIII downgraders

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVIID1 Politeness	0	93	97	1.684	1	.194
Markers	1	7	3			
SVIID2	0	94	100	6.186	1	.013*
Subjectivizer	1	6	0			
SVIID3 Hedge	0	100	100	1.020	1	.312
SVIID4 Appealer	0	97	99			
	1	3	1	.255		.614
SVIID5 Pause Filler	0	61	87	17.568	1	.000*
	1	39	13			
SVIID6 Understater	0	98	100	2.020	1	.155
	1	2	0			
SVIID7 Cajoler	0	96	94	.421	1	.516
	1	4	6			
SVIID8 Surprise	0	100	100			

As is seen in table 171, *hedge* and *surprise* were not used by any of the participants. *Subjectivizer* and *pause filler* resulted in significant differences. While six percent of American participants employed *subjectivizer*, none of Turkish participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 6.186, p < .05$. *Pause filler* was used by 39% of American participants while it was used by 13% of Turkish participants, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 17.568, p < .05$. Among the remaining four strategies, *understater* was only used by two percent of American participants. Meanwhile, *politeness marker* was used by seven percent of American and two percent of Turkish participants. As for *appealer*, it was used by three percent of American and one percent of Turkish participants. Finally, *cajoler* was used by four percent of American and six percent of Turkish participants.

Graph 59: Situation VIII downgraders

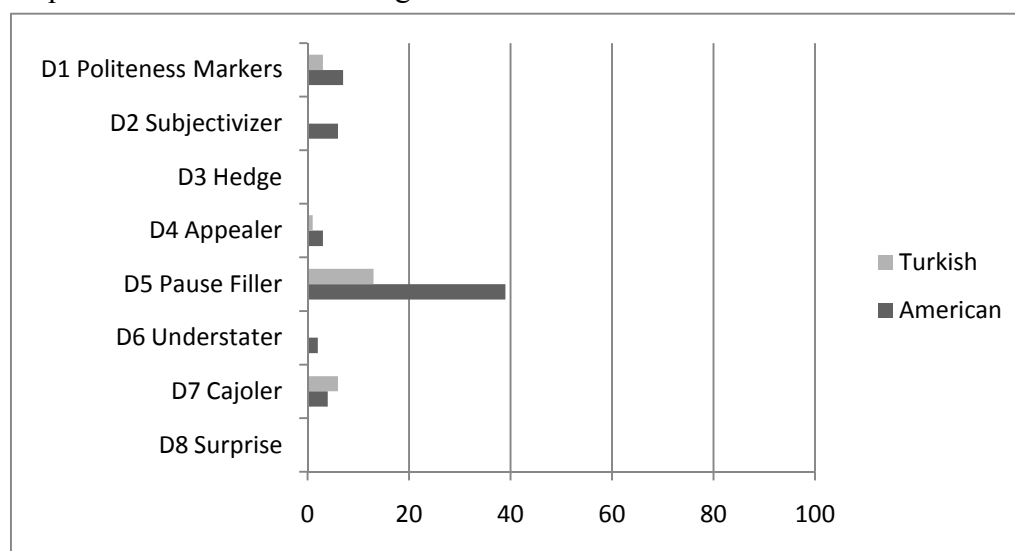


Table 172: Situation VIII chi-square test of overall distribution of downgraders

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8,562	5	,128

Table 172 shows that the overall downgrader use by the two groups is not significantly different, $\chi^2(5, N = 200) = 8.562, p < .05$.

Situation VIII Upgraders

Table 173 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for upgraders in situation VIII.

Table 173: Situation VIII upgraders

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVIIIU1 Intensifier	0	86	87	.043	1	.836
	1	14	13			
SVIIIU2 Emotional Expression	0	99	99	.000	1	1.000
	1	1	1			

SVIIIU3 Emphasis	0	97	93	1.684	1	.194
	1	3	7			
SVIIIU4 Expletive	0	100	100			
SVIIIU5 Lexical Uptoner	0	100	99	1.005	1	.316
	1	0	1	.000		1.000
SVIIIU6 Repetition	0	100	96	4.082	1	.043*
	1	0	4	2.296		.130

According to table 173, one upgrader strategy resulted in a significant difference, *repetition*. While *repetition* was used by four percent of Turkish participants, none of the American participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 4.082, p < .05$. With Yates' correction factor, there is no difference, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 2.296, p > .05$. *Expletive*, on the other hand, was not used by any of the participants. On the contrary, *emotional expression* was equally used by one percent of both groups. *Intensifier* was more common than the other strategies, as 14% of American and 13% of Turkish participants used this strategy. *Lexical uptoner* was only used by one percent of the Turkish group. Finally, *emphasis* was used by three percent of American and seven percent of Turkish participants. Graph 60 depicts these results.

Graph 60: Situation VIII upgraders

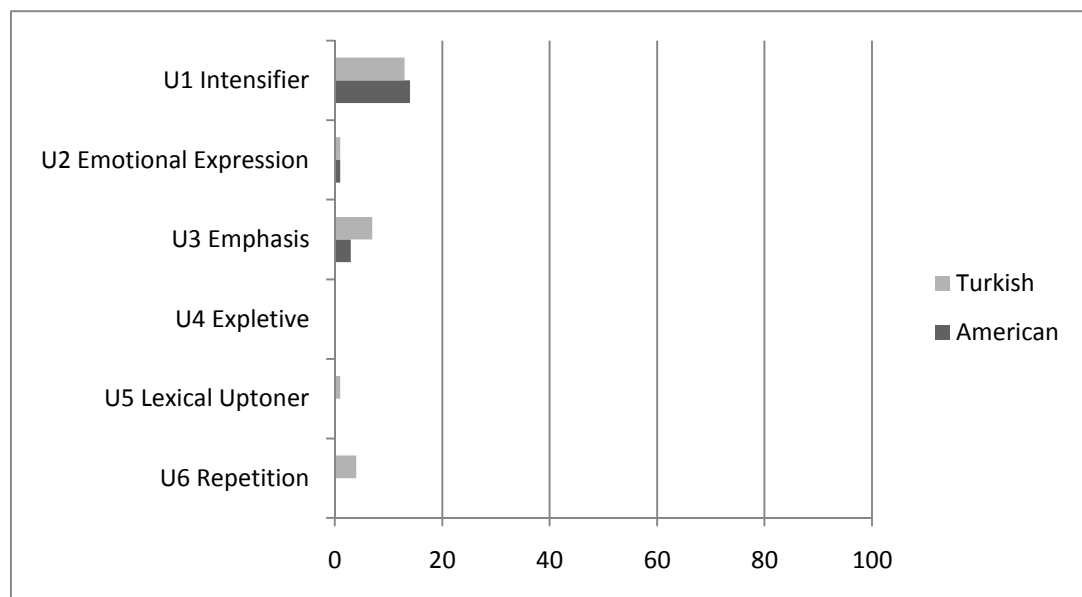


Table 174: Situation VIII chi-square test of overall distribution of upgraders

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	5,360	4	,252

Table 174 shows that the overall upgrader use by the two groups is significantly different, $\chi^2(4, N = 200) = 5.360, p < .05$.

Situation VIII Overall

Overall distribution of tokens across all the strategies in four categories in situation VIII is shown in table 175.

Table 175: Situation VIII chi-square test of overall strategy distribution

	Value	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	72,550	35	,000

The overall strategy use including head act strategies, alerters, downgraders and upgraders by the two groups is significantly different, $\chi^2(35, N = 200) = 72.550, p < .05$.

Situation VIII T-tests

Table 176 shows the results of independent-samples t-test for the length of apologies and the number of strategies in situation VIII.

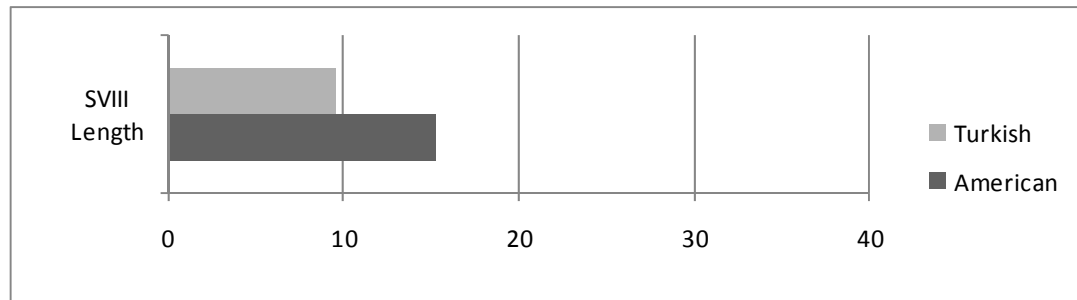
Table 176: T-tests for situation VIII

	TeacherGroup	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	df	t	Sig.
SVIIILENGTH	1	100	15,3300	9,22234	198	3,907	,000*
	2	100	9,6200	11,33759			
SVIIITotNumStr	1	100	3,7200	1,61483	198	5,251	,000*
	2	100	2,2600	2,26355			

SVIIINumberS	1	100	2,7700	1,10878	198	5,325	,000*
	2	100	1,7100	1,65325			
SVIIITotNumSup	1	100	,9200	,89533	198	3,046	,003*
	2	100	,5500	,82112			
SVIIINumAlert	1	100	,1300	,36667	198	1,600	,111
	2	100	,0600	,23868			
SVIIINumDown	1	100	,5700	,63968	198	3,981	,000*
	2	100	,2300	,56595			
SVIIINumUp	1	100	,2200	,52378	198	-,572	,568
	2	100	,2600	,46319			

According to the results of the *t*-test analyses shown in table 176, the apology acts provided by American participants ($M = 15.33$, $SD = 9.22$) are longer than those of Turkish participants ($M = 9.62$, $SD = 11.33$). This difference is significant, $t(198) = 4.00$, $p = .001$, $p < .05$. Graph 43 depicts this result.

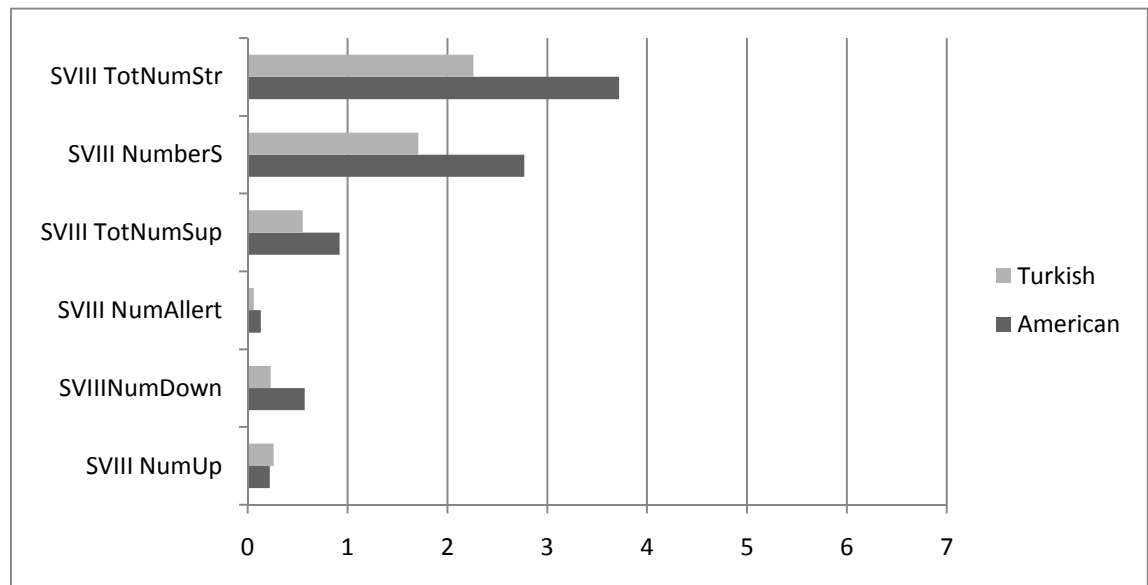
Graph 61: Length of apologies in situation VIII



As is seen in the results of the *t*-test analyses, American and Turkish participants differed in four of the six categories. The first one is the total number of strategies. American participants ($M = 3.72$, $SD = 1.61$) used more strategies than Turkish participants ($M = 2.26$, $SD = 2.26$), which is significant, $t(198) = 5.251$, $p = .000$, $p < .05$. Likewise, American participants ($M = 2.77$, $SD = 1.10$) used more strategies in the head act than Turkish participants ($M = 1.71$, $SD = 1.65$). This difference is also significant, $t(198) = 5.325$, $p = .000$, $p < .05$. The groups also differed in the total number of supportive moves. The average number of supportive moves American participants ($M = .92$, $SD = .89$) used is higher than that of Turkish participants ($M = .55$, $SD = .82$), $t(198) = 3.046$, $p = .003$, $p < .05$. The last category in which the

groups differed is the number of downgraders they used. While American participants used an average of .57 downgraders ($SD = .63$), Turkish participants used .23 ($SD = .56$), $t(198) = 3.981, p = .000, p < .05$. The other two supportive move types, namely alerters and upgraders, did not result in significant difference. The number of alerters used by American participants is .13 and for Turkish participants is .06. Lastly, American participants used .22 and Turkish participants used .26 upgraders. Graph 62 depicts these results.

Graph 62: Numbers of strategies in situation VIII



3.10.1. ANALYSIS OF COMMON STRATEGIES IN SITUATION VIII

According to the results of the t -test, the average number of strategies used by American participants is around four and is around two for Turkish participants. The four most common strategies in American participants' apology acts are *sorry*, *distract*, *denial* and *pause filler*. The two most common strategies in Turkish participants' apology acts, however, are *sorry* and *accepting blame*.

Four Common Strategies in American Participants' Acts

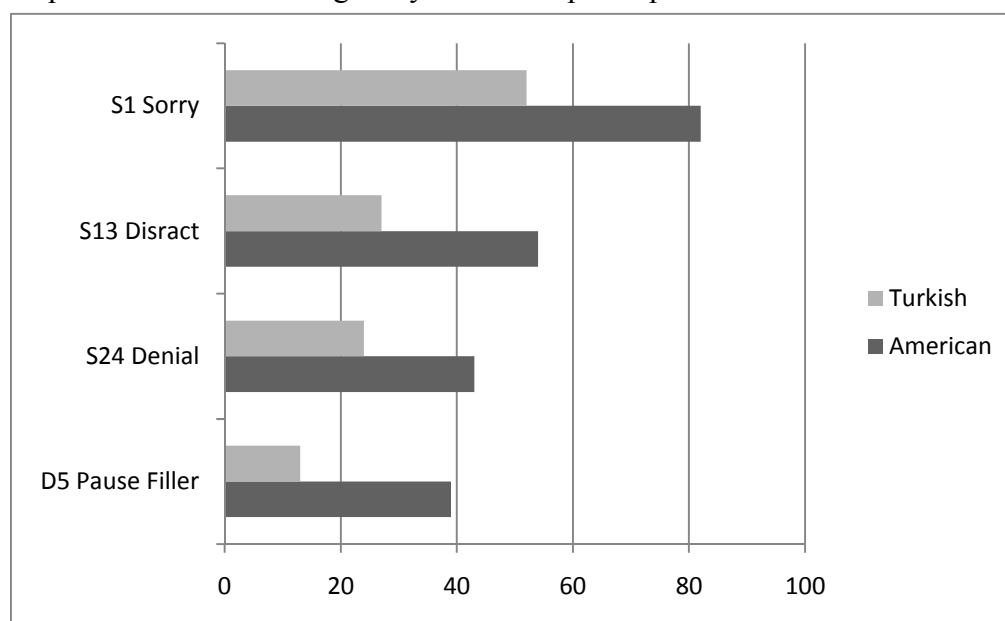
Table 177 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for four common strategies in American participants' apologies in situation VIII.

Table 177: Common strategies by American participants in situation VIII

		TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
		1	2			
		Count	Count			
SVIIIS1 Sorry	0	18	48	20.353	1	.000*
	1	82	52			
SVIIIS13 Distract	0	46	73	15.126	1	.000*
	1	54	27			
SVIIIS24 Denial	0	57	76	8.102	1	.004*
	1	43	24			
SVIIID5 Pause Filler	0	61	87	17.568	1	.000*
	1	39	13			

As table 177 shows, there are significant differences between American and Turkish participants in all four common strategies observed in American participants' apology acts of. Eighty-two percent of the American participants used *sorry* whereas only 52% of Turkish participants did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 20.353, p < .05$. They also used *distract* significantly more than Turkish participants. While 54% of the American group employed *distract*, only 27% of the Turkish group resorted to it, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 15.126, p < .05$. Likewise, *denial* was used by American participants significantly more than Turkish participants. While 43% of American participants used *denial*, only 24% of Turkish participant did so, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 8.102, p < .05$. They also used *pause filler* significantly more. While 39% of American participants used this strategy, only 13% of Turkish participants preferred it, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 17.568, p < .05$. Graph 63 depicts these results.

Graph 63: Common strategies by American participants in situation VIII



Two Common Strategies in Turkish Participants' Acts

Table 178 shows the results of the chi-square test of independence for two common strategies in Turkish participants' apologies in situation VIII.

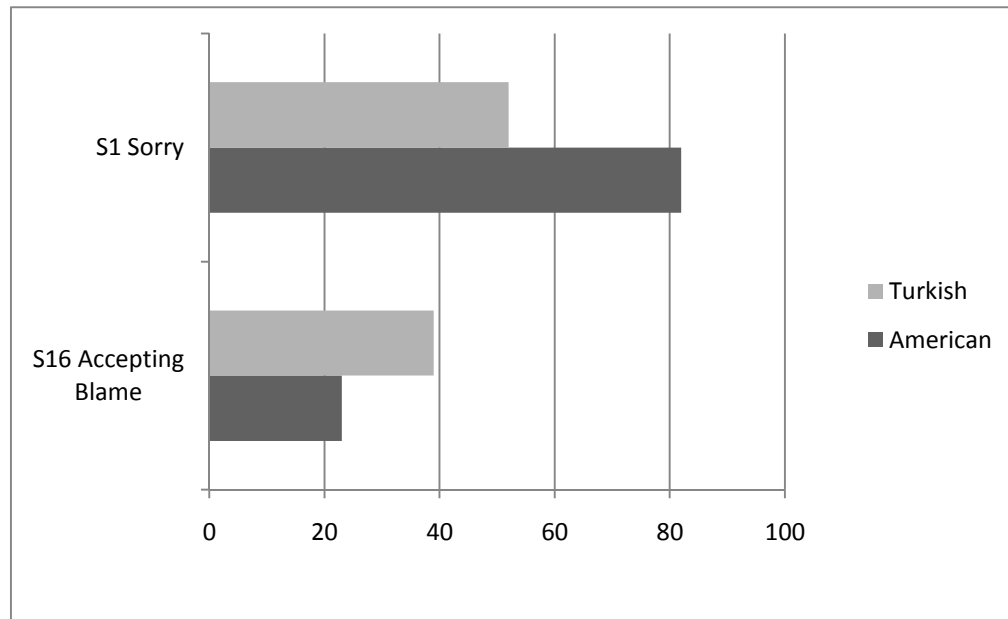
Table 178: Common strategies by Turkish participants in situation VIII

	TeacherGroup		Chi-square	df	Sig.
	1	2			
	Count	Count			
SVIIIS1 Sorry	0 18	48	20.353	1	.000*
	1 82	52			
SVIIIS16 Accepting Blame	0 77	61	5.984	1	.014*
	1 23	39			

As explained in the section about the common strategies American participants used in situation VIII, Turkish participants used *sorry* significantly less than American participants. However, they employed *accepting blame* significantly more than American participants. While 39% of Turkish participants used *accepting blame*,

23% of American participants did so. Moreover, with this percentage, *accepting blame* is not in the common strategies the American participants used, $\chi^2(1, N = 200) = 5.984, p < .05$.

Graph 64: Common strategies by Turkish participants in situation VIII



3.11. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The findings of this study are presented within the context of the research questions of the study:

Question 1: Are there differences between the native and nonnative English speaking teachers of English as a second/foreign language in the use of individual apology strategies?

In situation I, of the possible 27 strategies in the head act American participants used 18 different strategies and Turkish participants used 19. Four of these strategies resulted in a significant difference between the two groups: *sorry*, *offer of repair*, *accepting blame* and *pardon*. When it comes to alerters, neither group preferred an alerter in this situation as only two alerters were used by only three Turkish participants. The American group did not use any alerters. As for downgraders, both groups used six of the eight possible downgrader strategies. One of these resulted in a significant difference between the American and the Turkish participants: *surprise*. Furthermore, all six upgrader strategies appeared in the responses of the American participants, whereas the Turkish participants did not include any in their apologies. Three of the upgraders resulted in a significant difference: *emotional expression*, *emphasis* and *repetition*. In total, the American group used 30 of 47 total strategies, similar to the Turkish group, which used 32 of the strategies. Eight strategies in total resulted in significant differences.

In situation II, of the possible 27 strategies in the head act, both American and Turkish participants used 21 different strategies. Two of these strategies resulted in a significant difference between groups: *expression of embarrassment* and *concern for hearer*. Likewise, both American and Turkish participants used five of the six alerters. As for downgraders, both groups used all possible strategy types. One of these resulted in a significant difference between the groups: *understate*. As in downgraders, one strategy resulted in a significant difference in upgraders: *emotional*

expression. Both groups used five of the six possible upgraders. In total, both groups used 39 of the 47 possible strategies. Only four strategies resulted in significant differences.

In situation III, the American participants used 14 different strategies in the head act. Meanwhile, the Turkish participants used 20 different strategies. The groups differed in six strategies: *apologize*, *forgive*, *request*, *accepting blame*, *concern for hearer*, and *pardon*. Alerters were not heavily used in this situation. The American participants used one alerter, *title/role*, and it resulted in a significant difference with the Turkish participants who used two alerters. In downgraders, the Turkish participants used five strategies, whereas the American participants used only three. One of these resulted in a significant difference: *politeness marker*. Upgraders were used more frequently. While American participants used all six possible upgraders, Turkish participants used five of them. Four of these resulted in a significant difference: *emotional expression*, *emphasis*, *lexical uptoner* and *repetition*. In total, the American participants used 24 of the possible 47 strategies. However, the Turkish participants used 32 strategies. In total, twelve strategies resulted in significant differences.

In situation IV, American participants used 19 different strategies in the head act and Turkish participants used 20 different strategies. The groups differed in four strategies: *forgive*, *offer of repair*, *request*, and *statement/question of dismay*. Alerters were also used in this situation. The American participants used all six alerters and the Turkish participants used five different alerters. The participants differed in three of them: *first name*, *title/role*, *preparatory*. In downgraders, both groups of participants used six of the eight strategies. One of these, *surprise*, resulted in a significant difference. Upgraders were also used. Both groups used four of the six upgrader strategies, none of which resulted in a significant difference. In total, both the American and the Turkish participants used 35 strategies. Eight of these resulted in significant differences.

In situation V, Turkish participants used 22 different strategies in the head act whereas the American participants used 18. The groups differed in six strategies in the head act: *apologize*, *admission of facts but not responsibility*, *statement of facts but not responsibility*, *expressing gratitude*, *request* and *accepting blame*. As for alerters, both groups used four, one of which, *attention getter*, resulted in a significant difference. Differences were also observed in downgraders. The groups differed in three of the six downgraders they used and these are *politeness marker*, *understate* and *cajoler*. Both American and Turkish participants used five upgraders, only one of which resulted in a significant difference: *intensifier*. In total, American group used 33 strategies and Turkish group used 37 strategies. Eleven of these strategies resulted in significant differences.

In situation VI, of the possible 27 strategies in the head act American participants used 17 different strategies and Turkish participants used 19. Seven of these strategies resulted in a significant difference between the two groups: *sorry*, *offer of repair*, *minimizing offense*, *distract*, *accepting blame*, *statement/question of dismay*, and *blaming victim*. Alerters were not used as common. The American group used two alerter types and the Turkish group used three. One of these, *first name*, resulted in a significant difference. As for downgraders, both groups used six of the eight possible strategies. One of these resulted in a significant difference between the two groups: *surprise*. Significant differences were more likely to appear in upgraders. American participants used five types of upgrader strategies whereas the Turkish participants used four. The two groups significantly differed in four upgrader types: *intensifier*, *emotional expression*, *emphasis* and *repetition*. In total, American group used 30 and the Turkish group used 32 of the 47 possible strategies. Twelve strategies in total resulted in significant differences.

In situation VII, both groups used 16 strategies in the head act, six of which resulted in significant differences: *sorry*, *excuse*, *account of situation*, *accepting blame*, *lack of intent* and *statement/question of dismay*. While American participants did not use any alerters, Turkish participants used only one, *title/role*, and it resulted in a significant difference. As for downgraders, Turkish participants used seven types of

downgraders while the American participants used only four types. Two of the strategies resulted in significant differences: *understate* and *cajoler*. Upgrader strategies also resulted in significant differences. American participants used five types and Turkish participants used four types of upgraders, two of them resulting in significant differences: *intensifier* and *emotional expression*. In total, the American group used 25 and the Turkish group used 28 of the 47 possible strategies. Eleven strategies in total resulted in significant differences.

In situation VIII, of the possible 27 strategies in the head act American participants used 18 different strategies and Turkish participants used 16. Seven of these strategies resulted in a significant differences: *sorry*, *forgive*, *statement of facts but not responsibility*, *expressing gratitude*, *distract*, *accepting blame*, and *denial*. As for alerters, five types were used by American participants. Meanwhile, Turkish participants used three types differing from American participants in one strategy: *surname*. Moreover, American group used six types whereas the Turkish participants used four types of downgraders. Two of these strategies, *subjectivizer* and *pause filler*, resulted in significant differences. Finally, Turkish participants used five types of upgraders while American participants used only three, one strategy resulted in a significant difference: *repetition*. In total, the American participants used 32 and the Turkish participants used 28 of the 47 possible strategies. Eleven of these strategies resulted in significant differences.

When these statistical differences are observed, certain patterns emerge. For example, when the power of the speaker is lower, Turkish participants tend to use the strategy of *accepting blame* more than they do in situations in where the power of the speaker is high. This shows that the power plays an important role in strategy selection for this group. It can also be argued that the role or status of the speaker, as it defines power, plays an important factor in the culture which Turkish participants belong to.

Another pattern emerges in the differences between American and Turkish participants in situations with low imposition. Since there are more strategies that

resulted in significant differences in the four situations with low imposition, it appears that there is more variability in such situations. In other words, Turkish participants diverge more in such situations. This could mean that the apologies in low imposition situations could be realized with a variety of strategies in the culture of nonnative English speaking teachers rather than compiling more fixed apology speech act sets as evident in the situations with high imposition.

Another finding is that nonnative English speaking teachers tend to use the illocutionary force indicating device less in situations with low distance than in situations with high distance. More specifically, they use words of apology such as *sorry*, *apologize* less in situations in which they know the person who they are apologizing to. In this case, social distance between the speaker and the hearer plays an important role in the apologies of the Turkish group. This could be another factor that the Turkish group borrows from their own language or culture.

When supportive moves are observed, a low frequency in intensifier use by both American and Turkish teachers in situations with low imposition emerges. The groups do not differ in supportive moves in this sense.

Also, in situations with low imposition there is a tendency to use strategies which are “negative”, as they essentially carry a negative attitude. For example, there is an essential difference between *accepting blame* and *denial*. In the former, the speaker has a positive attitude and in the latter, he or she has a negative attitude towards the offense he or she has caused. In this respect, it could be said that in situations with low imposition, “negative” strategies such as *minimizing offense*, *distract* and *denial* are more common than in situations with high imposition. This again is a choice made by both American and Turkish participants. In this aspect, there is no difference between the two groups.

Question 2: Do the tokens of strategies the native and nonnative English speaking teachers of English as a second/foreign language use distribute differently across strategy categories?

The statistical analyses of the distribution of tokens across strategies reveal statistical differences. First of all, the overall distribution of tokens across all the strategies including head acts, alerters, downgraders, and upgraders resulted in significant differences in all of the eight situations. This implies that the two groups differed in their choice of strategies as the tokens of their use distribute differently. This could mean different patterns of apology speech acts are likely to come out from the two groups. This statistically significant result of the distribution may validate that the differences in the apologies offered by American and Turkish participants are big enough to create statistical significance. If their apology speech act sets were not different, there would not have been difference in the distribution of tokens across strategies. Of course, this result alone is not enough to claim that their apologies are different, but it is a good indicator of such a possibility.

The distribution of tokens across the strategies in the head act also resulted in significant differences. The two groups differed in seven of the eight situations in the test. They only did not show significant difference in situation 2. This again possibly indicates the head acts of the apologies offered by American and Turkish groups are different. The difference in the distribution is a reflection of differences in the strategy choice, which again could indicate the apologies offered by the two groups are different since they choose different strategies to compile an apology speech act set.

On the other hand, the two groups differed less in the distribution of supportive moves. They differed in the distribution of each supportive move type in three situations and the differences did not show a pattern. In alerters, American and Turkish participants significantly differed in situations IV, V and VI. In downgraders, they significantly differed in situations II, III and V. Furthermore, in upgraders, they significantly differed in situations I, III and VII. Therefore, it could be considered that the supportive moves offered by the two groups approximate each other.

Question 3 and 4: Are there differences between the native and nonnative English speaking teachers of English as a second/foreign language in the length of their apology speech acts and the number of strategies they use for each situation?

First of all, t-test results show that American and Turkish participants differed in the length of apologies they provided. In six of the eight situations, statistical differences occurred. In five of these, the Turkish participants provided significantly shorter apologies whereas in one situation they provided significantly longer ones. Four of the situation where Turkish participants provided shorter apologies than American participants are those with high imposition. On the contrary, no differences were found in two situations with high power and low imposition. This implies that American participants chose to provide longer apologies when the offense is more serious. The situation in which Turkish participants provided longer apologies is situation VII, in which the power of the speaker is low, the distance between the speaker and the hearer is high and the imposition is low.

Again, the groups differed in the average number of strategies they used to compile their apology speech act sets. In this respect, the result of the t-test on the length of apology reflects on the number of strategies. In six of the eight situations, the groups used significantly different numbers of strategies to compile an apology speech act set. In five of these six situations that resulted in significant difference, the American participants provided apologies consisting of significantly more strategies than the Turkish participants. In only one of them, however, the Turkish participants used more strategies in their apologies. Four of the five situations in which American participants used more strategies are those with high power of speaker. In other words, Turkish participants employed fewer strategies when they are apologizing as a person with higher status. The only one situation in which Turkish participants used more strategies in their apologies is situation VII in which the power of the speaker is low, the distance between the speaker and the hearer is high and the imposition is low.

They also differed in the number of strategies in the head act and the number of supportive moves. In both categories, they differed in five of the eight situations. Again, in these categories, Turkish participants were more likely to provide fewer strategies in the head act and supportive moves in situations where the power of the speaker is high.

Question 5: Do the native and nonnative English speaking teachers of English as a second/foreign language differ in the pattern of apology speech act set for each situation?

In the first situation, the average number of strategies used by American participants to compile an apology is five whereas it is around four for Turkish participants. Thus the researcher can confine the five most frequent strategies into apology speech act sets for American participants and the four most frequent strategies into apology speech act sets for Turkish participants. In these apology speech act sets some similarities and differences are evident. For example, the overall use of strategies in these sets reveals that Turkish participants approximate American ones in apology strategy use. This is evident in the choice of similar strategies in different situations. For example, both groups used *account of situation* in one situation, *upgrading of offense* in only another one, *minimizing offense* in another, *statement of facts* and *distract* in another. These similar choices of strategies by the two groups in different situations show that Turkish participants approximate American participants and that they possess some degree of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge. However, differences were observed. For instance, American participants used more strategies to compile apologies. Also, they commonly used 12 different strategies in the head acts of their apologies they provided in eight situations while the Turkish group commonly used nine different strategies. This could mean that the American group has more strategies at their disposal. Another difference is observed in the use of specific strategies. For example, Turkish participants used the strategy of *accepting blame* more than American participants. To illustrate, while they commonly used *accepting blame* in six of the eight situations, the American participants commonly used it in only three of them. On the other hand, Turkish

participants used *offer of repair* and *emotional expression* in fewer situations. The American participants used *offer of repair* commonly in five of the situations whereas Turkish participants used it in three of them. Also, American participants frequently used *emotional expression* in four of the situations as opposed to Turkish participants who commonly used it in only one situation. These differences could be because of the effect of Turkish participants' first language because there is a tendency to frequently use *accepting blame* in most situations and used *offer of repair* and *emotional expression* in fewer situations than the American participants. Such differences prevent the Turkish participants' apology speech act sets from approximating American participants' apologies completely. Tables 179 through 186 show the patterns of apology speech acts offered by both groups in each situation.

Table 179: Apology patterns in situation I

<i>American</i>	<i>Turkish</i>
Sorry	Sorry
Statement/Question of Dismay	Statement/Question of Dismay
Offer of Repair	Accepting Blame
Intensifier	Intensifier
Emotional Expression	

Table 180: Apology patterns in situation II

<i>American</i>	<i>Turkish</i>
Sorry	Sorry
Account of Situation	Account of Situation
Offer of Repair	Offer of Repair
Intensifier	Intensifier
Preparator	Preparator
Understater	

Table 181: Apology patterns in situation III

<i>American</i>	<i>Turkish</i>
Sorry	Sorry
Offer of Repair	Offer of Repair
Concern for Hearer	Accepting Blame
Intensifier	Intensifier
Emotional Expression	Title/Role

Table 182: Apology patterns in situation IV

<i>American</i>	<i>Turkish</i>
Admission of Facts	Offer of Repair
Upgrading of Offense	Upgrading of Offense
Accepting Blame	Accepting Blame
Statement of Dismay	Preparator
Preparator	

Table 183: Apology patterns in situation V

<i>American</i>	<i>Turkish</i>
Sorry	Sorry
Statement of Facts	Statement of Facts
Distract	Distract
Accepting Blame	Accepting Blame
Attention Getter	

Table 184: Apology patterns in situation VI

<i>American</i>	<i>Turkish</i>
Sorry	Sorry
Minimizing Offense	Minimizing Offense
Accepting Blame	Emotional Expression
Emotional Expression	

Table 185: Apology patterns in situation VII

<i>American</i>	<i>Turkish</i>
Sorry	Sorry
Offer of Repair	Offer of Repair
Emotional Expression	Accepting Blame

Table 186: Apology patterns in situation VIII

<i>American</i>	<i>Turkish</i>
Sorry	Sorry
Distract	Accepting Blame
Denial	
Pause Filler	

The findings show that there are fundamental differences because American and Turkish participants differed in all five research questions. What do these differences tell us or how should we approach these differences? Should we do anything about the gap between the native and nonnative English speaking teachers? One could argue that these differences are normal and an approximation to native speaker output is not necessary as English today is spoken by more nonnative speakers than natives. Moreover, the role of the native speaker is irrelevant in today's context because most of communication exchanges in English are among non-native speakers. However, as explained in the first chapter, this kind of an argument does not have enough ground for a variety of reasons. First of all, there are not enough studies to describe ELF and a clear ELF model has not been proposed (Seidlhofer, 2000: 56; House, 2003: 574; Mollin, 2006: 45) and research reveals that an ELF variety does not exist to adopt as teaching standard (Mollin, 2006: 48-51). In addition, attitudes of learners and teachers are important and research shows that there is a strong tendency among the nonnative speakers to adopt native speaker models. Research also shows that nonnative speakers do not rate non-native models high (Mollin, 2006; Jenkins, 2009; Kuo, 2006). Such studies reveal that L1 norms should be kept as language standards for teaching (Mollin, 2006: 55; Kayman, 2004: 10; Kuo, 2006: 219). Moreover, even the proponents of ELF admit that

the demands of 'the specific situation' of classroom teaching are such that non-native teachers will, themselves, still be required to develop the ability to approximate more closely than their students to a standard native model. This will enable them to provide the classroom exposure that is necessary to provide 'points of reference and models for guidance'" (Jenkins, 1998: 124).

Since learners in the expanding circle lack sufficient input to take as a model, it is essential that non-native English speaking teachers provide an appropriate language model. So as to provide such a model, non-native English speaking teachers should approximate native speaker norms as closely as possible.

This study reveals that there is a significant difference between the apologies provided by native and nonnative English speaking teachers of ESL/EFL, unveiling a gap between these two groups, and causing speculation that there may be problems in pragmatic competence of nonnative English speaking teachers of EFL.

This is something that needs to be dealt with because in addition to strong language proficiency, background knowledge, knowledge of technology, pedagogical knowledge and skills, language teachers need to be well equipped with cultural areas of language (Peyton, 1998: 32). This is reflected in recent works aiming to define competencies of language teachers. The Secretary of National Education of the Republic of Turkey is running a project of defining competences subject teachers need to have. The second report of this ongoing process for English teachers lists four main competences: (1) language, (2) planning, application and administration of teaching, (3) assessment and (4) professional topics. Under language, the report lists two standards, describing language and language acquisition and development. The fifth performance indicator under describing language reads:

Apply knowledge of pragmatics (the effect of context on language) to help students communicate effectively and use English appropriately for a variety of purposes in spoken and written language, and in formal and informal settings. (Daloğlu and Seferoğlu, 2009: 16)

This shows the importance of having pragmatic competence since in order to apply knowledge of pragmatics, teachers will need to possess pragmatic competence. Competencies become especially important when teacher roles are considered. In language teaching, the role of the teacher has been traditionally defined in different approaches and methods in language teaching. Richards and Rodgers (2001, 28-29) says,

Teacher roles in methods are related to the following issues: *(a)* the types of functions teachers are expected to fulfill, whether that of practice director, counselor, or model, for example; *(b)* the degree of control the teacher has over how learning takes place; *(c)* the degree to which the teacher is responsible for determining the content of what is taught; and *(d)* the interactional patterns that develop between teachers and learners. Methods typically depend critically on teacher roles and their realizations. In the classical Audiolingual Method, the teacher is regarded as primary source of language and of language teacher. But less teacher-

directed learning may still demand very specific and sometimes even more demanding roles for the teacher.

Teacher roles extend from being a counselor and facilitator to authority and controller. Eighteen different approaches to and methods of language teaching are listed by Richards and Rodgers (2001) and Larsen-Freeman (2000). In at least thirteen of them the teacher is regarded as either a knower, model or (re)source of a language or provider of content and materials. In order to fulfill these roles, teachers should fill the gaps in their competences in the target language. To solve this problem, an approach that reaches out to current teachers, teacher trainees and language teaching programs could be implemented. First, current teachers should be provided with in-service training that emphasizes language use. Second, teacher training programs should be modified to include courses about pragmatic functions of language. Third, language teaching programs should be revised to include pragmatic information.

In order to train current teachers, in-service training programs should be offered on topics related to the use of language. Currently, in-service training division of the Secretary of National Education of the Republic of Turkey provides eight different training seminars for English teachers. Some of these seminars are for English teachers working at primary schools and some for those working at secondary schools. The seminars are not given in every city. Of the eight different seminars, four are related to introducing a software program, curriculum, course books and an online training. One is about English teaching methods. Another is about assessment and evaluation. There is only one seminar that could be related to pragmatics, the title of which is “Language and Cultural Differences Seminar” and it is offered only once in the city of Ankara (HEDB, 2009). If the number of seminars that train English teachers in the use of language increases, it may have a positive effect on the pragmatic competence of teachers of English. Also, native speaking educators could be employed to provide seminars on language use to model native language use.

The second part of the solution to this problem entails modification of current language teacher training programs in Turkey. The current program of English language teaching proposed by the Higher Education Council of Turkey consists of three modules: knowledge of field, knowledge of profession and culture. In the program, there are three courses in the module of knowledge of field and one course in the module of culture which could incorporate pragmatic training. Specifically, these are Oral Communication Skills I and II and Oral Expression and Public Speaking in the first module as well as Effective Communication Skills in the third module. However, the descriptions of these classes do not include training of students in the area of pragmatics. For example, Oral Communication Skills I and II are aimed at developing more formal communication skills such as discussion, debate, role-play, presentation, supra-segmental speech features. Although Oral Communication Skills II has strategic communicative competence as a component, this may still not be enough for teacher trainees to develop their pragmatic competence. Likewise, Oral Expression and Public Speaking course teaches more formal skills such as speech preparation and delivery, presentation skills as well as skills in job-related situations like interviewing and CV writing. Effective Communication Skills is also a formal course revolving around the definitions of interpersonal communication, communication model, factors preventing communication and communication clashes (YOK, 2006). None of these courses can sufficiently provide students with training in pragmatics of the language they are going to teach.

To overcome the problem of gap in teachers' pragmatic competence, first the English teacher training program could be modified to include more courses geared towards developing pragmatic competence of students. Second, elective courses including target language pragmatics should be offered. If it is not modified to include such courses, English language teachers will not fill the gaps in their pragmatics since this study shows that the current programs or the programs until now have not proved to be successful in developing the pragmatic competence of teachers.

The third solution to the problem could be reviewing and modifying language teaching programs in general. In Turkey, education is centralized. While Higher Education Council defines the programs of higher education, The Secretary of National Education defines the curriculum which should be implemented in primary and secondary education. The program they prepared for grades four through eight for English courses include a very limited aspect of pragmatic information listed in the descriptions of units (see MEB TTKB, 2006). These are greeting, giving directions, thanking, making and responding to suggestions and accepting and refusing a request. However, the sample units in the program do not show any sign of developing pragmatic competence. For example, a unit where conversation management is listed as a speaking skill to develop does not include activities for conversation at all. In addition, there is no indication of making students aware of sociopragmatic factors such as power relations, distance and imposition. All in all, the program for grades four through eight for English course is not promising in terms of developing pragmatic competence.

Likewise, programs for secondary education do not include any component aimed at developing pragmatic competence of learners. For example, the program for ninth grade English lists communicative competence including linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences as one of the competence learners will develop, but the rest of the program does not mention this competence at all (MEB TTKB, 2007). Neither the program for primary education nor secondary education seems to be including enough components to develop pragmatic competence. Until the programs are tailored to include a solid component of pragmatics, EFL learners in Turkey are unlikely to adequately develop pragmatic competence.

In brief, necessary pragmatic teaching should be included in in-service training, teacher training and language teaching programs as studies reveal (i.e. Soler, 2002; Soler, 2005; Koike and Pearson, 2005; Martinez-Flor and Fukuya, 2005; Takahashi, 2005) such instruction in pragmatics may help nonnative English speaking teachers to approximate native speaker model, which will eventually allow them to provide their students an appropriate model and necessary exposure to language in use.

CONCLUSION

Stemming from a belief that pragmatics has been neglected in language teaching, teacher training programs and teaching materials (i.e. Vellenga, 2004; Cohen, 2005), this dissertation study investigated pragmatic competence of nonnative English speaking teachers of English as a foreign language.

In the first chapter, literature related to pragmatics was reviewed and divided into three sections: theoretical background, pragmatic competence and assessment and the native speaker debate. In summary, the development of pragmatic theory from Morris to Searle was discussed. During the mid-twentieth century, philosophers such as Austin (1962) and Searle (1969, 1979) changed the focus from the sentence onto the utterance and speech acts became an important issue. Their works shaped the practice of language teaching in Europe when van Ek, Alexander and Wilkins were affected by their theory and organized their work based on speech acts through functional notional syllabi. The process of defining language teaching in Europe resulted in the document, *A Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*, which is the fundamental document for the teaching of languages in Europe. Recently published textbooks in Europe have been designed on the basis of this document (e.g. Face2Face and Total English). Although the role pragmatics plays in language teaching has increased, it is not enough. To understand its role, pragmatics should be defined. The study of pragmatics, according to different definitions (Graddol ET. 1995: 16, McNamara and Roever, 2006: 54; Dimitracopoulou, 1990: 3; Cutting, 2002: 3; Ochs and Schieffelin, 1983; Yule, 1996 , 3, Fromkin and Rodman, 1993: 159; Malmkjaer, 1991: 354), covers a variety of topics, including the following:

- The use of language
- Utterances' semantic and contextual meanings
- Relationship between language and context and its features
- The speaker's communicative intention
- The speaker-hearer relationship
- The extralinguistic setting of the utterance
- The linguistic setting of the utterance
- Knowledge of conversational norms and conventions
- Users' linguistic choices
- Users' communication problems that come up in their social interactions

- The effects of users' linguistic choices on the interlocutor
- Speaker's belief, intention, (or goal), plan, and act
- Means of communication, including nonconventional, nonverbal, nonsymbolic
- The influences of the context on the interpretation of meaning
- The rules and principles which govern language in use
- The relationships between the abstract systems of language and language in use

The field of pragmatics has developed in two directions. The first is the theory of conversational implicatures by Grice and the second is theory of speech acts by Austin and Searle.

Grice's theory of conversational implicatures derives from the idea that what is said may be different from what is meant. Grice names such implications as conversational implicatures (Grice, 1975: 43-45). He said conversations are cooperative efforts and in conversation there is a principle of cooperation, which is "make your conversation such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged" (p. 45). The principle of cooperation requires some maxims of conversation, which Grice (1975: 45-46) groups into four categories: quantity, quality, relation, and manner. Grice (1975, p. 51-55) explains that these maxims could be used to create conversational implicatures. Speakers can do this by observing a maxim, by violating a maxim, or by flouting a maxim.

Moreover, Grice's theory has been studied by different scholars and different theories stemming from Grice's theory have emerged. One of these theories is relevance theory, which questions the principle of cooperation. Instead of multiple maxims, relevance theory is based on a single maxim, the maxim of relevance. Wilson and Sperber (2002: 607) say, "the central claim of relevance theory is that the expectations of relevance raised by an utterance are precise enough, and predictable enough, to guide the hearer towards the speaker's meaning." They believe relevance is an innate characteristic of human cognition (p. 608), but it is not automatic (p. 610).

Meanwhile, Levinson (2000: 55) considers relevance theory as a reductionist theory.

He is interested in the exploration of default inferences. He makes a distinction between generalized conversational implicature which would normally carry the same implicature for everyone, and particularized conversational implicatures which are exclusive to a specific conversation or an utterance. PCIs require mental efforts of the hearer to derive the particular implicature (Levinson, 2000: 11-16).

Another view comes from Geoffrey Leech. He states that this principle of cooperation alone is not sufficient to explain why some people say what they mean indirectly. Therefore, he suggests that politeness be added to the principle of cooperation (Malmjaer, 1991: 357).

Apart from Leech, Brown and Levinson established their theory of politeness. Their theory is based on face threatening acts (FTA), which are “those acts that by their nature run contrary to the face wants of the addressee and/or of the speaker” (Brown and Levinson, 1987: 65). Such acts are quite common in everyday communication. Sifianou (1999: 32) says, “many communication activities entail imposition on the face of both or either of the participants: that is, they are intrinsically face-threatening activities.” In these cases, conversation partners usually try to communicate politely in order to preserve ‘face’ and in order to that they may not observe maxims of conversations (Jorda, 2005: 59). Jorda (2005: 59-60) says such face threatening acts are initiated after the “calculation of face” work which depends on three main factors: social distance, relative power and degree of imposition. He also believes that none of the theories in the direction of conversational implicatures address the overall communicative act because “they focus on one of the participants, the speaker’s sociolinguistic considerations in the case of politeness theory, and the hearer’s inferencing processes in the relevance theory” (Jorda, 2005: 61).

The second direction in the field of pragmatics was initiated by Austin (1962) with his theory of speech acts. First, he makes a distinction between statements and utterances. Statements are sentences whose function is to describe an event or situation and such sentences could be true or false. Utterances, on the other hand, do

not have a truth level and are used to commit an act. Austin (1962: 8-9) also brings up the concept of the conditions necessary for the successful performance of utterances. In this respect, appropriateness becomes an important condition. The sentence(s) must be delivered in appropriate circumstances. Additionally, the speaker must be serious when s/he engages in acts of speech. Another influential part of Austin's (1962: 108) theory is his definitions of acts embedded in performing speech acts. The first one is locutionary act, which refers to a speaker's uttering "a certain sentence with a certain sense and reference." The second one is illocutionary act, which refers to a speaker's indicating a certain force. The third one is perlocutionary act, which refers to achieving a certain result. For example, when someone says 'open the door', s/he both refers to the door and the act of opening and orders or commands. If s/he gets the hearer to close the door, then s/he has performed a perlocutionary act.

On the other hand, Searle (1969: 23-24) classifies these acts differently. He believes when a person speaks, s/he performs three different acts: uttering words, referring and predicating, and acts like asserting, questioning, commanding and promising. He names such acts as utterance acts, propositional acts and illocutionary acts, respectively. Then, he adds Austin's perlocutionary act as perlocutionary effect of three acts he defines. In developing his own taxonomy, Searle (1979: 5) uses three conditions: illocutionary point, direction of fit and sincerity condition. The first one refers to the purpose of the act. The second one refers to the feature of illocutionary acts which sometimes causes the world to fit the words and some other times causes words to fit the world. When one requests something, one intends to change something in the physical world by getting someone to do something. However, when one congratulates someone, one fits your words to a reality in the world. The third one refers to psychological state of the speaker in performing the illocutionary acts (i.e. want, intent, and belief).

After his analysis of speech acts, he comes up with four different rules which cover a wide range of speech acts. These rules are propositional content condition, preparatory condition, sincerity condition and the essential condition (Searle, 2000:

140). With these rules, Searle systematizes the theory of speech acts. Searle's theory of speech acts affected areas of cross-cultural pragmatics, developmental pragmatics and interlanguage pragmatics (Blum-Kulka, 1997: 43). Since the studies in these areas are interested in pragmatic competence, it is important to understand the term. Pragmatic competence is the “knowledge of the linguistic resources available in a given language for realising particular illocutions, knowledge of the sequential aspects of speech acts and finally, knowledge of the appropriate contextual use of the particular languages’ linguistic resources” (Barron, 2003: 10).

Defining pragmatic competence entails testing this competence. However, unlike general proficiency test, testing pragmatics is very complicated because there are no true or false answers. The focus of testing pragmatics has widely been on speech acts (Cohen, 2004: 302) and this aspect of pragmatics is more developed than others. In testing this aspect of pragmatics, discourse completion questionnaires have been a common instrument. As pragmatic ability requires “offline knowledge and online control of the linguistic and the sociocultural aspects of pragmatics” (McNamara and Roever, 2006: 54-55), the DCT provides sociocultural context in which an utterance appropriate for the given situation is to be uttered by the test-takers. In this study, DCT was used as the test measure and the apologies in English were used as the test items. The reason for this choice is that apologies are critical speech acts in interpersonal communication. Apologies ensure the continuity of interpersonal communication by preventing conflicts and break of interpersonal relations. Also, apologizing is an act that has a strong cultural dimension. Therefore, its interpersonal functions may vary among cultures.

Since this study investigates the pragmatic competence of non-native English speaking teachers, it is relevant to understand the discussion about their position in the field of ELT. Lazaraton (2004, p. 50, quoting Taylor, 2000) says that non-native English speaking teachers need more language improvement, cultural awareness and pedagogical experience. Another question is whether or not their communicative competence interferes with their performance in the classroom (Lazaraton, 2004:

51). Non-native English speaking teachers may not promote cultural knowledge in the classroom because they may feel unsure of such content because they are not well equipped with specific knowledge of target cultures (McKay, 2003: 10). “Culture as it relates to pragmatic appropriateness is more problematic” (p. 11), because English language learners may not have enough opportunities to engage in communication that will allow them to acquire pragmatic competence (p.12). However, since pragmatics is central to language use and language learning, pragmatic issues should be addressed in the classroom (Rose, 1994b: 52). Therefore, it is important to assess pragmatic competence of non-native English speaking teachers.

When an assessment method uses native speaker English use as a model, the debate of the validity of using native speaker norms is inevitable because of the function of English as a global lingua franca. In the 20th century, the number of non-native speakers well outnumbered native speakers and those for whom English is a second language. Only one fourth of English speakers are native speakers (Graddol, 2000: 10; Crystal, 1997: 68-69). In such a world, English has a role as a lingua franca between non-native speakers and thus it is argued that English is formed by non-native speakers as well (Seidlhofer, 2005: 340). It is also argued that ELF is a variety at its own right. However, there are not many studies describing ELF and a precise description of ELF has not been proposed (Seidlhofer, 2000: 56; House, 2003: 574; Mollin, 2006: 45). Also there are studies that find that there is no common feature of ELF (i.e. Mollin, 2006). Moreover, other studies also found that learners are highly inclined toward native speaker norms (Jenkins, 2009; Kuo, 2006). Therefore, native-speaker norms should be kept as the teaching model (Mollin, 2006: 55; Kayman, 2004: 10; Kuo, 2006: 219).

In the second chapter, the methodology of this study was described. Details of the test development and pilot testing processes were given. In this study, situations were created based on three sociopragmatic variables: relative power of speaker, the distance between the speaker and the hearer and the ranking of imposition. These variables were selected either as high or low and thus eight different distributions of

these three variables emerged. In the pilot test, two situations were created for each distributions and 13 native speakers rated the sociopragmatic variable for each situation on a Liker scale of one through five. Results were analyzed based on central tendency measures and one-sample t-test. Then, eight situations for eight distributions were selected for the actual test and necessary revisions were made. Next, the research questions of the main study were listed. Descriptions of the participants, materials, coding and analysis were also included in this chapter. Two-hundred teachers participated in the study. Half of them were American and the other half were Turkish. They were given a DCT including eight apology situations. To code the data, a coding guide was prepared based on the previous cross-cultural pragmatic studies with a focus on apologies. Particularly, the coding scheme used by Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989) and Hudson, Detmer and Brown (1995) were used as the base of the scheme used in this study. Next, the analysis process was explained. *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* software program was used in this study for the analysis of data. In particular, chi-square test for categorical data and independent-sample t-test for parametric data were used.

The third chapter was devoted to statistical results of the data. The chapter presented the results of the chi-square tests and t-tests in tables and graphics. Statistical results of the strategy use, chi-square test results for the distribution of tokens across strategies and the results of t-test were given for the eight situations in the test. Results showed that there were major statistically significant differences between the two groups in each category of comparison. The results of the statistical analyses were interpreted in four ways: statistical variations in strategy use, distribution of tokens across strategies, t-test results and patterns of common strategy use. The findings of the study follow:

- ✓ In situation I, eight strategies resulted in significant differences: *sorry, offer of repair, accepting blame, pardon, surprise, emotional expression, emphasis and repetition*
- ✓ In situation II, four strategies resulted in significant differences: *expression of embarrassment, concern for hearer, understater and emotional expression*

- ✓ In situation III, twelve strategies resulted in significant differences: *title/role*, *apologize*, *forgive*, *request*, *accepting blame*, *concern for hearer*, *pardon*, *politeness marker*, *emotional expression*, *emphasis*, *lexical uptoner* and *repetition*
- ✓ In situation IV, eight strategies resulted in significant differences: *first name*, *title/role*, *preparator*, *forgive*, *offer of repair*, *request*, *statement/question of dismay* and *surprise*.
- ✓ In situation V, eleven strategies resulted in significant differences: *attention getter*, *apologize*, *admission of facts but not responsibility*, *statement of facts but not responsibility*, *expressing gratitude*, *request*, *accepting blame*, *politeness marker*, *understater*, *cajoler* and *intensifier*.
- ✓ In situation VI, twelve strategies resulted in significant differences: *first name*, *sorry*, *offer of repair*, *minimizing offense*, *distract*, *accepting blame*, *statement/question of dismay*, *blaming victim*, *surprise*, *intensifier*, *emotional expression*, *emphasis* and *repetition*.
- ✓ In situation VII, eleven strategies resulted in significant differences: *title/role*, *sorry*, *excuse*, *account of situation*, *accepting blame*, *lack of intent*, *statement/question of dismay*, *understater*, *cajoler*, *intensifier* and *emotional expression*.
- ✓ In situation VIII, eleven strategies resulted in significant differences: *surname*, *sorry*, *forgive*, *statement/question of dismay*, *expressing gratitude*, *accepting blame*, *denial*, *subjectivizer*, *pause filler* and *repetition*.
- ✓ When the power of the speaker is lower, nonnative English speaking teachers tend to use the strategy of accepting blame more than the situations in which the power of the speaker is high.
- ✓ In the situations with low imposition, there is more variability in the strategies non-native English speaking teachers use.
- ✓ Nonnative English speaking teachers tend to use illocutionary force indicating devices less in situations with low distance than the situations with high distance.
- ✓ In situations with low imposition, there is a low frequency of use of intensifier by the both native and nonnative English speaking teachers.

- ✓ In situations with low imposition, there is a tendency to use strategies which carry negative attitude such as *distract* or *denial*.
- ✓ The overall distribution of tokens across all the strategies including head acts, alerters, downgraders, and upgraders resulted in significant differences in all of the eight situations.
- ✓ The distribution of tokens across the strategies in the head act resulted in significant differences in seven of the eight situations.
- ✓ The two groups differed in the distribution of each supportive move type in three situations and the differences did not show a pattern
- ✓ T-test results show that American and Turkish participants differed in the length of apologies they provided in six of the eight situations.
- ✓ The groups differed in the average number of strategies they used to compile their apology speech act sets in six of the eight situations.
- ✓ The groups differed in the number of strategies in the head act and the number of supportive moves in five of the eight situations.
- ✓ In situation I, American participants' apologies include strategies *sorry*, *statement/question of dismay*, *offer of repair*, *intensifier* and *emotional expression* while Turkish participants used *sorry*, *statement/question of dismay*, *accepting blame* and *intensifier*.
- ✓ In situation II, American participants' apologies include strategies *sorry*, *account of situation*, *offer of repair*, *intensifier*, *preparator* and *understater* while Turkish participants used *sorry*, *account of situation*, *offer of repair*, *intensifier* and *preparator*.
- ✓ In situation III, the American participants' apologies include strategies *sorry*, *offer of repair*, *concern for hearer*, *intensifier* and *emotional expression* while Turkish participants used *sorry*, *offer of repair*, *accepting blame*, *intensifier* and *title/role*.
- ✓ In situation IV, American participants' apologies include strategies *admission of facts*, *upgrading of offense*, *accepting blame*, *statement/question of dismay* and *preparator* while Turkish participants used *offer of repair*, *upgrading of offense*, *accepting blame* and *preparator*.

- ✓ In situation V, American participants' apologies include strategies *sorry*, *statement of facts*, *distract*, *accepting blame* and *attention getter* while Turkish participants used *sorry*, *statement of facts*, *distract* and *accepting blame*.
- ✓ In situation VI, American participants' apologies include strategies *sorry*, *minimizing offense*, *accepting blame* and *emotional expression* while Turkish participants used *sorry*, *minimizing offense* and *emotional expression*.
- ✓ In situation VII, American participants' apologies include strategies *sorry*, *offer of repair* and *emotional expression* while Turkish participants used *sorry*, *offer of repair* and *accepting blame*.
- ✓ In situation VIII, American participants' apologies include strategies *sorry*, *distract*, *denial* and *pause filler* while Turkish participants used *sorry* and *accepting blame*.

Based on these findings, some suggestions were made. These suggestions could be outlined as follows:

- Current teachers could be provided with in-service training that includes a strong aspect of language use.
- Teacher training programs could be modified to include courses about the topic.
- Language teaching programs could be revised so that students could be exposed to pragmatics.

Theoretical views focusing on pragmatics have brought a new point of view to language teaching. This study will reach its aim to the extent that it complements discussions in this direction.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Situation Framework

Situation Framework

	Dist. 1	Dist. 2	Dist. 3	Dist. 4	Dist. 5	Dist. 6	Dist. 7	Dist. 8
Power	+	+	-	-	+	+	-	-
Distance	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
Imposition	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-

Distribution 1.

Sit. A. You : Owner of a school
 Hearer : Representative of a publisher you have not met before
 Cause of imposition : Spilling tea on his/her bag and damaging some sample books and important documents

Sit. B. You : Doctor
 Hearer : Representative of a pharmaceutical company you have not met before
 Cause of imposition : Stepping on his bag and damaging some gifts he has prepared for other people

Distribution 2.

Sit. A. You : Professor
 Hearer : Student
 Cause of imposition : Losing his/her final project s/he has prepared over a course of 6 weeks

Sit. B. You : Director of a store
 Hearer : Employee
 Cause of imposition : Bumping one of your employees' car that you borrowed into another car

Distribution 3.

Sit. A. You : Electronics repairer
 Hearer : Customer
 Cause of imposition : Cracking the screen of a customer's pocket pc which s/he brought for battery replacement

Sit. B. You : Employee in a coffee shop
 Hearer : Customer
 Cause of imposition : Failing to put the cap on correctly and causing him/her to burn his/her hand

Distribution 4.

Sit. A. You : Student
Hearer : Professor
Cause of imposition : Losing his/her copy of a rare book you borrowed

Sit. B. You : Vice president
Hearer : President
Cause of imposition : Signing a document that should not have been signed when he was on a business trip

Distribution 5.

Sit. A. You : Customer at a restaurant
Hearer : Waiter
Cause of imposition : Hitting his/her arm and causing him/her to drop a bottle. Luckily it doesn't break

Sit. B. You : Human resources manager
Hearer : Applicant
Cause of imposition : Coming a little late for an appointment because of traffic

Distribution 6.

Sit. A. You : Professor/advisor
Hearer : Student
Cause of imposition : Coming a little late for an advising session

Sit. B. You : Director at a department in a company
Hearer : Secretary
Cause of imposition : Knocking over a vase and a framed picture on the ground. They don't break

Distribution 7.

Sit. A. You : Sales representative in an electronics store
Hearer : Customer
Cause of imposition : Helped a customer who came later and causing the other customer who came earlier to wait a little bit

Sit. B. You : Researcher
Hearer : Member of a Science Foundation
Cause of imposition : Hitting the bookcase and causing some books to fall on the ground.

Distribution 8.

- Sit. A. You : Administrative assistant
Hearer : Administrator
Cause of imposition : Accidentally saving your document over one of his documents. S/he backs up data every time s/he uses his laptop
- Sit. B. You : Customer representative at a bank
Hearer : Customer
Cause of imposition : Making a customer waiting a little because of a phone call from the manager

APPENDIX B: Pilot test

PILOT TEST

This test is designed to pilot test some testing materials as part of a dissertation study comparing the language use of native speakers of American English with non-native English speaking teachers of English as a foreign language. Please follow the instructions to fill out this form. Thank you for participating in this study.

Demographic data: Please provide the demographic information below.

Country : **Age** : **Sex** :

Occupation : **Native Language :**

Instructions: For each situation below, please rank the power of the speaker (S) over the hearer (H) (i.e. the power of the speaker would be rated higher if he is a father talking to his child), the social distance between the speaker and the hearer (i.e. the social distance would be rated higher if the speakers are strangers) and the absolute ranking of the imposition caused by the act (i.e. the imposition of requesting to borrow money would be rated higher than requesting to change a dollar) in a scale of 1 to 5, 1 being the lowest. Also please write what you would do in each situation. An example is given below.

Example: You are the owner of a company. You want to see the sales report. You call your assistant.

Power of the Speaker	High	5	4	3	2	1	Low
Social distance between S and H	High	5	4	3	2	1	Low
Imposition of the act on the S	High	5	4	3	2	1	Low

What would you do in this situation?

I would request my assistant to bring me the sales report

Situation 1. You are the owner of a private school. A representative of a publication company whom you have not met before is visiting you to introduce new course books. While looking at the samples the representative brought, you accidentally spill tea on his/her bag and some sample books and important documents are damaged.

Power of the Speaker	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Distance between S and H	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Imposition of the act on the S	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low

What would you do in this situation?

Situation 2. You are a doctor. A representative of a pharmaceutical company whom you have not met before is visiting you to introduce new products. You get up to get some water and while you are coming back to your seat, you step on his/her bag and some gifts he has prepared for other people are damaged.

Power of the Speaker	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Distance between S and H	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Imposition of the act on the S	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low

What would you do in this situation?

Situation 3. You are a professor in the English department. You collected the final projects for a class you are teaching. Now you find out that you lost one of the projects. The student prepared it over the course of 6 weeks with intensive work and revisions. The student needs to prepare it again because you lost it and s/he has only one week.

Power of the Speaker	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Distance between S and H	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Imposition of the act on the S	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low

What would you do in this situation?

Situation 4. You are the director of a department store. As you are leaving for the bank, you notice your car has broken down. Since you have to go to the bank, you borrow a car from one of your employees. While you are coming from the bank, you bump into another car and both cars receive some damage. Now you see him/her.

Power of the Speaker	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Distance between S and H	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Imposition of the act on the S	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low

What would you do in this situation?

Situation 5. You are an electronics repairman. One of your customers brought a pocket pc for battery replacement. As you were working on it, you cracked its screen and the screen lost its touch-screen function. The customer is now asking for his/her pocket pc.

Power of the Speaker	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Distance between S and H	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Imposition of the act on the S	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low

What would you do in this situation?

Situation 6. You work in a coffee shop. You have given a cup of coffee to a customer. Because you failed to put the cap on correctly, it spilled on him/her and burnt his/her hand.

Power of the Speaker	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Distance between S and H	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Imposition of the act on the S	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low

What would you do in this situation?

Situation 7. You are a university student. You borrowed a rare book from your professor, which you could not find elsewhere. You need to return it today but you cannot find it anywhere. Obviously, you have lost it. Now you see your professor.

Power of the Speaker	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Distance between S and H	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Imposition of the act on the S	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low

What would you do in this situation?

Situation 8. You are the vice president of an institution. Since the president was on a business trip last week, you were the acting president. You notice now that you signed a document which should not have been signed at all cost. Now you see the president.

Power of the Speaker	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Distance between S and H	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Imposition of the act on the S	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low

What would you do in this situation?

Situation 9. You are having lunch at a restaurant. While getting up to go to the restroom, you hit the waiter/waitress's arm and s/he drops a bottle. Luckily it did not break.

Power of the Speaker	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Distance between S and H	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Imposition of the act on the S	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low

What would you do in this situation?

Situation 10. You are the human resources manager of a company. You made an appointment with an applicant for today, but unfortunately you have run late because of traffic. Now you go to your office and see the applicant.

Power of the Speaker	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Distance between S and H	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Imposition of the act on the S	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low

What would you do in this situation?

Situation 11. You are a professor and the advisor of a degree program at a university. You made an appointment with one of your students for today. However, you have run late for the advising session. Now you see the student.

Power of the Speaker	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Distance between S and H	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Imposition of the act on the S	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low

What would you do in this situation?

Situation 12. You are the director of a department in a company. As you are passing by your secretary's table, you accidentally knock over a vase and a framed picture on the ground. Luckily, they don't break.

Power of the Speaker	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Distance between S and H	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Imposition of the act on the S	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low

What would you do in this situation?

Situation 13. You are a sales representative in an electronics store. You helped a customer who came later and the other one who came earlier had to wait for awhile.

Now you are done with the one you are helping and you noticed your mistake. You are talking to the customer who had to wait now.

Power of the Speaker	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Distance between S and H	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Imposition of the act on the S	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low

What would you do in this situation?

Situation 14. You are a researcher. You want to get a grant for one of your projects. Now you are in the office of one of the members of a science foundation. While presenting your project, you hit his/her bookcase and a couple of books fall on the ground.

Power of the Speaker	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Distance between S and H	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Imposition of the act on the S	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low

What would you do in this situation?

Situation 15. You are an administrative assistant in a company. Since your computer at work is broken, you are using your administrator's laptop for the morning until your computer is fixed. While you are using it, you accidentally save a document over one of his/her documents, so his/her document is erased. You know s/he backs up his/her computer every time s/he uses it, so s/he has that document in a disk.

Power of the Speaker	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Distance between S and H	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low
Imposition of the act on the S	High	5 ☐	4 ☐	3 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	Low

What would you do in this situation?

Situation 16. You are a customer representative at a bank. One of your long-term customers you know well comes today. As you are talking to him/her, you get a phone call from the manager and the customer has to wait a little. Now you hang up the phone.

Power of the Speaker	High	5	☐	4	☐	3	☐	2	☐	1	☐	Low
Distance between S and H	High	5	☐	4	☐	3	☐	2	☐	1	☐	Low
Imposition of the act on the S	High	5	☐	4	☐	3	☐	2	☐	1	☐	Low

What would you do in this situation?

THANK YOU!

APPENDIX C: Discourse Completion Questionnaires

SECTION I. Biographic Data

Please provide the background information asked below.

1. Age: _____ 2. Sex: _____ 3. Native language: _____
4. Profession: _____
5. Is your parents' first language American English? Yes ☐ No ☐
6. If you have been to foreign countries, please list the names and the length of your stay:

7. Are there other languages that you acquired/learned before puberty? Yes ☐ No ☐
If yes, please specify: _____
8. Have you studied other languages after puberty? Yes ☐ No ☐
If yes, please specify which languages and the duration: _____
9. What is the highest level of education you have completed? _____

SECTION II.

Instructions: Read each of the situations on the following pages and write after each situation what you would normally say in the given situation. Please write the actual words you would say rather than saying "I would ..."

Example:

One of your friends asks you if s/he could borrow your car on Saturday. Since you are planning to take it in for regular maintenance, you decide not to lend it.

You say: *Sorry, I really wish I could help you but I really need to take my car in for maintenance. Maybe another time.*

Situation 1: You are the owner of a private school. A representative of a publication company whom you have not met before is visiting you to introduce new course books. This is the first time a representative from this publication company has visited your school. While looking at the samples the representative brought, you accidentally spill tea on his/her bag and some important documents and sample books are damaged.

You say: _____

Situation 2: You are the director of a department store. As you are leaving for the bank, you notice your car has broken down. Since you have to go to the bank, you borrow a car from one of your employees with whom you have good relationship. While you are coming from the bank, you bump into another car and both cars receive some damage. Now you see him/her.

You say: _____

Situation 3: You work in a coffee shop. You give a cup of coffee to a customer. Because you fail to put the cap on correctly, it spills on him/her and burns his/her hand.

You say: _____

Situation 4: You are the vice-president of a company. The president of the company, who is also the owner, was on a business trip last week. While s/he was away, you were the acting president. You notice now that you signed a document which should not have been signed at all costs. Now you see the president.

You say: _____

Situation 5: You are the human resources manager of a company. You have made an appointment with an applicant for today, but unfortunately you arrive five minutes late because of traffic. Now you go to your office and see the applicant.

You say: _____

Situation 6: You are the director of a department in a company. As you are passing by your secretary's table, you accidentally knock over a vase and a framed picture on the ground. Luckily, they don't break.

You say: _____

Situation 7: You are a researcher. Since you need financial support for one of your projects, you apply to a science foundation for a grant. Now you are in the office of the director of the foundation to present your project. While presenting, you use the board that is next to a bookcase and accidentally hit it with your elbow and a couple of books fall on the ground.

You say: _____

Situation 8: You are a customer representative at a bank. One of your long-term customers you know very well comes today. As you are talking to him/her, you get a phone call from the manager and the customer has to wait a couple of minutes. Now you hang up the phone.

You say: _____

< End of questionnaire >

SECTION I. Biographic Data

Please provide the background information asked below.

1. Age: _____ 2. Sex: _____ 3. Where do you teach? _____

4. How long have you studied English? _____ years

5. Where and how did you learn English?

6. How long have you been teaching English? _____ years

7. If you have been to foreign countries, please list the names and the duration of your stay:

8. Did you have native-English-speaking teachers? Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, please specify their countries of origin and how long you took classes from them:

9. In general, how would you rate your English?

Intermediate ☐ Upper-intermediate ☐ Advanced ☐ Native-like ☐

10. Have you studied other languages? Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, please specify which languages and how long you have studied them:

11. Do you watch TV, listen to radio or read newspapers or magazines in American English?

Yes ☐ No ☐ If yes, how frequently: _____

12. Do you have contact with native speakers of American English? Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, how frequently, how long and why? _____

13. Please list the textbooks you have used to learn and teach English:

14. Which dialect of English do you speak?

☐ American ☐ British ☐ Other (Please specify _____)

15. Which dialect of English do you teach?

☐ American ☐ British ☐ Other (Please specify _____)

16. How old were you when you started learning English? _____ years old

SECTION II.

Instructions: Read each of the situations on the following pages and write after each situation what you would normally say in the given situation. Please write the actual words you would say rather than saying “I would ...”

Example: One of your friends asks you if s/he could borrow your car on Saturday. Since you are planning to take it in for regular maintenance, you decide not to lend it.

You say: *Sorry, I really wish I could help you but I really need to take my car in for maintenance. Maybe another time.*

Situation 1: You are the owner of a private school. A representative of a publication company whom you have not met before is visiting you to introduce new course books. This is the first time a representative from this publication company has visited your school. While looking at the samples the representative brought, you accidentally spill tea on his/her bag and some important documents and sample books are damaged.

You say: _____

Situation 2: You are the director of a department store. As you are leaving for the bank, you notice your car has broken down. Since you have to go to the bank, you borrow a car from one of your employees with whom you have good relationship. While you are coming from the bank, you bump into another car and both cars receive some damage. Now you see him/her.

You say: _____

Situation 3: You work in a coffee shop. You give a cup of coffee to a customer. Because you fail to put the cap on correctly, it spills on him/her and burns his/her hand.

You say: _____

Situation 4: You are the vice-president of a company. The president of the company, who is also the owner, was on a business trip last week. While s/he was away, you were the acting president. You notice now that you signed a document which should not have been signed at all costs. Now you see the president.

You say: _____

Situation 5: You are the human resources manager of a company. You have made an appointment with an applicant for today, but unfortunately you arrive five minutes late because of traffic. Now you go to your office and see the applicant.

You say: _____

Situation 6: You are the director of a department in a company. As you are passing by your secretary's table, you accidentally knock over a vase and a framed picture on the ground. Luckily, they don't break.

You say: _____

Situation 7: You are a researcher. Since you need financial support for one of your projects, you apply to a science foundation for a grant. Now you are in the office of the director of the foundation to present your project. While presenting, you use the board that is next to a bookcase and accidentally hit it with your elbow and a couple of books fall on the ground.

You say: _____

Situation 8: You are a customer representative at a bank. One of your long-term customers you know, very well comes today. As you are talking to him/her, you get a phone call from the manager and the customer has to wait a couple of minutes. Now you hang up the phone.

You say: _____

<End of questionnaire >

APPENDIX D: Coding Guide

Coding Guide

Strategy Code	Strategy	Example
S1	Sorry	• I am sorry
S2	Afraid	• I am afraid
S3	Apologize	• I apologize
S4	Forgive	• Forgive me
S5	Excuse	• Excuse me
S6	Account of situation	• I am sorry I had an accident in your car.
S7	Admission of facts, but not responsibility	• I had an accident in your car.
S8	Statement of facts, not responsibility	• Traffic was really bad today.
S9	Offer of repair/reparation	• I'll pay for the damages.
S10	Promise of forbearance	• It will not happen again
S11	Minimize offense/brushing off incident as unimportant	• It's just a minor accident.
S12	Expressing gratitude/Thanking	• Thanks for waiting
S13	Distract: -with task oriented remark -Query precondition -Act innocently -Appeaser	• Let's focus on my data here. • Why don't you get a cup of coffee? • Where were we? • Let me give you a refill for free.
S14	Upgrading of offense	• Those can really hurt.
S15	Requests	• Please, come into my office for your interview.
S16	Accepting blame/self-deficiency/Self-castigation/Self-blame	• How clumsy of me! • I have nothing to excuse my behavior • I did not realize what I was doing
S17	Expression of embarrassment	• Gosh, I am so embarrassed
S18	Justify hearer/Recognizing B as deserving apology	• You deserve an apology
S19	Expressing lack of intent	• It was inadvertent.
S20	Statement / question of dismay	• I don't know what I should do.
S21	Regret	• I regret to tell you ...
S22	Concern for hearer	• Are you OK?
S23	Blaming victim/offending victim	• I would be happier if you could arrange your things more neatly.
S24	Denial	• The other car backed into me, so it was their fault.
S25	Laughing it off /distract with humor	• Is today my lucky day or what?
S26	Atypical action	• I've decided to pursue another career path.
S27	Pardon	• Pardon me
A1	Attention getters	• Excuse me
A2	Surname	• Mr. Smith

A3	First name	• John
A4	Undetermined name	• X
A5	Title/role	• Professor
A6	Preparator	• You are not going to believe what I just did.
D1	Politeness markers	• Please
D2	Subjectivizer	• I suppose...
D3	Hedge	• Somehow
D4	Appealer	• Okay?
D5	Pause filler	• Well
D6	Understater	• A bit
D7	Cajoler	• You know
D8	Surprise	• I can't believe it.
U1	Intensifier	• Very
U2	Emotional expression	• Oh.
U3	Emphasis	• Any type of textual enhancement such as underlying, capitalization, etc.
U4	Expletive	• Damn
U5	Lexical uptoner	• Right away.
U6	Repetition	• I am sorry... I am sorry.

APENDIX E: Coding Sheet

Participant: _____

L1/L2:			Age:			Sex:		
Strategy	Sit. 1	Sit. 2	Sit. 3	Sit. 4	Sit. 5	Sit. 6	Sit. 7	Sit. 8
S1								
S2								
S3								
S4								
S5								
S6								
S7								
S8								
S9								
S10								
S11								
S12								
S13								
S14								
S15								
S16								
S17								
S18								
S19								
S20								
S21								
S22								
S23								
S24								
S25								
S26								
S27								
A1								
A2								
A3								
A4								
A5								
A6								
D1								

D2								
D3								
D4								
D5								
D6								
D7								
D8								
U1								
U2								
U3								
U4								
U5								
U6								
Length								

APPENDIX F: Sample Coded Data

L1/L2:		1	Age:		28	Sex:		2
Strategy	Sit. 1	Sit. 2	Sit. 3	Sit. 4	Sit. 5	Sit. 6	Sit. 7	Sit. 8
S1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1
S2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
S3	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
S4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
S5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
S6	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
S7	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
S8	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
S9	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0
S10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
S11	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
S12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
S13	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
S14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
S15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
S16	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1
S17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
S18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
S19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
S20	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
S21	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
S22	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
S23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
S24	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
S25	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
S26	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
A1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0
A2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
A3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
A4	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
A5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
A6	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
D1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
D2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
D3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
D4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
D5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
D6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
D7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
D8	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0

U1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
U2	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0
U3	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0
U4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
U5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
U6	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
Length	38	50	32	62	24	22	21	22

BIOGRAPHY

Mehmet Kanık, who was born in Bucak, Burdur, Turkey in 1978, completed primary education between 1984 and 1992 in his hometown. Then, he went to Antalya where he finished his high school education at Aksu Anatolian Teacher Training High School in 1996. Between 1996 and 2000, he attended the Department of Foreign Language Education at Middle East Technical University and received his Bachelor's degree. After college, he taught English for a year in Antalya at a private cram school. In the same year, he was awarded a scholarship for graduate studies in the USA by the Secretary of National Education of the Republic of Turkey. The following year, he was enrolled in masters program in TESOL at the University of Southern California in Los Angeles, California, USA. He received his master's degree in 2003. Next, he was admitted to the Ph.D. program in Second Language Acquisition and Teaching at the University of Arizona in Tucson, Arizona, USA. After taking Ph.D. courses for two years, he had to return to Turkey in 2005 for health issues in his family.

In Turkey, he was admitted to Ph.D. program in English Language Teaching at Istanbul University in 2005. He also started to work for the Department of Foreign Language Education as a research assistant. In 2010, he finished his doctorate studies with a dissertation titled as "The Use of Pragmatic Strategies by Nonnative English-Speaking Teachers of English as a Foreign Language in Turkey and Native English-Speaking Teachers of English as a Second Language in the USA". Mr. Kanık speaks Turkish, English and Spanish.