KARADENİZ TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ * SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ

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UYGULAMALI DİL BİLİMİ YÜKSEK LİSANS PROGRAMI

A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF POLITENESS STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY

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We certify that we have read this thesis and that in our combined opinion
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ABSTRACT

Employing the theoretical framework proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987), a study was conducted to find whether or not there are differences in the use and number of the politeness strategies employed by American Native Speakers of English (NSE), Turkish teachers of English (EFL) and Native speakers of Turkish (NST). This study also attempted to find out whether and to what extent the speech acts of favor asking (Low and High imposition), complaining and griping are face threatening. The effect of contextual variables, that is, power, social distance, ranking of imposition and gender were also studied to contribute to our understanding of the concept of verbal politeness in these societies. A questionnaire consisting of 24 speech situations with 6 types of equal and unequal social status was administered to 70 volunteers. The results of this study revealed that there are significant differences among the groups in their choice of strategies in the realization of the speech acts. In most of the cases, the EFL group deviated from both the NSE and NST groups. Also, the EFL group, in 14 out of 16 situations, employed the highest number of strategies and this made their utterances the most lengthy ones. The NST and EFL groups by modifying their employed strategies, displayed more sensitivity towards the gender variable, but the NSE group did not consider the gender variable as an important factor to change the strategies. Further analyses showed that all of the groups found FAL (Favor Asking Low) and GR (Griping) less face threatening than the FAH (Favor Asking High) and CM (Complaining), respectively. Also, for the EFL and NST groups, the power of the interlocutors was considered to be an important factor to choose the strategies; however, it was not the case with the NSE group. In sum, it would be possible to say that the variables included in this study are perceived differently by the survey groups and this can bring about cross-cultural miscommunication.

ÖZET

Brown ve Levinson'un öne sürdüğü teoriye bağlı olarak, anadili İngilizce olan Amerikalılar (NSE), anadili Türkçe olan İngilizce öğretmenleri (EFL) ve anadili Türkçe olan ve İngilizce öğretmeni olmayan öğretmenlerin (NST) nezaket stratejilerinin kullanımında fark olup olmadığı araştırılmıştır. Ayrıca, bu çalışma, ricada bulunmak (az ve çok zahmetli), sızlanmak ve şikâyet etmek gibi konuşma eylemlerinin, kişinin itibarını tehdit edip etmediğini ve tehdit derecesini araştırmıştır. Söz konusu toplumlardaki sözlü nezaket kavramının anlaşılmasına katkıda bulunmak amacıyla, sosyal konum, bireyler arası mesafe, zahmet derecesi ve cinsiyet gibi değişkenlerin etkisi de ele alınmıştır. Altı çeşit aynı ve farklı sosyal konumdan oluşan, yirmi dört konuşma ortamı içeren anket, yetmiş gönüllüye uygulanmıştır. Bu çalışma, söz konusu grupların kullandığı stratejilerin farklı olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır. Durumların çoğunda, EFL grubunun diğer iki gruptan (NSE ve NST) farklı stratejiler kullandığı görülmüştür. Üstelik EFL grubu, on altı durumdan on dördünde en fazla stratejiyi kullanarak ifadelerini en uzun şekilde dile getirmiştir. Aynı zamanda, NST ve EFL grupları cinsiyet değişkenine daha çok hassasiyet göstermişlerdir. Analizler, bütün grupların, çok zahmetli ricada bulunma ve şikâyet etmeyi, az zahmetli ricada bulunma ve sızlanmaktan daha itibarı tehdit edici bulduklarını ortaya koymuştur. Ayrıca, NST ve EFL grupları, stratejilerin seçiminde, karşısındaki kişinin sosyal konumunu önemli bir etken olarak görürken, bu durum NSE grubu için geçerli değildir. Özet olarak, çalışmada ele alınan değişkenlerin araştırma grupları tarafından farklı algılandığı ve bunun kültürler arası yanlış anlamaya neden olduğu sonucuna varılmıştır.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A	Act
BO	Boss
BR	Bold on Record
CH	Child
CO	Co-worker
CP	Cooperative Principle
CM	Complaining
D	Social Distance
EFL	Turkish Learners of English as a Foreign Language
e.g.	For Example
etc.	And so forth
EM	Employee
FAH	Favor asking with Perceived High Imposition Ranking
FAL	Favor asking with Perceived Low Imposition Ranking
f_e	Expected Frequency
FR	Friend
FTA	Face Threatening Act
GR	Griping
H	Hearer
i.e.	That is
NA	Don't Do the Face Threatening Act
NP	Negative Politeness
NSE	American Native Speakers of English
NST	Turkish Native Speakers of Turkish
OR	Off-Record
P	Politeness
PA	Parent
PP	Positive Politeness

PR	Professor
R	Ranking of Impositions
S	Speaker
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
ST	Student
WDCT	Written Discourse Completion Task
χ^2	Chi-Square

CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

This chapter is an introduction to the concepts of the language and culture, explains the background of the study, highlights the theoretical framework, purpose and significance of the study, identifies the research questions and finally outlines the design of the study.

1.2. Nature of the Study

With few exceptions, everybody possesses one or more languages to communicate with other members of society. Although it is said that human beings have the advantage of coping with each other through the use of language, it has been observed that regardless of social status, gender or any other factor, in some cases they cannot understand each other even if they are communicating in the same language. The importance of this complex skill can become more obvious by focusing on Hoffmann's (1993, as cited in Akıncı, 1999) explanation: "Each type of animal has some special weapon or deference [sic], like running fast or sharp teeth, sharp ears, long claws or long neck. We humans excel in none of these ways, but we have language" (p. 1).

The relation between language and culture has long been under the focus of researchers (e.g., Wilhelm von Humboldt, 1767; Gleason, 1961; Guiora, 1981, all as cited in Brown, 2000; Clarke, Losoff, McCracken & Rood, 1984), and scholars (e.g., Sapir, 1929; Whorf, 1956; Fishman, 1960 & 1972, all as cited in Wardhaugh, 1986, to name only a few). This body of literature shows that the relation between language and culture has been and will continue to be the focus of many researchers.

There are several ways to estimate the cultural values of people, and one of them is their way of communication or, in other words, the strategies they prefer to use to express themselves through their linguistic competence and performance. A rough recognition of cultural values of two people communicating with each other in the same first language can be estimated.

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (Bullon, 2001) defines culture as "the beliefs, way of life, art and customs that are shaped and accepted by people in a particular society" (p. 382). Different researchers (e.g., Goodenough, 1957, as cited in Wardhaugh, 1986; Richards, Platt & Platt, 1992) have defined culture differently. Of these, one of the most comprehensive definitions was proposed by Larson and Smalley (1972, as cited in Brown, 2000). They describe culture as a 'blueprint' that:

> guides the behavior of people in a community and is incubated in family life. It governs our behavior in groups, makes us sensitive to matters of status, and helps us know what others expect of us and what will happen if we do not live up to their expectations. Culture helps us to know how far we can go as individuals and what our responsibility is to the group. (pp. 176-7)

According to this definition, we as the individuals of the society are confronted with some expectations. One of these expectations is dealing with our linguistic performance and among those practices are the rules of politeness.

Different researchers (e.g., Adegbija, 1989; Ide, 1993; Nwoye, 1992; Richards et al., 1992; Holmes, 1995) have also defined politeness differently. Held (1992, as cited in Dimitrova-Galaczi, n.d.) is not far from the truth when he points to politeness as "definitionally fuzzy and empirically difficult area" (p. 1). Also, for this linguistic phenomenon, there are many synonyms such as formality, deference, indirectness, appropriateness, etiquette, and tact (Kasper, 1994; Thomas, 1995, both as cited in Dimitrova-Galazci, n.d.; Fraser, 1990; Meier, 1995). According to Dimitrova-Galaczi (n.d.), politeness has many aspects: it is both the everyday term with which everybody is familiar and the pragmatic concept with which the researchers are dealing. She adds that it is studied and manifested on many levels, that is, lexical, syntactic, pragmatic, socio-cultural, non-verbal and kinesthetic.

While all these varieties are relevant, it is beyond the framework of this study to present a comprehensive definition of politeness; however, three of the most common definitions are given here:

The fourth edition of the American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language (through the internet: http://dictionary.reference.com/search?q=politeness) defines it as the "consideration for others and the adherence to conventional social standards of good behavior" (p. 1).

The Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (Richards et al., 1992) defines it as (a) "how languages express the SOCIAL DISTANCE between speakers and their different ROLE RELATIONSHIPS; (b) how face-work, that is, the attempt to establish, maintain, and save face during conversation, is carried out in a speech community"(p. 281).

Holmes (1995) defines politeness as a set of strategies or verbal habits which someone considers as a norm for himself/herself or which other people judge as the norm for them, as well as being a socially made norm within particular interaction.

Because of the increasing number of the academic inquiries, which consider politeness as an analytical instrument, the need for further studies on politeness phenomena has become increasingly evident in recent years (Christie, 2005). This study is an attempt to find an answer to some of the many questions left unanswered in the area of cross-cultural politeness.

1.3. Background of the Study

It is commonly believed that learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) can communicate with the native speakers of English without any problems. However, based on her personal contacts with native speakers of English and EFL people, the researcher found that most of the EFL people have problems in terms of politeness in communication with native speakers of English.

It makes EFL people frustrated when they find that after studying for 4-5 years, they are not able to interact with native speakers in a native-like way. Native-like speech in a foreign language is more than only mastering vocabulary and grammar. Most of the EFL

learners are aware of their inability to speak with a native speaker in spite of their extensive foreign language competence. They go back and forth between cultural differences too often, which leads them to make various mistakes that they never make when speaking English with other EFL peers. In this regard, it is the EFL teachers' responsibility to make students familiar with these rules. He/she should help students enter the world of the target language. In other words, EFL students should be taught the target culture, that is, daily life, literature and even thoughts of native speakers. One of the cultural aspects dealing directly with language skills is politeness. Many EFL learners, while speaking with a native speaker, worry about the politeness rules. Thus, they are unclear about whether their communication quality is too rude or too polite according to the requirements of the speech situation.

If individuals are from the same society, and have the same first language, it is easier to obey the rules of cultural expectation. However, in cross-cultural communication, what is considered the accepted behavior of a one member of a society can be labeled as abnormal to another. In most cases, if an EFL learner is misunderstood by a native speaker, it is more likely due to a lack of understanding of cultural values of the target society rather than the result of poor linguistic competence. In other words, there is a lack of *pragmatic competence*. According to Ninio and Snow (1996, as cited in Abbeduto & Hesketh, 1997), pragmatic competence refers to "knowledge of the rules governing communication in social interaction" (p. 324). If an EFL learner has not been exposed to the target culture or lacks pragmatic competence, the likelihood and severity of miscommunication and misinterpretations are more pronounced.

Almost all Turkish EFL students are brought up in a monolingual and mono-cultural environment. Before entering the university as an EFL student, they usually have very little or no access to the target language and culture. Rivers (1981) called such learners "culture-bound" (p. 318). The MLA Seminar Report (1953, as cited in Rivers, 1981) defines the 'culture-bound' as one:

> whose entire view of the world is determined by the value- perspectives he has gained through a single cultural environment- who thus cannot understand or accept the point of view of another individual whose values have been determined by a different culture.... He makes premature and inappropriate value judgments. He is limited in his understanding of the world. The study of a language should bring home to students the realization that there are many ways of looking at

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things, many ways of doing and expressing things and that differences do not necessarily represent moral issues of right and wrong. (p. 318)

Therefore, if the EFL students are not familiar with the norms of English language and culture, they will integrate Turkish cultural norms into English vocabulary and grammar when speaking with a native speaker of English. This makes EFL learners' utterances in English nebulous for the native speakers, which results in miscommunication.

1.4. Theoretical Framework

In this study, the notions of *face, face threatening acts* and five *politeness strategies* are used to analyze the politeness strategies employed by the survey people. These notions belong to the politeness theory that was proposed by Brown and Levinson in 1978, and then in 1987, these two researchers revised the theory.

The predominant paradigm in politeness studies, according to Merrison (n.d.), was developed by Brown and Levinson. This study, like many others (e.g., Pan, 1998; Nevala, 2000; Dalton-Puffer, 2003; Sirota, 2004; Hondo & Goodman, n.d., to name only a few) has adopted Brown and Levinson's politeness theory. Penelope Brown and Stephen Levinson (1987) introduced some universals in language usage. They put forth different strategies of politeness. Of these, the basic notions under these strategies are *face and face needs*.

Brown and Levinson's concept of face is ascribed to Goffman's (1967, as cited in Meier, 2004) concept of face. In fact, Goffman's notion of face was originally introduced in *The Elementary Forms of the Religious Life* by Durkheim (1915, as cited in Brown & Levinson, 1987) and the notions and labels for positive and negative face are derived from Durkheim's "positive and negative rites" (p. 285). Goffman (1967, as cited in Locher & Watts, 2005) define face as an image:

> pieced together from the expressive implications of the full flow of events in an undertaking, …, and as the positive social value a person effectively claims for [her/himself] by the line others assume [s/he] has taken during a particular contact. (p. 4)

If either of these needs – positive or negative face needs – is violated, so a *face threatening act* (FTA) - labeled by Brown and Levinson- is performed. In order to assess whether or not an act is threatening face needs of the participants, three basic factors of

Power (P), Distance (D) and R (Ranking of imposition) are assessed (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Brown and Levinson (1987) claim that the factors of P, D and R are relevant and independent. However, they add that their claim is not that these factors are the only ones, but that simply they include all others (i.e., authority, occupation, ethnic identity, status, friendship, situational factors, etc.) which have effect on such assessments. They posit that during the interaction, participants take into account all of the above mentioned factors in their decision of how to speak with each other.

In their book *Politeness,* Brown and Levinson (1987) introduced five *politeness strategies* which the speakers of most languages use to fulfill the positive and negative face wants of the interlocutors. The five politeness strategies are in a continuum from the least polite or the most direct to the most polite or the most indirect ("Examples from Brown and Levinson's Politeness Strategies," 1997): (1) *Bald on Record*: Here there is no effort by the speaker to minimize the impact of FTA, for example, 'Give me a pencil!'; (2) *Positive Politeness*: This strategy is used by those groups of friends who know each other fairly well. It tries to decrease the distance between friends by expressing solid interest in the hearer's need to be respected (minimize the FTA), for example, 'you must be tired, it's a long time you have been working for a long time. How about a break?'; (3) *Negative Politeness*: The main focus for using this strategy is that the speaker is imposing on the hearer, so it can be assumed that there might be some social distance, for example, 'I just wonder whether I could use your pen?'; (4) *Off Record*: The speaker removes himself from any imposition, for example, by giving hints in 'It's cold here' to make a request of closing the windows; and (5) *Don't Do the FTA*, which refers to not performing the act at all. (This strategy has not been mentioned in the article of "Examples from Brown and Levinson's Politeness Strategies," (1997), but Brown and Levinson (1987) refer to this strategy in their book.)

By taking into consideration the notions of face, FTA, and the five politeness strategies which Brown and Levinson introduced, this study aims to assess the type of strategies employed by the academicians and relate them to the areas of foreign language teaching. However, first, it is important to understand the problem which exists in the area of communication in terms of politeness.

1.5. Statement of the Problem

It is said that every foreign language learner transfers his linguistic knowledge, to some extent, to the target language (Lado, 1957, as cited in Ellis, 1985). This transfer sometimes results in errors in foreign language acquisition. Linguistic politeness deals mostly with speaking skill and, as spoken errors are difficult to eradicate, great effort should be spent on teaching and learning speaking skills. Misunderstanding is a phenomenon which occurs even between two speakers communicating in the same first language. Koç and Bamber (1997, as cited in Köksal, n.d.) give the following example of miscommunication in the same first language:

"A: Have you got a match?
B1: Yes, thank you.
B2: Yes, here you are. (The expected answer)" (p. 1)

In American culture, low D is emphasized and P is not considered as an important factor in conversations. In other words, the native speakers of American English prefer to employ those strategies which show closeness and solidarity between the interaction participants (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Zeyrek (2001, as cited in Xie, 2002) states that in the Turkish society, family and society are the most important factors to be considered in the employment of the politeness strategies. Because of these different cultural backgrounds, cross-cultural miscommunication for Turkish speakers in communication with members of the American society is very common.

According to Ellis (1985), "it is highly probably that all languages have some way of making polite requests ..., but they are likely to differ in the formal ways in which this function is expressed" (p. 38). He believes that there is a need to find out whether and under what conditions EFL learners transfer their knowledge of L1 to realize a function in L2.

Thus, it is clear that there is a transfer from L1 to the target language. Therefore, this study had an attempt to reveal the possible transfer which occur in terms of politeness.

1.6. Purpose of the Study

In general, the aim of this study is to explore communication strategies in the Turkish and English languages within the areas of favor asking (henceforth, FA), complaining (henceforth, CM), and griping (henceforth, GR) by using Brown and Levinson's theoretical framework (see section 1.4.). The speech act of FA, according to the degree of imposition accompanied with the speech act, is classified into two groups of 'Low' (i.e., FAL) and 'High' (FAH) (see section 1.8.).

In particular, this study aims to address four issues, which are as follows: (1) those strategies these groups employ with respect to the interlocutor's social status (equal/unequal) and gender (same/different); (2) the differences in the ways that groups employ with respect to their ranking of imposition in carrying out these acts and to realize whether some acts are less face threatening than the others or not; (3) the number of the strategies employed by each group, and (4) the realization of the possibility and extent of transfer in the performance of Turkish teachers of English (henceforth, EFL) group and its resemblance to the Native speakers of Turkish who are not the English language teachers (henceforth, NST) and American Native Speakers of English (henceforth, NSE) groups.

1.7. Research Questions

In light of the preceding discussion, the main questions of this study are as follows:

1) Are there significant differences among NSE, EFL and NST males and females in the employment and number of the strategies for realizing the speech acts of FAL, FAH, GR, and CM in their interactions with males and females?

2) Are FAL and GR less face threatening, or more specifically, less imposing than FAH and CM, respectively?

3) Is the perceived degree of imposition in the speech acts involved related to the social status (power) of the interlocutors?

1.7.1. Hypotheses

In order to answer to the main questions above, this study also addresses the following hypotheses.

In order to investigate the first question, sixteen hypotheses are posed which are, as follows:

1) There is no significant difference among female NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of FAL in their interactions with females.

2) There is no significant difference among female NSE, EFL, and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of FAL in their interactions with males.

3) There is no significant difference among female NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of FAH in their interactions with females.

4) There is no significant difference among female NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of FAH in their interactions with males.

5) There is no significant difference among female NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of GR in their interactions with females.

6) There is no significant difference among female NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of GR in their interactions with males.

7) There is no significant difference among female NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of CM in their interactions with females.

8) There is no significant difference among female NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of CM in their interactions with males.

9) There is no significant difference among male NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of FAL in their interactions with males.

10) There is no significant difference among male NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of FAL in their interactions with females.

11) There is no significant difference among male NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of FAH in their interactions with males.

12) There is no significant difference among male NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of FAH in their interactions with females.

13) There is no significant difference among male NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of GR in their interactions with males.

14) There is no significant difference among male NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of GR in their interactions with females.

15) There is no significant difference among male NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of CM in their interactions with males.

16) There is no significant difference among male NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of CM in their interactions with females.

In order to investigate the second question, the following six hypotheses are posed as follows:

17) There is no significant difference in the perceived degree of imposition between FAL and FAH for the NSE.

18) There is no significant difference in the perceived degree of imposition between FAL and FAH for the EFL.

19) There is no significant difference in the perceived degree of imposition between FAL and FAH for the NST.

20) There is no significant difference in the perceived degree of imposition between GR and CM for the NSE.

21) There is no significant difference in the perceived degree of imposition between GR and CM for the EFL.

22) There is no significant difference in the perceived degree of imposition between GR and CM for the NST.

In order to investigate the third question, the following three hypotheses are posed as follows:

23) There is no significant relationship in the perceived degree of imposition of the speech acts concerned with respect to the social status (power) of the interlocutors for the NSE.

24) There is no significant relationship in the perceived degree of imposition of the speech acts concerned with respect to the social status (power) of the interlocutors for the EFL.

25) There is no significant relationship in the perceived degree of imposition of the speech acts concerned with respect to the social status (power) of the interlocutor for the NST.

1.8. Significance of the Study

This study is significant from both theoretical and practical perspectives. Firstly, from the theoretical point of view, by considering the speech acts of favor asking, as Brown and Levinson (1987) point out, the proportion of expenditures of services (including the provision of time) and of goods (including non-material goods such as information) are determining factors in the making of imposition. Thus, the speech act of favor asking is classified into high and low (FAH, FAL) categories. Secondly, it is demonstrated whether some speech acts like FAL and GR are inherently less face threatening than the FAH and CM, respectively. Thirdly, this study tries to show whether and to what extent the power and gender of the speaker and hearer determine the choice of communication strategies.

From the practical view, there are few studies done in this area in Turkey. The inclusion of the EFL group will show us whether and to what extent they have acquired the communication ability in a foreign language comparing with the NSE group. Moreover, the findings will show whether and to what extent the EFL group use their mother-tongue strategies when speaking in English.

Further practical significance comes from the comparison of the utterances of all the groups. Through this, the EFL teacher will be consciously aware of the strategies which are used by both NST and NSE; consequently, he/she will inform the EFL students about those strategies to help them to talk in a more native-like way. As Lado (1957, as cited in Ellis, 1985) one of the pioneers of Contrastive Analysis states, " The teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real problems are and can provide for teaching them" (p. 23).

1.9. Outline of the Study

Chapter One, Introduction, presents the nature and background of the study, and explains the theoretical framework adopted in this study. It also highlights the objectives, research questions, hypotheses and significance of the study.

Chapter Two, Review of the Literature, provides a general description of the related literature. It considers politeness with respect to linguistic pragmatics, socio-cultural variables (such as gender, social distance and power), the relation of the pragmatics and language teaching and learning, and finally, a summary of the studies which have been conducted on the speech acts involved in this study.

Chapter Three, Methodology, elucidates both the respondents, instruments and the processes which are adopted for the data collection, and analysis

Chapter Four, Results and Discussions stresses on the data analysis and discusses the results and the findings of the study and subsequently, interpretations of the results.

Chapter Five, Conclusions, explains the conclusions, their implications for EFL teaching, and limitations of the study. This chapter also gives suggestions for further research. Finally, the references, chart of politeness strategies, and the employed questionnaires are included in the appendices.

CHAPTER 2

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter gives an overview of the major theories in modern (continental) pragmatics along with relevant studies, explains socio-cultural factors related to this study, highlights relevance of pragmatics and sociolinguistics to language learning and clarifies the speech acts under study.

It should be borne in mind that because this study is mainly based on Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory proposed for politeness strategies, the citations through the sections of 2.7.4. to 2.7.8. are referred to a large extent to these two scholars.

2.2. Linguistic Pragmatics

The Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (Richards et al., 1992) defines semiotics as "the analysis of systems using signs or signals for the purpose of communication" (pp. 330-1). Charles Morris (1938, as cited in Levinson, 1983) outlined the general shape of semiotics into three distinct branches of inquiries: syntax, semantics and pragmatics with the latter term referring to "the relation of signs to interpreters" (p. 1). Nevertheless, there was an increasing interest in pragmatic studies by several philosophers of language such as Austin (1962, 1975, as cited in Finch, 2000) who introduced the theory of the speech acts; Searle (1969, as cited in Finch, 2000) who developed a more detailed and systematized model of the speech acts; Grice (1975, as cited in Finch) who introduced the maxims of conversation; and Leech (1983) who introduced the politeness principle as an elaboration for Grice's study.

According to Levinson (1983), the aspects of linguistic pragmatics gained insight from those scholars who introduced the two traditions of modern pragmatics. Levinson makes a distinction between two traditions of Anglo-American linguistics and Philosophical traditions, and the continental tradition. He claims that the former is more restrictive and uses philosophical approaches and/or traditional linguistic approaches to the study of sentence structure and grammar. The latter, which is much broader, refers to discourse analysis, ethnography of communication, politeness phenomena, some aspects of psycholinguistics (cognitive pragmatics) and much that goes under the rubric of sociolinguistics (societal approaches to pragmatics). From this classification, it can be understood that in this study pragmatics is studied within the borders of the continental tradition.

2.3. Speech Situation, Speech Event and Speech Act

In order to study the communicative behavior, it is necessary to consider the units of interaction (Fasold, 1990). Hymes (1972, as cited in Fasold, 1990) believes that there is a hierarchy of units called the speech situation, speech event, and the speech act. Speech situation is defined by Hymes (1972, as cited in Fasold, 1990) as "situations associated with (or marked by the absence of) speech." (p. 42). A speech event, according to Fasold (1990), "takes place within a speech situation and is composed of one or more speech acts" (p. 42). Speech act is defined as "an utterance as a functional unit in communication" (p. 342). An example is given by Fasold (1990) to make these notions more clear, "a joke might be a speech act that is part of a conversation (a speech event) which takes place at a party (a speech situation)" (p. 42).

Three speech acts have been taken into consideration in this study. Hence, first, speech acts are introduced.

2.4. Speech Act Theory

Speakers do more with their utterances than simply refer. They talk to share beliefs about the world (e.g., Today, Peace in the world is one of the most important challenges.), obtain information (e.g., Where are you going?), convince others to do their bidding (e.g.,

could you help me to clean this room?), and make social contracts (e.g., I promise I will study more). These interpersonal functions of utterances are known as speech acts (Levinson, 1983). In other words, when the utterances perform acts, they are referred as speech acts (Wardhaugh, 1986).

2.4.1. Expressing and Understanding Speech Acts

The communicators pay attention to the context to understand the meaning of the utterance better. The importance of context in understanding the meaning can be clarified by Clark's (1996, as cited in Abbeduto & Hesketh, 1997) claim. Clark says that expressing and understanding the speech acts are not limited only to the utterances; the interactants should also consider the context. Communication is a mutual phenomenon so both the speaker and listener are involved. In other words, speakers are those who express the speech acts and listeners are those who understand them. But how? Speakers should ensure that their speech acts are recognizable in the context and their form is appropriate to various social dimensions of the context, such as the degree of formality or politeness warranted (Brown & Levinson, 1987). On the side of listeners, Milosky (1992, as cited in Abbeduto & Hesketh, 1997) states that they should select and decide which of the several speech acts that an utterance could perform is actually intended in the current context. Sometimes this is not as easy as it seems, and a few exchanges may be necessary for the negotiation of meaning. Levinson (1983) affirms this by explaining it this way: an utterance may be performed only with either a single utterance or it may require several exchanges between both sides of communication (i.e., speaker and listener) to determine whether various prerequisites for the speech act have been met.

2.4.2. Austin's Contribution to the Theory

In the 1930s, J.L. Austin, who was an Oxford philosopher, originally developed a theory called Speech Act Theory and made clarifications to the theory in a series of lectures at Harvard in 1955 (Finch, 2000). In 1962, according to Finch (2000), the lectures were developed as a book called, *How to Do Things with Words* and since then Searle (1969, 1979, as cited in Finch, 2000) has developed the approach greatly.

Austin (1962, as cited in Finch, 2000) classified utterances into two groups as *performatives* and *constatives*. The former are those utterances explained as "the saying of which actually performs the action named by the verb, for example:

> act of naming a ship: I name this ship the Saucy Sue, or the
> act of marriage: I pronounce you man and wife" (p. 181).

The latter includes all those other utterances such as statements and questions. In other words, actions are being described or asked about rather than being performed, for example, "I cooked the cake." (p. 181).

In order to label utterances as performative, they should possess some conditions called *felicity conditions* - in other words, the right context and word have to be matched (Austin, 1962 as cited in Finch, 2000). Otherwise, Austin (1962, as cited in Yarmohammadi, 2003) claims that "the act is misfired, as when during the marriage ceremony the ring has been placed on the finger at the wrong time" (p. 15).

Apart from using these conditions, Austin (1962, as cited in Finch, 2000) suggests some grammatical properties for distinguishing performatives from constatives: the former should be meaningful in the first person singular and when the adverb of *hereby* comes before the verb, for example, *I hereby name this ship Saucy Sue* or *I hereby pronounce you man and wife*. These statements seem unproblematic, whereas "I hereby cooked the cake" (p. 181) does not seem appropriate. Therefore, Austin quickly found that the distinction could not be explained in this way, because constatives are performing some kind of act although they involve a linguistic characterization than performatives (1962, as cited in Finch, 2000). The last example above is performing the act of stating, so Austin (1962, as cited in Finch, 2000) introduced other concepts like *explicit* and *implicit* performatives. Explicit ones are those which name the action being performed and sometimes are referred to as *speech act verbs* since all of them express 'saying' such as predict, insist, order, and affirm. On the other hand, according to Austin (1962, as cited in Finch, 2000), implicit performatives do not include a saying verb, but none the less display the existence of one, for example, "come and see me sometimes" (p. 182) can be restated as "I invite you to come and see me sometimes" (p. 182).

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In the past, philosophers claimed that there was a difference between doing and speaking, as the former refers to actions and the latter to simply talking about something; however, Austin (1962, as cited in Finch, 2000) suggests that "utterances can be regarded as events in a similar way to other actions" (p. 180). Austin (1962, as cited in Levinson, 1983) goes on to say that there are three types of acts which utterances can perform:

1. **locutionary act:** the utterance of a sentence with determinate sense and reference
2. **illocutionary act:** the making of a statement, offer, promise, etc. in uttering sentence, by virtue of the conventional *force* associated with it (or with its explicit performative paraphrase)
3. **perlocutionary act:** the bringing about of effects on the audience by means of uttering the sentence, such effects being special to the circumstances of utterance. (p. 236)

Consider, for example, a speaker requesting a favor: the locution is the words being uttered in a grammatical order, the illocution is the act of requesting and the perlocution is the persuasion of the listener (of course, if the request has been accepted by the listener) (Austin, 1962, as cited in Finch, 2000). Austin, however, emphasized the illocution acts, for he said that the concept of *speech acts* refers to this kind of act and the speech act theory deals with illocutions and the other two are of less importance. Halion (1989) describes these as follows: the locutionary act refers to the meaningful utterance of the speech act, the illocutionary act refers to the meaningful utterance and its conventional (performative) force, and the perlocutionary act refers to the non-conventional effect of the meaningful utterance.

A man, according to Halion (1989), who says to his wife, for instance, "I promise you a diamond ring" (p. 20), may please her. According to Halion (1989), this meaningful utterance is a locutionary act. As the man promises to his wife to buy a ring, the conventional force of promising becomes the illocutionary act. It is conventional because there is a rule whereby who utters, 'I promise' thereby promises. However, in a language system, we cannot find a convention which refers to the pleasure of the audience even if this audience is promised to get a diamond ring, but this promise pleases the wife and this pleasure is the non-conventional effect or, in other words, the perlocutionary act (Halion, 1989).

In other words, Halion (1989) states that the locutionary act can be referred to as the production of certain noises, so it is also called <u>phonetic</u> act. When the intention of the speaker is syntactically arranged and then added to those noises, it is called <u>phatic</u> acts. With certain intentions and contexts, after the production of these words in syntactical arrangement, certain massages are conveyed and in this respect, it is called <u>rhetic</u> act. Austin (1962, as cited in Halion, 1989) says that in specific context, for the speaker to be successful in conveying his/her intentions, more or less definite 'sense' and a more or less definite 'reference' should be applied, because these together are equivalent to 'meaning'.

It can be observed that the difference between the phonetic act and the phatic act is the intention of the speaker (Halion, 1989). He adds that a speaker must intend his/her phones to express utterances which obey the rules of a certain language. The monkey which produces the sounds of 'go', even if it sounds indistinguishably from those that the English speaker utters, does not say the word 'go'. In other words, because the monkey does not intend his phonetic act to obey the rules of English language, his sound production is not an intentional act (Halion, 1989).

2.4.3. Searle's Contribution to the Theory

There are two rules of regulative and constitutive (Rawls, 1955, as cited in Levinson, 1983). The former, according to Rawls (1955, as cited in Levinson, 1983), refers to those rules which control the existing activities, for example, the traffic rules which regulate traffic. The latter refers to those kinds of rules which create an activity, for example, the rules of the chess which constitutes the game of chess. The latter has a conceptual form: "doing X counts as Y" (p. 238), for example, in soccer, kicking or heading the ball through the goal-posts is counted as a goal.

The felicity conditions were introduced by Austin; however, Searle (1969, as cited in Levinson, 1983) calls them constitutive rules and divides them into four basic conditions. These conditions are clarified by giving an example of *requesting*:

Condition	Requests
Propositional content:	Future act A of H
Preparatory :	1. S believes H can do A
	2. It is not obvious that H would do A without being asked

| Sincerity | : | S wants H to do A |
| Essential | : | Counts as an attempt to get H to do A. (p. 240) |

Searle (1969, as cited in Levinson, 1983) tries to introduce a more abstract scheme for felicity conditions, so he proposes that there are only five types of utterances which the speaker can perform in speaking:

(I) representatives, which commit the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition (paradigm cases: asserting, concluding, etc.)

(II) directives, which are attempts by the speaker to get the addressee to do something (paradigm cases: requesting, questioning)

(III) commissives, which commit the speaker to some future courses of action (paradigm cases: promising, threatening, offering)

(IV) expressives, which express a psychological state (paradigm cases: thanking, apologizing, welcoming, congratulating)

(V) declarations, which effect immediate changes in the institutional state of affairs and which tend to rely on elaborate extra- linguistic institutions (paradigm cases: excommunicating, declaring war, christening, firing from employment). (p. 240)

There are some other concepts related to the speech act theory. One of those important issues is the direct and indirect speech acts.

2.4.4. Direct and Indirect Speech Acts

A direct speech act, according to Nickerson and Chu-Carroll (n.d.), is a kind of speech act which can be interpreted literally, in other words, it has only one illocutionary force. Nickerson and Chu-Carroll (n.d.) state that, for instance, the question of "Can you ski?" (p. 1) can only be asked for the purpose of getting a yes/no response, so it is a direct speech act; moreover, it has the only literal meaning "I ask you whether you know how to ski." (p. 1).

Searle (1979, as cited in Yarmohammadi, 2003) proposes that a directive can be realized in six different ways:

1- Sentences concerning hearer's ability: can you pass the salt?

2- Sentences concerning hearer's future action: Are you going to pas the salt?

3- Sentences concerning speaker's wish or want: I would like (you to pass) the salt.

4- Sentences concerning the hearer's desire or willingness: Would you mind passing the salt? It might help if you passed the salt.

5- Sentences concerning reasons for actions: I don't think you salted the potatoes.
6- Sentences embedding either one of the above or an explicit performative: Can I ask you to pass the salt? (p. 27)

On the other hand, an indirect speech act, according to Nickerson and Chu-Carroll (n.d.), is a speech act which involves one meaning in addition to the literal meaning. In other words, it has more than one illocutionary force. For example, "Can you help me?" (p. 1), is often used for asking for assistance. The literal meaning of this expression, according to Nickerson and Chu-Carroll (n.d.), is "I ask you if you have the ability to help me" (p. 1) and the indirect meaning is "I request that you help me" (p. 1).

There is an indirect speech act whenever an indirect relationship exists between the meaning and structure (Yule, 1996). Yule states that a declarative which refers to a statement is called a direct speech act, but if it is used for a request, it is called indirect speech act. Then, he explains by giving the following example:

a. It's cold outside.
b. I hereby tell you about the weather.
c. I hereby request of you that you close the door (p. 55).

Sentence (a) is a declarative. It makes a statement in the paraphrase (b), so it is again functioning as a direct speech act. However, (c) is used to make a request/command, so it is called an indirect speech act.

Indirect speech acts suggest that in the normal course of communication, the complete intent of any piece of discourse cannot be determined only by considering the form of the sentence or the vocabulary used in that sentence (Hassell, Beecham, & Christensen, 1996). In fact, the most important element which determines the intent of the discourse is the context and indirect speech act proves this fact (Hassell et al., 1996).

Many utterances in indirect speech act pattern can be heard in our daily life. More specifically, Yule (1996) suggests that these acts are associated with greater politeness so speakers have big tendency to use indirect speech acts. It is known that imperatives have an imposition on the listener, so the speaker uses the indirect speech to convey his/her massage (Yule, 1996). For example, the speaker prefers to say, 'It is hot in this room'

rather than, to say, 'Open the window', because in the second one there is a kind of imposition on the hearer.

2.4.5. Criticisms and Further Developments of Speech Act Theory

Speech act theory has an extensive literature which shows its importance in linguistic pragmatics; however, it has been subject to many criticisms and developments.

Coulthard (1985, as cited in Yarmohammadi, 2003) proposes two important weak points for the speech act theory. First, there are many generalizations but nothing explains the way the indirect speech acts are produced. Second, there is no place for the hearer's cognition of the indirect speech act. In other words, nothing explains how a hearer who has been asked, "Can you pass the salt" (p. 23), decides whether this is a question or a request.

The construct validity of Searle's speech act classification has been empirically tested by Marandi (1997, as cited in Yarmohammadi, 2003). She administered a sixteen-item multiple-choice functional test to 129 Iranian Masters of Arts students majoring in English. Her data supported Searle's speech act classification. Also, Brown and Levinson (1987) used this theory to explain the relation between politeness and indirectness by referring to societal factors and Grice's proposals.

All these references led the way to contrastive analysis and its applications in the field of language teaching and acquisition. There are numerous studies (e.g., Blum-Kulka, 1982; Cohen & Olshtain, 1993; Yarmohammadi, 2003; to name a few) dealing with the subject of realization and interpretation of speech acts within and across cultures.

2.5. Cooperative Principle

Wherever there is a study done on pragmatics, linguistic politeness, or conversation analysis, the reader will encounter the concept of Cooperative Principle (henceforth, CP), which is very important in these disciplines.

This principle, which was suggested in 1975 by the philosopher H.P. Grice (1975, as cited in Finch, 2000), proposes that interlocutors in the process of conversation cooperate with each other to reduce misunderstandings. According to Malmkjaer (1995, as cited in Finch, 2000), the principle can be summarized as "make your contribution 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. 159).

Now in order to become more familiar with this principle, a scenario has been taken from Yule (1996):

> Man: Does your dog bite?
> Woman: No. (The man reaches down to pet the dog. The dog bites the man's hand.)
> Man: Ouch! Hey! You said your dog doesn't bite.
> Woman: He doesn't. But that's not my dog. (p. 36)

Here it is seen that the woman did not cooperate with the man, and therefore, a misunderstanding happened. If the woman had spoken to the extent which was necessary and required, the story would not have been so funny (Yule, 1996). Therefore, here it can be said the woman did not obey one of the Grice's CP maxims. Here are all of the maxims proposed by Yule (1996):

> The maxims
> **Quantity**
> 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.
> **Quality** 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.
> **Relation** Be relevant.
> **Manner** Be perspicuous.
> 1. Avoid obscurity of expression.
> 2. Avoid ambiguity.
> 3. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).
> 4. Be orderly. (p. 37)

It can be seen that although these maxims are unstated assumptions, we speakers and hearers are expected to obey them in conversation (Yule, 1996). Yule states that people are normally expected to provide a suitable amount of information (unlike the woman in the example); to tell the truth, to be relevant, and to try to be as clear as possible.

Grice (1975, as cited in Fasold, 1990) proposes five ways which conversationalists can consider in dealing with these maxims. First, speakers can obey the maxims; in other words, they can tell the truth, while giving enough relevant information in a clear, to the point and orderly manner. Second, a speaker may violate a maxim, for example, if he/she deliberately tells a lie. Third, another way is that a speaker may 'opt out' of a maxim. The example which Grice gives is a speaker that has the required information but refrains himself from saying it and says something like 'I cannot talk about this'. Fourth, the speaker can disobey a maxim to fulfill the other one a circumstance referred to as 'the maxim clash'. Fifth, and most unusual, is to *flout* (intentionally disobey) one of the maxims. It means that although the speaker is violating the maxim, he cannot be accused of violating it, because breaking the rule here is so obvious that the speaker knows he or she is not obeying the maxim and realizes that every other counterpart in the conversation knows this too. For example, consider the following flouting examples (Jucker, 2004):

Flouting the maxim of Quality

A   : Tehran is in Turkey, isn't it teacher?
B   : And London is in America, I suppose.

Here, irony is used deliberately for flouting the maxim of quality. Something is said that is clearly untrue. The example of flouting maxim of Relation is as follows:

Flouting the maxim of Relation

A   : I do think Mrs. Jenkins is an old windbag, don't you?
B   : Huh, lovely weather for March, isn't it?

B's reply seems totally irrelevant; however, it seems that the topic about Mrs. Jenkins is not appropriate at present (e.g., she is overhearing the conversation!)

As a result of these maxims the concept of *conversational implicatures* can be inferred (Fasold, 1990). Fasold adds that these implicatures make the speaker able to express the meaning beyond what is literally expressed. The following example clarifies the conversational implicatures (Richards et al., 1992):

A: Let's go to the movies.
B: I have an examination in the morning (p. 85).

B's reply might appear not to be relevant to A's remark. However, B by saying that he/she has an exam indicates his/her excuse for not accepting the invitation. In fact, the speaker B used the maxim of relation to answer to the speaker A (Richards et al., 1992).

2.5.1. Criticisms and Further Developments of Cooperative Principle

There have been some objections to Grice's CP maxims. Most importantly, it does not apply to the evidence of real language use. For example, it is proposed that as the majority of the declaratives are not functionally transferring information, the conversational limitations of CP do not work (Larkin & O'Malley, 1973, as cited in Leech, 1983). In addition to this, Leech (1983) claims that CP cannot explain (a) why people are often very indirect in transferring what they want to mention; and (b) when non-declarative types of sentences are used in the conversation, what is the relation between sense and force?

It has also been suggested that as there are some linguistic communities to which these maxims cannot be applied; the CP maxims are not universal to language (Leech, 1983). However, Brown and Levinson (1987) support exactly the opposite point of view and place the CP maxims within the larger discipline of sociolinguistics, which is politeness. Again, some other studies threaten the universality of the conversational implicatures. They study the effect of cultural background of nonnative speakers of English in interpreting and understanding the conversational implicatures. The results show that these implicatures cannot be considered universal at all, as the nonnative speakers had very different interpretation of native speakers, and cultural background negatively affects the manner of interpretation (e.g., Reiter, Rainey, & Fulcher, 2005; Ming-chung, 2003; Yarmohammadi 1994).

There have been several attempts to reduce the number of the Grice's maxims (e.g., Horn 1984; Levinson, 1987; Sperber & Wilson, 1986, 1987, all as cited in Fasold, 1990). Wierzbicka (1991, as cited in Yarmohammadi, 2003) finds Grice's maxims ethnocentric and based on Anglo-American usage, so it will be difficult to use them for cross-cultural studies.

Admitting that CP has weak points, Leech (1983) suggested the politeness principle and introduced it as a necessary complement for CP, not as a separate principle.

2.6. Politeness Principle

People engaging in the communication process will attempt to make the effects of impolite language smaller (e.g., requests, commands) and to make the effects of polite language greater (e.g., compliments, offers) in order to cooperate fully with each other in speech acts (Leech, 1983).

Leech, in his book *Principles of Pragmatics* (1983), refers to the politeness principle as an elaboration for the cooperative principle. Leech uses Interpersonal and Textual rhetorics concepts to explain the politeness principle. Each of these rhetorics consists of a set of principles, one of which is the politeness principle. Leech explains that rethorical devices "can be broadly integrated into the Gricean paradigm of conversational principles and implicatures, thereby helping to account for indirect relationships between sense and force in ways which supplement the maxims of the CP and the PP" (p. 149). Leech refers to sense as the meaning which can be semantically determined and to the force as the meaning which can be determined pragmatically and semantically. Table 1 presents a summary of the principles and maxims of the Interpersonal Rhetoric.

Table: 1

A Summary of the Principles and Maxims of the Interpersonal Rhetoric

First-order principles	Higher-order principles	Contributory maxims
Cooperative Principle		Quantity Quality Relation Manner
Politeness Principle		{ Tact Generosity { Approbation Modesty Agreement Sympathy Phatic?
	Irony Banter	
Interest Principle Pollyanna Principle		

Source: Leech, 1983, p. 149

Leech (1983) identifies three pragmatic scales which are associated with the maxims. He states that these scales are "with a bearing on the degree of tact appropriate to a given speech situation" (p. 123). The scales are (Leech, 1983):

1. The COST-BENEFIT SCALE ...on which is estimated the cost or benefit of the proposed action A to *s* or to *h*.
2. The OPTIONALITY SCALE on which illocutions are ordered according to the amount of choice which *s* allows to *h* ... .
3. The INDIRECTNESS SCALE on which, from *S*'s point of view, illocutions are ordered with respect to the length of the path (in terms of means-ends analysis) connecting the illocutionary act to its illocutionary goal. (p. 123)

Strictly speaking, Leech divides the cost-benefit scale into two distinct scales which are cost/benefit to *speaker* (*s*) and cost/benefit to *hearer* (*h*). He adds that these scales can vary independently. For example, *s* may suggest an action which in his/her estimation is at a cost to himself and beneficial to *h*. This is exactly what happens in offers, for example, (Leech, 1983), "Would you like to use my electric drill? (↑*h*, ↓*s*)" (P. 124) (The arrows indicate 'beneficial to' (↑) and 'at a cost' (↓)). On the other hand, consider a piece of advice: *s* thinks as beneficial to *h*, but not costly in any way to *s*, for example, (Leech, 1983), "I'd use an electric drill if I were you. (↑*h*)" (P. 124).

In addition to the concepts of benefit and cost, there are two other concepts in Leech's maxims called *self* and *other*. Self and other (Leech, 1983) refer to *s* and *h* respectively, namely, the participants in the conversation. However, according to Leech (1983), speakers show politeness to the third party, who may or may not be present in the speech situation, for example, the *h*'s spouse. In what follows, Leech's politeness maxims are introduced in correspondence with Searle's categories of illocution. Remember that as the 'declarations' of Searle do not involve politeness, they are excluded from this list (Leech, 1983):

(I)   TACT MAXIM (in impositives and commissives)
(a) Minimize cost to *other* [(b) Maximize benefit to *other*]

(II) GENEROSITY MAXIM (in impositives and commissives)
(a) Minimize benefit to *self* [(b) Maximize cost to *self*]

(III) APPROBATION MAXIM (in expressives and assertives)
(a) Minimize dispraise of *other* [(b) Maximize praise of *other*]

(IV) MODESTY MAXIM (in expressives and assertives)
(a) Minimize praise of *self* [(b) Maximize dispraise of *self*]

(V)   AGREEMENT MAXIM (in assertives)
(a) Minimize disagreement between *self* and *other*
[(b) Maximize agreement between *self* and *other*]

(VI) SYMPATHY MAXIM (in assertives)
     (a) Minimize antipathy between *self* and *other*
     [(b) Maximize sympathy between *self* and *other*] (p. 132)

Here it is observed that the maxims are concerned with the polite expressions rather than impolite ones, so all of them come under the Politeness Principle (Leech, 1983). He adds that the first four maxims deal with bi-polar scales: the cost-benefit and praise-dispraise scales; however, the other two maxims deal with unipolar scales: the scales of agreement and sympathy.

2.6.1. Comments and Criticisms of Politeness Principle

Like any other theory, this theory has attracted much criticism. Mey (as cited in Webster, 2004) refers to two points: (1) Politeness Principle is not able to explain different politeness values which are used by people within special social systems (e.g., soldiers of higher rank give orders and commands to soldiers of lower rank; priests command people at confession to do penance), and (2) Politeness Principle fails to account for the 'bald' imperative which is uttered by the speaker but at the same time is beneficial to the listener (e.g., "have a nice day" or "help yourself") (p. 1).

Wierzbicka (1991, as cited in Yarmohammadi, 2003) makes the same criticism of the Politeness Principle which she made to CP. Wierzbicka thinks that the Politeness Principle paradigm is ethnocentric and based on Anglo-American usage, thus make it inappropriate for cross-cultural studies.

Brown and Levinson (1987) also put forth some criticisms for Politeness Principle. There are three areas which they emphasize: (1) Politeness Principle makes it possible to invent a maxim for each regularity in language use, thus an infinite number of maxims will be created which makes the pragmatic theory too free and loose to permit the recognition of any counter-examples; (2) the distribution of politeness is considered 'socially controlled'; (3) to produce a separable pattern of language use, it does not require a maxim or principle. Rather, Brown and Levinson (1987) think that the Politeness Principle is just a principled reason for deviation, and conclude that linguistic politeness is displayed in the classical way with maximum theoretical parsimony from the CP.

2.7. Politeness Theory

In 1988, one year after Brown and Levinson reissued their slightly modified politeness theory, their name, according to Eelen (2001, as cited in Xie & Lin, 2003), "became almost synonymous with the word" (p. 682), and then research on politeness became "a virtual movement" (p. 682). According to Sifianou (1995, as cited in Xie & Lin, 2003), in 1995, the movement became "a revolution" (p. 682). In 2003, Xie and Lin in response to the questions of "What has become of the revolution in politeness?" and "Has this revolution come to an end?" gave the answer of "surely not" (p. 682). They stated that in 2003, the revolution in politeness is far from being over; rather, there is still a long way to go.

Brown and Levinson (1987) introduce their politeness theory following Grice's CP. They believe that CP considers a socially neutral framework for communication and the essential assumption is "no deviation from rational efficiency without a reason" (p. 5).

Brown and Levinson also consider speech act theory as a basis for discourse analysis; however, they find that it is a sentence-based and speaker oriented model of the analysis so it will not be useful for them because their own thesis asks for those utterances which are often equivocal in force.

As they find these theories inadequate for their thesis, Brown and Levinson (1987) choose other demonstrable categories. In the following pages, these categories and concepts, as explained in their comprehensive description of their theory (1987) and other resources, are reviewed.

2.7.1. The Notion of Face

Brown and Levinson's theory is based on Goffman's (1967, as cited in Merrison, n.d.) notion of 'face' which defines it as "the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact" (p. 6). Goffman (1967, as cited in Merrison, n.d.) refers to a *'line'* as "a pattern of verbal and nonverbal acts by which [a participant] expresses his view of the situation and through this

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his evaluation of the participants, especially himself" (p. 6). In addition, Brown and Levinson's 'face' exists originally in the English folk terminology, in fact, there is a story (*www.rootsweb.com,* as cited in Yarmohammadi, 2003) related to the folk usage of the 'face' which reads as follows:

> The noble ladies and gentlemen of the late 1700s wore much makeup to impress each other. Since they rarely bathed, the make up would get thicker and thicker. If they sat too close to the heat of the fireplace, the makeup would start to melt. If that happened, a servant would move the screen in front of the fireplace to block the heat, so they wouldn't lose face. (pp. 36-7)

In particular, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), it can be said that face is something which can be lost, controlled, invested or enhanced emotionally. At the same time during the interaction, both participants should constantly attend to each other's face. In general, people involved in communication cooperate to maintain each other's face (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Brown and Levinson (1987) adopted Goffman's definition for 'face'. However, they paraphrased it as "the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself" (p. 61). According to Strecker (1993), obviously, Brown and Levinson prefer 'face' to 'public self-image', because throughout their book, they almost exclusively use the term 'face', and very occasionally refer to 'public self-image'.

> In Brown and Levinson's views, 'face' consists of two related aspects:
>
> (a) Negative face: the basic claim to territories, personal preserves, rights to non-distraction – i.e., to freedom of action and freedom from imposition.
> (b) Positive face: the positive consistent self-image or 'personality' (crucially including the desire that this self-image be appreciated and approved of) claimed by interactants. (p. 61)

A simpler definition of these two kinds of 'face' has been given by Economidou-Kogetsidis (2002). She paraphrases positive face as everyone's desire to have his/her self-image appreciated, understood, liked, approved of and ratified by others. Negative face, on the other hand, is considered as everyone's desire to be free from constraints and imposition.

2.7.2. Face Threatening Acts

The other notion which Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory is based on is called Face Threatening Acts (FTAs). According to them, a threat to a person's face is termed an FTA. Brown and Levinson clarify the FTAs as "some acts are intrinsically threatening to face and thus require softening..." (p. 24).

Every individual in communication can be a speaker (henceforth, S) or an hearer (henceforth, H) and there are two kinds of faces, that is, the negative and the positive faces, therefore, four different types of FTAs (Brown & Levinson, 1987) can be issued.

1) Acts which primarily threaten the addressee's (H's) negative face-want. They are as follows:

i) acts which predicate some future act A of H, so there will be some pressure on H to do that act, such as: orders, requests, suggestions, advice, reminding, threats, warnings, dares and so forth.

ii) acts that predicate some positive future act of S toward H; thus there will be some pressure on H to do that act or reject it, such as: offers and promises.

iii) acts which indicate some desire of S toward H or H's goods, so giving H reason to think that he (H) may have to do the act to protect the S's desire or give it to S, such as: compliments.

2) Acts that threaten H's positive face-want by S's indicating that he/she does not care about H's feelings. They are as follows:

i) acts that show S's negative evaluation of some aspects of H's positive face, such as: expressions of disapproval, criticisms, complaints, insults, accusations, or disagreements with the hearer.

ii) acts which indicate that S does not care about H's positive face, such as: expressions of violent (out-of-control) emotions, mention of taboo topics (including those inappropriate in the communication context), bringing of bad news or good news (boasting) about H, raising of dangerously emotional topics, for example, politics, race, religious, and so forth, disruptively interrupting H's talk, and S's bad usage of H's address terms (S may misidentify H in an offensive or embarrassing way, accidentally or intentionally).

Here it should be mentioned that there is an overlap between these two classifications, because some of the acts intrinsically threats both positive and negative faces of the H, for example, complaints, interruptions, and threats (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

3) Acts which threaten S's negative face-wants:

It is not only the H's face which can be threatened. Both faces (i.e., negative and positive) of the S can be threatened, too. The negative face of the speakers is threatened in the following ways (Brown & Levinson, 1987):

- expressing thanks (S accepts a debt),
- acceptance of H's thanks or apology (S may feel constrained to minimize H's debt, as in "don't mention it" (p. 67),
- excuses (there is an act H has just criticized and S indicates that he thinks he had good reasons to do or fail to do),
- acceptance of offers,
- responses to H's *faux pas* (consider H has made a faux pas: in one way if S notices this, H will feel embarrassment, in the other way if S pretends not to notice H's faux pas, so S himself/ herself will feel uncomfortable,
- unwilling promises which S gives.

4) Acts which damage S's positive face-wants:

The positive face of the S can be threatened in the following ways:

- apologies (S indicates that he regrets doing a prior FTA, so damaging his own face to some degree),
- acceptance of a compliment (if S feels badly about H's object to make compliment, S will damage his own face, or S may feel constrained to compliment to H in turn),
- breakdown of physical control over body such as falling down,
- self-humiliation or acting stupidly,
- confessions or admissions of guilt or responsibility,
- emotion leakage, non-control of laughter or tears.

2.7.3. Strategies for Doing FTAs

The other notion on which Brown and Levinson's theory is based on is the strategies for doing FTAs. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), both participants of communication, provided that they are competent adults, are aware of the vulnerability of face. Thus, they endeavor to avoid FTA or at least to minimize the threat. To do this, the participant will consider the relative weightings of at least three wants: "(a) the want to communicate the context of the FTA x, (b) the want to be efficient or urgent, and (c) the want to maintain H's face to any degree" (p. 68). If (c) is greater than (b), S will try to minimize the threat of his FTAs.

The following figure will summarize the strategies for doing FTAs:
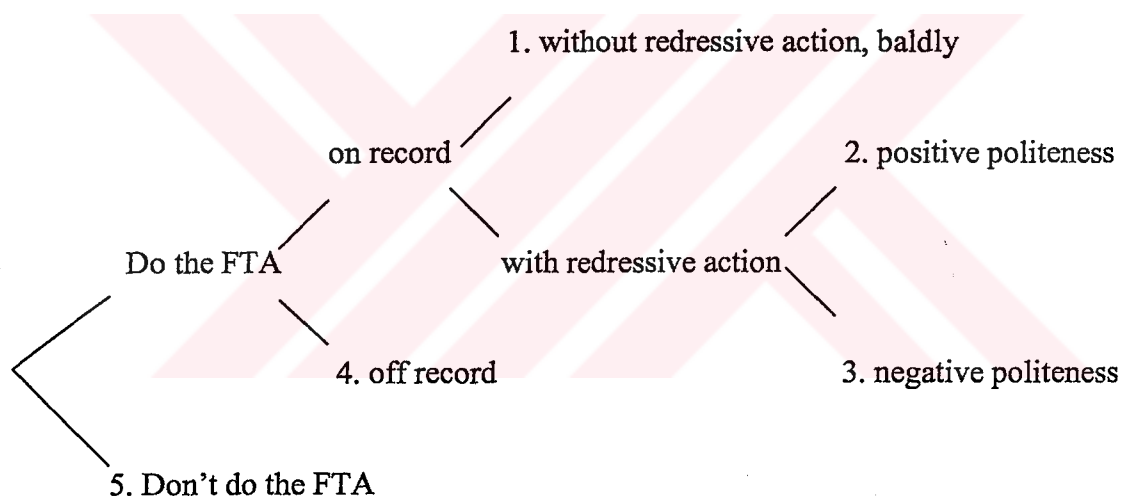
Figure: 1

Possible Strategies for Doing FTAs

Source: Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 69

In this figure, the first concept which requires a definition is 'on record'. If for participants it is clear what communicative intention led the actor to do A, there is only one unambiguously attributable intention with which the witnesses would concur, so this actor goes on record (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Consider the example of "I (hereby) promise to come tomorrow" (p. 69). If participants would agree that 'I' unambiguously expressed the

intention of committing myself to that future act, then 'I' went 'on record' as promising to do so.

The second concept that requires a definition is 'off record'. Here, in contrast, there is more than one unambiguously attributable intention of the actor (Brown & Levinson, 1987). For example, if an actor says "Damn, I'm out of cash, I forgot to go to bank today" (p. 69), here the actor may be intending to get the other person to lend him some money; however, the actor cannot be held to have committed him/herself to that intent. Linguistic realizations of off record strategies, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), include metaphors, irony, rhetorical questions, understatements, tautologies and all kinds of hints by which the speaker utters his/her intention indirectly and so the meaning to some extent is negotiable.

The speaker in going on record has two choices the first of which is act 'baldly, without redress' (Brown & Levinson, 1987). It means that the act is uttered in the most direct, clear, unambiguous way, such as: "Do X!" (p. 69). This strategy is chosen by S in three circumstances: (a) S and H both tacitly agree that the relevance of face demands may be suspended in the interests of urgency or efficiency; (b) where the danger to H's face is *very* small, as in offers, requests, suggestions that are clearly in H's interest and do not require great sacrifice of S for example, "Come in" or "Do sit down" (p. 69); and (c) where S is vastly superior in power to H, or can enlist audience support to destroy H's face without losing his own (p. 69).

On the other hand, the actor on record has the other choice of 'with redress action'. Brown and Levinson (1987) refer to this action as one which gives face to the addressee, that is, it attempts to counteract the potential face damage of the FTA by providing some changes or additions for the action. Thus, it is clearly indicated that no face threat is aimed, and S both is familiar with H's face-wants and those face-wants to be achieved.

As a whole, S first (Brown & Levinson, 1987) decides to do a FTA or not. If he decides to perform the FTA, he has four choices (see Figure 1):

1- Performing an FTA without redressive action (Bald-on record)

2- Performing an FTA with redress (Positive politeness)

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3- Performing an FTA with redress (Negative politeness)

4- Performing an FTA using off-record politeness

5- Not performing FTA

Here, it should be mentioned that the responses given to the questionnaire of this study were coded as the five strategies listed above according to the information presented through the sections of the 2.7.4. to 2.7.8. . The examples in Turkish, except for those cited from different resources, are developed by the researcher.

2.7.4. Bald on Record

The prime reason for bald-on-record usage is that S wants to do the FTA with maximum efficiency *more than* he wants to redress H's face (Brown & Levinson, 1987). According to the consideration of face, in doing bald on record, there are two kinds of it: those where the face is irrelevant or, better to say, the face threat is not minimized and those where S minimizes face threats by implication (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They (1987) add that direct imperatives are the clearest examples of bald-on-record usage.

Cases of non-minimization of the face threat. Maximum efficiency of the act is very important and both of the S and H are aware of this, so there is no attempt to redress the face wants, such as (Brown & Levinson, 1987):

"Help!"(p. 96)
"Give me just one more week! (to pay the rent)" (p. 96)

Another motivation, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), to use bald-on-record is to imply that S and H are good friends, such as in, "Come home right now" (p. 97). If the interaction is task-oriented, the bald-on-record is again used, for example, "Give me the nails" (p. 97). If the utterance is in H's interest and shows S's care for H, it is reasonable to use bald-on-record, such as in (p. 98), "Careful! He's a dangerous man" (warning H against someone who could threaten him).

Cases of FTA-oriented bald-on-record usage. In this usage, the face matters are considered. There are three important areas in all languages which display FTA-oriented bald-on-record: (i) welcomings; (ii) farewells; and (iii) offers (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

The examples are "Come", "Sit down", "Come again", "Pull (your chair) up", "Come eat", and "Please come in" (pp. 99-100).

2.7.5. Positive Politeness

By positive politeness, Brown and Levinson (1987) refer to those strategies which are addressed to H's positive face, indicating that S takes into consideration H's wants and considers H as a member of an in-group, or a friend whose personality is liked and known. Here S wants to minimize the potential face threat of an act, for example, S implies that he/she likes H and the FTA does not mean a negative evaluation in general of H's face (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

The linguistic realizations of positive politeness are in many respects similar to the normal linguistic behavior between intimates (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They state that maybe the only feature which distinguishes positive politeness redress from normal everyday intimate language behavior is an element of exaggeration, which displays insincerity. However, S sincerely desires to indicate, "I want your positive face to be satisfied" (p. 101). For example, "How absolutely marvelous! I can't imagine how you manage to keep your roses so exquisite, Mrs. B" (p. 103). In this example, S sincerely wants H's positive face to be enhanced (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

As a whole, to apply positive politeness in his/her communication, S can refer to three broad mechanisms which are sub-divided into fifteen strategies (Brown & Levinson, 1987). According to Brown and Levinson (1987), the mechanisms are: (1) claim common ground; (2) Convey that S and H are cooperators; (3) Fulfil H's want for some X (see Appendix No. A).

Mechanism 1: "Claim common ground" (p.103), suggests that S claims 'common ground' with H (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They go on to say that, in other words, S and H both belong to a set of persons who share specific wants, including goals and values. Eight of fifteen strategies come under this super strategy (Brown & Levinson, 1987):

Strategy 1: Notice, attend to H (his interests, wants, needs, goods)

The S takes notice of H's possessions, wants, needs and his solidarity with him (Brown & Levinson, 1987), for example, "Goodness, you cut your hair! (…) by the way, I came to borrow some flour." (p. 103)

Example in Turkish:

Acıktın mı? Beraber yemek yemeye ne dersin?

(Are you hungry? What about having lunch together?)

Strategy 2: Exaggerate (interest, approval, sympathy with H)

Here is an exaggerated intonation, stress and other aspects of prosodics, such as intensifying modifiers (Brown & Levinson, 1987), for example, "What a fantastic garden you have." (p. 104)

Example in Turkish:

Ne kadar harika küpelerin var!

(What fantastic earrings you have!)

In Turkish, the plural suffixes –lar and –ler are used in singular conditions for exaggeration.

For example, *kendileri* (themselves) in:

Sayın Başkanım kendileri bizi bilgilendirecekler.

(Dear President *themselves* will inform us.) (Although the president is only one person)

Strategy 3: Intensifying interest to H

S intensifies the interest of his own contribution to the conversation by 'making a good story' (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They add that it may be done by a 'vivid present', which pulls H right into the middle of the events being discussed metaphorically. Therefore, the intrinsic interest of the events to H is increased, for example, "I come down the stairs, and what do you think I see? – A huge mess all over the place, the phone's off the hook and clothes are scattered all over…." (p. 106).

The other feature which indicates this strategy is the application of direct speech rather than indirect reported speech, tag questions, or expressions which draw H as a participant into the conversation (Brown & Levinson, 1987), such as "See what I mean?" (p. 107).

A related technique is to overstate facts (Brown & Levinson, 1987), for example, "There were a million people in the Co-op tonight!" (p. 107)

Example in Turkish:

Hiç böyle hasta olmamıştım

(I have never been so ill.)

Strategy 4: Use in-group identity markers

S tries to convey in-group membership with H by in-group usages of address forms, of language or dialects, of jargons or slang, and of ellipsis (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Address forms. How to address each other depends on so many criteria such as meeting circumstances, degree of intimacy, cross-cultural communication, racial distinction, age and sex (Brown & Ford, 1961 as cited in Wardhaugh, 1986). Some of the address forms are: mate, buddy, honey, dear, cutie, blondie, sweetheart, guys, fellas, and so forth (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Sometimes these forms are used in imperatives, or to soften FTA (Brown & Levinson, 1987), for example:

"Come here, { buddy." mate." honey." (p. 108)

Example in Turkish:

Camı kapatır mısın, { güzelim? şekerim? hayatım?

(Could you close the window, { my beautiful?) My beauty? my sweet?) My sweet thing? my life?) My love, my darling?

Use of in-group language or dialect. There are some communities which have two or more valid codes (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Thus, the subject of code-switching is raised. Code switching means that a speaker or writer changes from one language or language variety to another one (Richards et al., 1992). For example, the citizens of the province of Azerbaijan in Iran use the Azeri language in intimate relationships and Persian in more formal situations.

In many languages, the second person plural pronoun of address doubles as an honorific form to singular respected individual or distant alters (Brown & Levinson, 1987). It is called (T/V) relationship, which is the first letters of *Tu* and *Vous* in French language (Wardhaugh, 1986). Sometimes the speaker may first use singular T form for the H and later V plural form for the same H to bring distance to the relationship (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Example in Turkish:

A: Adın ne? (What is your (T form) name?)

B: Ahmet. (Ahmet.)

Later:

A: Çalışma saatınız sabah 8:00, akşam 5:00 olacak. (Your (V form) working hours will be from 8 a.m. untill 5 p.m.)

B: Tabii, efendim. (All right sir.)

Sometimes changes may signal the withdrawal of positive politeness (Brown & Levinson, 1987), for example:

First call: "Come here, Johnny" (p. 111).
Second call: "John Henry Smith, you come here right away" (p. 111).

Use of jargon or slang. According to Brown & Levinson (1987), this usage reflects that S and H have shared values and thoughts toward an object or event, for example, "Got any Winstons?" (p. 111).

Example in Turkish:

Finaller yaklaşıyor. (The finals are approaching.)

Contraction and ellipsis. If S and H share a mutual knowledge to make ellipsis comprehensible, its usage will be inevitable, like (Brown & Levinson, 1987): "Mind if I smoke?" (p. 112).

Example in Turkish:

A: Bu bluzun yüzde kaçı ketendir? (What percentage of this blouse is cotton?)

B: yirmi (=yüzde yirmisi) (twenty (= twenty percent)

In English, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), many nicknames are contracted forms of the full name, for example, "Liz, Tom, Jenny", (p. 112). In Turkish, Fatoş is used for Fatma or Zeyno for Zeynep.

Strategy 5: Seek agreement

Safe topics. The S tries to stress his agreement with H and therefore to enhance H's desire to be right, or to be corroborated in his opinions (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They add that the weather, the beauty of gardens and the irritations of having to wait in line are some of the safe topics.

Example in Turkish:

Güllerin çok güzel açmış. (Your roses have blossomed nicely.)

Repetition. Here H repeats part or all of what S has just said (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They believe that repetition demonstrates two objects: (1) H has heard correctly what was said; (2) H shows his/her emotional agreement with S, for example,

A: "John went to London this weekend.
B: To London!" (p. 113)

Example in Turkish:

A: Bu vazoya tam 100 dolar verdim. (I spent exactly 100 Dollars for this vase.)

B: 100 Dolar! (100 Dollars!)

Strategy 6: Avoid disagreement

Token agreement. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), when S pretends to agree, he has adopted 'token' agreement, so S may not say "NO" but instead say "Yes, but ..." (p. 114), for example,

A: . "Have you got friends?
B: I have friends. So- called friends. I had friends. Let me put it that way."(p. 114)

Example in Turkish:

A: Yemek nasıl olmuş? (How is the food?)

B: Güzel olmuş, ama biraz tuzlu olmuş. (Nice, but it is a little salty.)

Pseudo-agreement. When there is a prior agreement between S and H, the S uses 'then' and 'so' to draw a conclusion to that agreement (Brown & Levinson, 1987), for example, "I'll meet you in front of the theatre just before eight, then" (p. 115).

Example in Turkish:

O zaman tam altıda sinemanın önünde buluşalım. (So then, exactly at six, we will meet in front of the cinema.)

White lies. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), when S does not want to damage H's positive face, he sometimes is forced to say sentences such as "Yes, I do like your new hat!" (p. 115).

Hedging opinions. In order not to show his/her disagreement clearly, sometimes S prefers to be vague (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They add that S in order to hide his/her disagreement, he/she chooses words at the extreme of the relevant value scale. In fact, this is very similar to strategy 2. Brown & Levinson (1987) suggest some of these words used in positive politeness talk:

marvelous	appalling
fantastic	ghastly
extraordinary	devastating
wonderful	outrageous
delightful	despicable
ravishing	revolting
divine	ridiculous

incredible (good)   incredible (bad) (p. 116)

Examples in Turkish:

Good		Bad	
şahane	(master, best of its kind)	berbat	(very bad)
mühteşem	(marvelous)	iğrenç	(disgusting)
harika	(wonderful)	kötü	(bad)
inanılmaz	(incredible)	inanılmaz	(incredible)
mükemmel	(perfect)	acayip	(strange)
kutsal	(divine)	lanet	(damn)
dehşet	(dread)		
acayip	(strange)		

Although this strategy is considered as a feature of negative politeness, they are used as positive politeness strategy, too (Brown & Levinson, 1987). However, they add that a risk exists there, and it is when S is not certain about H's attitude towards the subject, so again S makes his statements vaguer by using hedges like the following:

I really sort of   { hope / think / wonder } ...   (p. 116)

Hedges also soften face threatening acts by suggesting, criticizing, and so forth. (Brown & Levinson, 1987), for example, "You really should sort of try harder." (p. 117)

Here are some examples given by Doğançay and Kamışlı (1997, as cited in Akıncı, 1999):

Bazı noktaları biraz daha düşünmelisin.
(I think you need to think about some points a bit more.) (p. 50)
Sanırım şimdilik bu düzenle devam etmek daha uygun olur.
(I think it would be better for us to continue with the current set up.) (p. 50)
Evrakların işlem görmeden numaralandırılması biraz karışıklık yaratıyor gibime geliyor.
(The numbering of the documents before any operation comes to me as if creating somewhat bother. [sic]) (p. 51)

Strategy 7: Presuppose/raise/assert common ground

Gossip, small talk. By this, S indicates that he has not come to see H simply to do the FTA (e.g., a request) (Brown & Levinson, 1987). This strategy is commonly used in kinship-based societies.

Point-of-view operations. According to Brown & Levinson (1987), there are seven ways to reduce the distance between the S's and H's point of views:

1) *Personal-centre switch.* In English, tag questions and giving empathy suggests this strategy (Brown & Levinson, 1987), for example,

> "I had a really hard time learning to drive, didn't I?" (p. 119), and,
> A: "Oh this cut hurts awfully, Mum.
> B: Yes dear, it hurts terribly, I know" (p. 119).

In Turkish "Tamam mı?" (is it okey? / ok?) is used to decrease the distance (Akıncı, 1999), such as:

Önce derslerini bitir sonra oynayabilirsin, tamam mı? (First finish your homework then you can play, ok?)

Another way is to use the pronoun of 'we' instead of 'you' although only H is being referred to (Brown & Levinson, 1987), for example, "Ok now, let's stop the chatter and get on with our little essays" (p. 119).

Example in Turkish (the boss points to employees):
Tamam hadi işimizin başına dönelim? (Ok, let's go back to our work!)

Another way, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), to assert common ground with H is to use the expression of 'you know' which is very common in Turkish, too.

Example in Turkish:
Biliyorsun, ben pazartesi günleri yoğun olurum. (You know, I am very busy on Mondays.)

2) *Time switch.* A tense shift from past tense to present tense, in other words, the use of 'vivid present' is discussed here (Brown & Levinson, 1987), for example, "John *says* he really loves your roses." (p. 121).

3) *Place switch.* The use of proximal rather than distal demonstratives (here, this rather than there or that) suggests increased involvement or empathy (Brown & Levinson, 1987), for example:

(in reference): $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{"This}\\\text{Here}\end{array}\right\}$ is a man I could trust." (p. 121)

(versus): $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{" That}\\\text{There}\end{array}\right\}$ is a man I could trust." (p. 121)

4) *Avoidance of adjustments of reports to H's point of view.* One of the other ways which S uses to stress common ground is to show that H's point of view is his (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They believe that as a result, even where it may result in loss of clarity, there is a preference for direct quotes with uninterpreted referring expressions, names and so on.

Presupposition manipulations. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), for S, there are four ways to do this:

1) *Presuppose knowledge of H's wants and attitudes.* S knows H's wants, tastes, habits, and so forth. In this case, the negative questions which expect 'yes' as an answer are widely used (Brown & Levinson, 1987), for example, "Wouldn't you like a drink?" (p. 122).

Example in Turkish:

Yemek yemek istemez misin? (Don't you want to have lunch?)

2) *Presuppose H's values are the same as S' values.* S and H should be aware of the criteria which define the values, because in different societies, the values such as good-bad, tall-short, beautiful-ugly, and so forth involve different meanings (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

3) *Presuppose familiarity in S-H relationships.* The usage of familiar address forms (e.g., honey, darling) shows 'familiarity' with H even if it is not the case (Brown &

Levinson, 1987). In addition, they add that the use of generic familiar address forms (e.g., Mac, mate, buddy, etc.) to strangers also redresses the threat of FTA.

4) *Presuppose H's knowledge.* S uses in-group codes, language, dialect, jargon, or local terms and assumes that H is familiar with these words (Brown & Levinson, 1987), for example, "Well, I was watching *High Life* last night and …." (p. 124). If H does not know that there is a TV program called *High Life*, S's assumption that H knows these things will indicate that S assumes that S and H share common ground.

Example in Turkish:

Matrix'i gördün mü? (Did you see 'Matrix'?)

The hearer is expected to know that 'Matrix' is a film in movie theaters.

Strategy 8: Joke

It is used for putting H at ease for example in response to H's *faux pas,* or to minimize an FTA of requesting, as in (Brown & Levinson, 1987):

"OK if I tackle those candies now?" (p. 124)
"How about lending me this old heap of junk (H's new Cadillac)?" (p. 124)

Mechanism 2: "Convey that S and H are cooperators" (p. 125) means that S and H are both involved in the activity, and thus they share the same goals in some domain and with each other try to redress H's positive face (Brown & Levinson, 1987). This mechanism includes strategies from No. 9 to No. 14.

Strategy 9: Assert or presuppose S's knowledge of and concern for H's wants

Here there is some pressure on H to cooperate with S. The S indicates that he/she is aware of H's willingness to fit his/her (S) own wants within them (Brown & Levinson, 1987), for example, "I know you love roses but the florist didn't have any more, so I brought you geraniums instead. (offer + apology)" (p. 125).

Strategy 10: Offer, promise

The S may claim that whatever H wants, S wants *for* him and will help to obtain (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Hence, the promises and offers will be the natural outcomes such as "I'll drop by sometime next week" (p. 125).

Strategy 11: Be optimistic

This strategy is used to minimize the weight of FTA to show that it is nothing to ask (or offer, etc.) as in the following example (Brown & Levinson, 1987): "I'm borrowing your scissors for a sec- OK?" (p. 127).

Example in Turkish:

Kitabını sadece bir kaç dakikalığına alıyorum.

(I'm borrowing your book only for a few minuets.)

Sometimes optimism is used to show that H will cooperate with S because it will be in their mutual shared interest (Brown & Levinson, 1987), for example, "Wait a minute, you haven't brushed your hair (as husband goes out of the door)!" (p. 126).

Strategy 12: Include both S and H in the activity

The S uses 'we' instead of 'me' or 'you' (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They add that by cooperative assumptions, S redresses the FTA. In English 'let's' is used a lot to achieve this aim (Brown & Levinson, 1987), for Example,

"Let's have a cookie then (i.e., me)" (p. 127)
"Let's start working (i.e., you)" (p. 127)

Example in Turkish:

Şu belgeyi kaydedelim.

(Let's save this document.) (The boss says to his/her secretary.)

Strategy 13: Give (or ask for) reasons

In this strategy, S Gives reasons to H about why he (S) wants what he wants (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They believe that as H is aware of S's reason, so H will be led to the reasonableness of S's FTA. Then, H will cooperate with S and be included in the activity. In English, indirect suggestions which display demand rather than give reasons refer to this strategy (Brown & Levinson, 1987), for example, "Why not lend me your cottage for the weekend?" (p. 128).

Example in Turkish:

Tatil için niye Güneye gitmiyoruz?

(Why don't we go to the south for holiday?)

Strategy 14: Assume or assert reciprocity

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), S shows that there is a mutual cooperation between him/her and H by indicating sentences such as: "I'll do X for you if you do Y for me", or "I did X for you last week, so you do Y for me this week" (or vice versa) (p. 129).

Mechanism 3: "Fulfil H's want for some X" (p.129) means S desires to redress H's wants directly by fulfilling some of H's wants (Brown & Levinson, 1987). This mechanism involves the last strategy, that is, No.15.

Strategy 15: Give gifts to H (goods, sympathy, understanding, cooperation)

S presents H some gifts including both tangible and intangible items, which cover a range of human-relationship wants such as the wants to be liked, admired, cared about, understood, and listened to.

2.7.6. Negative Politeness

Here H's negative face is addressed. In fact, this kind of politeness is the most elaborate and conventionalized set of linguistic strategies on which etiquette books are written (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They state that this strategy is the heart of being polite and its aim is to minimize the imposition of the FTA. Positive politeness is based on the notions of 'familiarity' and 'joking'; however, negative politeness is based on 'respect' (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

There are five major strategies within negative politeness (Brown & Levinson, 1987): (1) Be direct, (2) Don't presume/assume, (3) Don't coerce H (where x involves H doing A), (4) Communicate S's want to not impinge on H, and (5) Redress other wants of H's derivative from negative face. From these major strategies ten minor strategies emanate. A summary of these strategies is given in the following lines (See Appendix No. 2).

Strategy 1: Be conventionally indirect

For S, being indirect is one of the ways to show his/her politeness (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They believe that there are some clues for making indirect speech acts:

1) By inserting 'please' in the sentence such as, "Can you please pass the salt?"(p. 133). Here, definitely the ability of H is not questioned; rather, it is used as an indirect speech.

2) By deleting the auxiliary verbs and tense markers, for example, (Gordon & Lakoff, 1971, as cited in Brown & Levinson, 1987):

"Why are you painting your house purple?" (p. 133)
"Why paint your house purple?" (p. 133)

3) By adding exclamatory expressions:

"Why $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{for God's sake} \\ \text{the hell} \\ \text{in Christ's name} \end{array} \right\}$ are you painting your house purple?" (p. 133)

Both of the communication participants (i.e., S and H) should consider the degree of politeness in the expression of indirect speech acts (Brown & Levinson, 1987). One's intuitions can identify the first sentence below as more polite than the second, for example, consider the following sentences:

"I don't suppose I could possibly ask you for a cup of flour, could I?" (p.142)
"I'd like to borrow a cup of flour if I may." (p. 142)

However, there is another criterion called "context" (see section 2.7.). If the first sentence above is said to a close friend (or even ironic, from an officer to a cook in the army) it will be marked as less polite (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

When the S tries to be maximally negatively polite, a list of the most to the least polite can be drawn intuitively (Brown & Levinson, 1987):

There wouldn't I suppose be any chance of your being able to lend me your car for just a few minutes, would there?
Could you possibly by any chance lend me your car for just a few minutes?
Would you have any objections to my borrowing your car for a while?
I'd like to borrow your car, if you wouldn't mind?
May I borrow your car please?
Lend me your car? (pp. 142-143)

What can be the general principles involved in the rating of these statements? Definitely one of them is the *effort,* an S expends in supporting the face–wants of the H (Brown & Levinson, 1987). The more S is trying to satisfy the H's face, the more polite the statement would be. Brown and Levinson (1987) also state that hedges, indirectness and particles cause the statement to suggest more weight of politeness. This is the case with Turkish language, too. Question form of the statements makes them more polite:

Ahmet, şu dosyayı bana getir.(Ahmet, bring that file to me), and

Ahmet, şu dosyayı bana getirebilir misin? (Ahmet, can you bring that file to me?)

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), usage of indirect speech acts which suggests politeness is the universal feature of all languages.

Strategy 2: Question, hedge

In the literature, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), a 'hedge' is "a particle, word, or phrase that modifies the degree of membership of a predicate or noun phrase in a set" (p. 145). Hedges refer to membership as *partial,* true only in certain respects, or *more* true and complete than what is expected, such as (Brown & Levinson, 1987):

"John is a *true* friend." (p. 145)
"You're *quite* right." (p. 145)
"I'm *pretty* sure I've read this book before." (p. 145)

Hedges on illocutionary force. There are two kinds of hedges included in this category (Brown & Levinson, 1987):

1) *Hedges encoded in particles.* In English, tag questions and expressions such as *I wonder* function as hedges (Brown & Levinson, 1987), for example:

"Do me a favor,
Take this out,   will you?" (p. 147), or

"I wonder if (you know whether) John went out." (p. 147)

Example in Turkish:

Bana gazete al, olur mu? (Buy a newspaper for me, will you?)

2) *Adverbial-clause hedges.* In the English language some expressions and 'if clauses' indicate these kinds of hedges (Brown & Levinson, 1987), for example,

"That's just how it is, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{in fact.}\\\text{as it were.}\\\text{in all probability.}\\\text{it seems to me.}\\\text{don't you agree." (p. 162)}\end{array}\right.$

"Close the window, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{if you can.}\\\text{if you want.}\\\text{if it closes." (p. 162)}\end{array}\right.$

Example in Turkish:

Eğer istersen ben de seninle gelebilirim.

(If you want, I can come with you, too.)

Hedges addressed to Grice's maxims. The quality hedges, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), indicate that S is not taking full consideration for the truthfulness of his/her utterances, or exactly the opposite condition can be the case, such as in:

"I $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{think ...}\\\text{believe ...}\\\text{assume ..."(pp. 164-165)}\end{array}\right.$

"I absolutely $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{promise}\\\text{deny}\\\text{believe}\end{array}\right\}$ that ..." (pp. 164-165)

Example in Turkish:

Sanırım Ahmet bugün dönecek. (I think Ahmet will come back today.)

The *Quantity* hedges displays S's not being precise about the extent or amount of information he/she gives, such as (Brown & Levinson, 1987): "roughly, more or less, give or take a few, to some extent, in short, so to speak, all in all, and approximately" (p. 166). Quantity hedges may be applied for redressing complaints or requests, such as "Could you make this copy more or less final?" (p. 171).

Some of the *Quality* hedges which make S's commitment stronger are useful for promises. For example, "I absolutely promise to..." (p. 171). Some other *Quality* hedges make S's commitment weaker, so they are used to redress advice or criticism. For example, "I think perhaps you should..." (p. 171).

The *Relevance* hedges are used for redressing offers or suggestions, for example, "This may be misplaced, but would you consider ...?" (p.171). These hedges are those which mark the change, and may apologize for that change partially, such as in (Brown & Levinson, 1987):

"This may not be $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{relevant,} \\ \text{appropriate,} \\ \text{timely,}\end{array}\right\}$ but ...."(p. 169)

Example in Turkish:

Belki şimdi bunu söylemek uygun olmaz ama...

(Maybe it is not appropriate to say this now, but ...)

The *Manner* hedges redress all kinds of FTA, for example, insults, such as in, "You are not exactly thrifty, if you see what I mean."(p. 171). Here are some common manner hedges (Brown & Levinson, 1987): "What I meant was...; more clearly...; not to beat about the bush ..." (p. 171). Sometimes according to Brown and Levinson (1987), S uses manner hedges to check whether H is following the discourse or not, for example, "Yeah?; got it?; see?; you with me?, and OK?" (p. 171).

Hedges addressed to politeness strategies. These hedges, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), display directly the notices for violations of face wants, such as, "frankly, to be honest, I hate to have to say this, but" (p. 171).

Prosodic and kinesic hedges. Even cross-culturally, the raised eyebrow, the earnest frown, or the *umms* and *ahhs* indicate S's attitude toward what he/she is saying and are often the most salient clues which signals the existence of an FTA (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Strategy 3: Be pessimistic.

It expresses doubt for the appropriateness of S's speech act achievement. It is gained by using indirect requests, subjunctives and remote-possibility markers (Brown & Levinson, 1987). The examples are as follows (Brown & Levinson, 1987): *Indirect requests*: "You couldn't possibly by any chance lend me your lawnmower" (p. 173); *Subjunctives*: "Could

you do X?" instead of "Can you do X?" (p. 173), and *Remote-possibility markers*, such as, "If I were to ask you" (p. 173), or "If you will" (p. 173).

Example in Turkish (Doğançay & Kamışlı, 1997, as cited in Akıncı, 1999):

"Orayı bulabilir misin tariften?"
("Can you find it from the description?") (p. 71)

Strategy 4: Minimize the imposition, Rx

It is used to minimize the imposition of the FTA (Brown & Levinson, 1987). It should be mentioned that R refers to the rank of imposition of the FTA (see section 2.8.4.). The example is:

"I *just* want to ask you if { I can borrow / you could lend me } a { tiny bit of / little / single sheet of } paper." (p. 177)

Example in Turkish:

Sadece bir kaç dakikalığına bilgisayarını kullanıp kullanamayacağımı soracaktım.

(I was going to ask you whether I could use your PC for only a few minutes.)

Strategy 5: Give deference

There are two ways to make deference between S and H (Brown & Levinson, 1987): "one in which S humbles and abases himself, and another where S raises H" (p.178). For example, in the following sentence, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), when instead of 'eating', the word of 'dining' is used, H is raised and respected,

"We look forward very much to { dining / eating } with you." (p. 181)

Sometimes it is not S but his/her possessions or capacities which are humbled deliberately by S, which are very common when serving a meal or giving a present, such as in (Brown & Levinson, 1987):

"It's { not much, / not elaborate, } I'm afraid, but { it'll fill our stomachs. / it's protein." (p. 185) }

Example in Turkish:

Yaptığım kek çok da lezzetli değil ama en azından hiç yoktan daha iyidir.

(The cake I cooked does not taste very good but at least it is better than nothing.)

Strategy 6: Apologize

By this, S tries to show his/her reluctance to limit H's negative face (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They add that there are four ways (at least) to communicate regret or reluctance for doing FTA:

Admit the impingement. S admits simply that he is impinging H's face by such expressions:

> "I know this is a bore, but..." (p. 188)
> "I'd like to ask you a big favor." (p. 188)

Example in Turkish:

Hocam yoğun olduğunuzu biliyorum ama, ...

(Teacher, I know you are busy, but ...)

Indicate reluctance. S can use hedges or expressions to show his/her reluctance to impinge on H's face, for example, "I normally wouldn't ask you, but..." (p. 188).

Example in Turkish:

Hocam rahatsız etmek istemezdim ama,...

(Teacher, I wouldn't want to bother you, but...)

Give overwhelming reasons. The S explains his/her reasons to do the FTA, such as, "I simply can't manage to.... " (p. 189).

Example in Turkish:

Hocam anketimi cevaplarsınız çok memnun olurum, çünkü sizin politeness konusunda uzman olduğunuzu duydum.

(Teacher, if you respond to my questionnaire, I'll be very pleased because I heard you are an expert in the subject of politeness.)

Beg forgiveness. There are so many expressions which display forgiveness, such as: Excuse me, please forgive me, and so forth (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

Example in Turkish:

Affedersiniz. (I beg your pardon.)

Kusura bakmayın. (Excuse me.)

Strategy 7: Impersonalize speaker and hearer

As the title suggests, the pronouns of 'I' and 'You' should be avoided (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They believe that there are nine ways to do this:

Performatives. In English, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), the avoidance of 'I' and 'you' pronouns explain the inclination for the very general loss of subject and indirect object of the performative verb, 'tell'. The expression of "It is so." (p.190) is more expectable than "I tell you that it is so." (p. 190). It helps S to omit the pronoun of the 'I' (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Imperatives. Compare, "Take that out!" (p. 191) and "You take that out!" (p. 191). In the second one, YOU is inserted deliberately to put emphasis on the person who is going to do the act (Brown & Levinson, 1987). In Turkish, compare *Burayı temizle!* (Clean up here!), and *Burayı sen temizle* (You clean up here!). In the second one, the person is emphasized.

Impersonal verbs. In many languages, it is allowed to delete agents or dative-agents, such as the following example (Brown & Levinson, 1987):

$$\text{"It} \begin{Bmatrix} \text{appears} \\ \text{seems} \end{Bmatrix} \text{(to me) that ..." (p. 192)}$$

The other way to impersonalize agents, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), is to use 'stative phrasing', such as saying "It broke." (p. 193) instead of "I broke it." (p. 193).

Example in Turkish:

Çay hazır. (The tea is ready.)

Instead of,

Çayı ben yaptım. (I made the tea.)

Passive and circumstantial voices. It is used to avoid reference to persons involved (speaker or hearer) in FTA (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Consider that it is used to remove S, such as, instead of "I would appreciate if" (p. 194), it is said, "It would be appreciated." (p. 194). Sometimes it is used to remove H, (Brown & Levinson, 1987) such as in, "If it is possible" (p. 194) instead of "If you can" (p. 194). They add that it can be used to remove both H and S, such as in, "That letter must be typed immediately (by you for me.)" (p. 194).

The Turkish example for the last kind, namely, to remove both H and S:

Biletler hemen ayırtılmalı (for us by you). (The tickets should be booked immediately.)

Replacement of the pronouns. 'I' and 'YOU' by indefinites. Many languages have standardized expressions which impersonalize the pronouns which consequently changes the FTA effects to good ones (Brown & Levinson, 1987). For example, in English, although S knows who has finished the cookies, does not say: "You finished the cookies" (p. 197). Rather S prefers to say, "I-can't-guess-who finished the cookies" (p. 197).

Similarly in Turkish:

Masamın üstünü kimin dağıttını bir bilsem. (Although S knows that it is his roommate.)
(I wish I knew who messed up my table.)

Pluralization of the 'YOU' and 'I' pronouns. There are some languages, such as Turkish, which differentiate between 'you' plural and 'you' singular. In order to show respect for H, the speakers of this language use plural 'you' for the singular addressee (Brown & Levinson, 1987). There is also widespread use of 'we' to indicate 'I' + powerful, such as, "We cannot trace your cheque" (p. 202).

Example in Turkish (Doğançay & Kamışlı, 1997, as cited in Akıncı, 1999):
"Başvurunuz reddedildi"(p. 81).
("Your application has been rejected.") (p. 81)

Address terms as 'you' avoidance. Sometimes 'you' is used to make the statement rude, such as in (Brown & Levinson, 1987):

$$\text{"Excuse me,}\begin{cases} \text{sir.} \\ \text{miss.} \\ \text{you." (p. 203) (This one is rude.)} \end{cases}$$

In many languages such as Persian, it is rude to address H by his/her name. Instead, the kin terms and titles are used. The Turkish language also requires its speakers to use kin terms even if the H is not their real relatives mentioned in the kinship term. For example, S wants to ask the time:

$$\begin{cases} \text{Anne,} \\ \text{Abla,} \\ \text{Amca,} \\ \text{Teyze,} \end{cases} \text{saat kaç?} \qquad \begin{cases} \text{Mom,} \\ \text{Sister, (i.e., older sister)} \\ \text{Uncle,} \\ \text{Aunt,} \end{cases} \text{what time is it?}$$

Reference terms as 'I' avoidance. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), this is the strategy which is mostly used by kings and presidents. For example, the king refers to himself as, 'his majesty', or President Nixon says (New York Times, 1973, as cited in Brown & Levinson, 1987), "But the president should not become involved in any part of this case" (p. 204).

Point of view distancing. The use of point-of-view operations makes the S far from H or from the FTA (Brown & Levinson, 1987). The first way is to change the tense from present into past, for example, in requests: "I was wondering whether you could do me a little favor." (p. 204). The other example is (in questions): "I was kind of interested in knowing if ..." (p. 205).

Example in Turkish:

Beni eve bırakıp bırakamıyacağınızı çok merak ediyordum.

(I was wondering whether you can give me a ride home or not?)

The second way, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), is to add deictic place switches to show anger and distance. For example,

"Anger: Get *that* cat out of my house." (p. 205)
"Distance: That pub is a den of iniquity. (said when passing by)" (p. 205)

The third way, to put distance between S and H is to adjust reports to H's point of view (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They suggest that it can be done mostly by using indirect reported speech, consider this example:

> A: "I'm sorry to bother you, but the chancellor advised me to come and see you.
> B: I'm sorry to bother you, but the chancellor said to me, 'Mr. Jones, I'd go and see the Dean if I were you.'" (p. 206)

In the second statement, S tries to avoid presuming that S and H share the same point of view which they would have to share in order to drive the same interpretation from the direct quote (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Thus, they add that in the first statement S removes himself/herself from actual quotation and puts distance with H, which is one of the strategies for negative politeness.

Strategy 8: State the FTA as a general rule

When S wants to show that he/she does not want to put any pressure on H, and it is only forces by circumstances, FTA is stated as a general rule or obligation (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Here pronouns are impersonalized like the following:

> "(a) Passengers will please refrain from flushing toilets on the train." (p. 206)
> "(b) You will please refrain from flushing toilets on the train." (p. 206)

Example in Turkish:

Uçaktayken cep telefonları kapalı olmalıdır. (On board the plane, cell phones should be off.)

Uçaktayken cep telefonlarınızı kapalı tutunuz. (Keep *your* cell phones off on board the plane.)

Strategy 9: Nominalize

The more the subjects of the sentences are nominalized, the more 'formal' it becomes, and formality is one of the basic elements of negative politeness (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They suggest that nominalizing refers to the removal of the subject from the acting, feeling or being something. For example, compare the following sentences:

> "(a) You performed well on the examinations and we were favorably impressed.
> (b) Your performing well on the examinations impressed us favorably.
> (c) Your good performance on the examinations impressed us favorably." (p. 207)

There are some expressions which show 'formality', such as (Brown & Levinson, 1987): "It is pleasant to be able to inform you ...; It is regretted that we cannot ...," (p. 208).

Strategy 10: Go on record incurring a debt, or as not indebting H

When S states that he/she is incurring a debt to H, or disclaims any indebtedness of H; in fact, S wants to apply the negative politeness strategy by expressions such as (Brown & Levinson, 1987): "(for offers) I could easily do it for you." and "(for requests) I'd be eternally grateful if you would ..." (p. 210).

Examples in Turkish:

Hakkınızı nasıl ödeyeceğim hiç bilmiyorum.

(I don't know how I can repay you.)

Nasıl olsa arabam var, hadi sizi de bırakayım.

(I have a car anyway, come on, I can give you a ride.)

2.7.7. Off Record

For a communicative act, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), if it is impossible to attribute only one clear interpretation, it is said that the act is done off record. Thus, if an S wants to do a FTA, and he/she wants to avoid getting the responsibility for that act, S tries to do it off record and leaves it up to the addressee to interpret what the act means (Brown & Levinson, 1987). In general, it can be said that if S violates the Grice's maxims, he is doing off record. (See Appendix No.3)

The violation of the Maxim of Relevance

Strategy 1: Give hints

S says something which is not relevant explicitly (Brown & Levinson, 1987), for example, "It's cold in here. (i.e., shut the window)" (p. 215).

Example in Turkish:

Kapıdan soğuk geliyor. (The cold is coming from the door.) (i.e., shut the door)

Strategy 2: Give association clues

S and H have mutual knowledge about something, so the act can be interpreted easily, such as (Brown & Levinson, 1987), "Oh, God. I've got a headache again." (p. 215).

Example in Turkish:

Bizim bölümü kolay bulursun. (You can find our department easily.) (i.e., please come visit me)

Strategy 3: Presuppose

The statement may seem wholly relevant in context; however, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), it is irrelevant at the level of presupposition, such as the following sentence which is used for criticism, "I washed the car *again* today" (p. 217).

Example in Turkish:

Dün yine benim bilgisayarımı kullandı. (Yesterday, he used my PC again.)

The violation of the Maxim of Quantity

Strategy 4: Understate

Understatements are one way of generating implicatures by saying less than what is required to be said (Brown & Levinson, 1987). These are mostly used with scalar predicates such as tall, good, or nice. If it is the case of criticism, S avoids lower points of the scale. If it is the case of compliment, or admissions, S avoids the upper points. For example, a teenage girl might say 'He's all right' as an understated criticism implicating 'I think he is awful' or as an understated compliment implicating 'I think he's fabulous' (p. 218).

Strategy 5: Overstate

Here, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), S exaggerates the events, for example, "There were a million people in the Co-op tonight!" (p. 219) (This is used as an excuse for being late).

Example in Turkish:

İğne atsan yere düşmez.

(Literal translation: If you throw a needle, it won't fall.) (The place is packed.)

Strategies 6: Use tautologies

By uttering a tautology, Brown and Levinson (1987) refer to some non-informative statements which S make and these statements require H to make some informative interpretation for it, such as "war is war", or "Boys will be boys" (p. 220).

The violation of the Maxim of Quality

Strategy 7: Use contradictions

S states two things which contradict each other, so intends to show that he *cannot* be telling the truth (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They add that H is forced to find an interpretation which reconciles the two contradictory statements, such as in:

A: "Are you upset about that?

B: Well, $\begin{cases} \text{yes and no.} \\ \text{I am and I'm not." (p. 221)} \end{cases}$

Strategy 8: Be ironic

By saying the *opposite* of what the S means, Brown and Levinson (1987) say that the irony strategy has been used. In other words, S can convey his/her intended meaning indirectly, such as, "John's a real genius, (after John has just done twenty stupid things in a row)" (p. 222).

Example in Turkish:

Ali çok çalışkan birisidir. (Ali is a very hardworking person.) In fact, Ali is a person who is lazy.

Strategy 9: Use metaphors

Metaphors may be marked by hedging particles (*real, regular, sort of,* and *as it were*) which signals the statement to be a metaphor (Brown & Levinson, 1987). For example,

"Harry's a real fish. (He $\begin{cases} \text{drinks} \\ \text{swims} \\ \text{is slimy} \\ \text{is cold-blooded} \end{cases}$ like a fish)." (p. 222)

Example in Turkish:

Altın gibi kalbi var. (He has a golden heart.)

Strategy 10: Use rhetorical questions

These are called questions, but in fact, they are not used for obtaining a response (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They add that S here wants H to provide him/her with the indicated information. For example, in excuses, S says: "How was I to know...?" (p. 223). It means 'I was not'. Another example can be given for the criticisms, such as: "What can I say?" (p. 223). It means, 'nothing, it is so bad'.

The violation of the Maxim of Manner

Strategy 11: Be ambiguous

Ambiguity may be achieved by metaphors which do not clearly manifest what they mean (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Thus:

$$\text{``John's a pretty} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{sharp} \\ \text{smooth} \end{array} \right\} \text{cookie." (p. 225)}$$

This sentence can be a compliment or an insult, depending on which of the meanings of *sharp* and *smooth* are referred to (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Strategy12: Be vague

S goes off record about who is the object of FTA, or what the offence is, for example, in criticisms (Brown & Levinson, 1987), "Looks like someone may have had too much to drink (vague understatement)" (p. 226).

Example in Turkish:

Bilirsin nereye gidiyorum.(to the local tea-house)

(You know where I am going.)

Strategy 13: Over-generalize

By using rules and proverbs, Brown and Levinson (1987) says that the object of the FTA remains off record, and it is H's responsibility to decide whether it applies to him/her,

such as, "The lawn has got to be mowed" (p. 226), and "A penny saved is a penny earned" (p.226).

Strategy 14: Displace H

S tries to pretend to address the FTA to someone whose face is not threatened, and hopes the main addressee will understand that he/she is the person aimed at. Ervin-Tripp (1972, as cited in Brown & Levinson, 1987) gives an example:

A secretary in an office asks for a stapler from the other secretary using negative politeness strategies. However, there is a professor who is much nearer to the stapler. His face is not threatened. It depends on the professor to decide whether to give the stapler to the secretary or not.

Strategy 15: Be incomplete, use ellipsis

The S indicates the FTA half undone, and leaves the implicature 'hanging in the air' just like the rhetorical questions, for example (Brown & Levinson, 1987), "Well, if one leaves one's tea on the wobbly table ..." (p. 227).

Example in Turkish:

Sabah bankaya gitmeliydim ama ... (I had to go to the bank this morning but...)
This sentence is uttered by the speaker to borrow some money from the hearer.

2.7.8. Don't Do the FTA

Among all these strategies, S sometimes prefers none of them for his/her emotional, social, individual, and cultural beliefs (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

2.7.9. Factors Influencing the Choice of Strategies

Brown and Levinson (1987) believe that every logic agent will choose specific politeness strategies to apply under certain circumstances. Thus, they suggest that a generalization can be made with the factors influencing the choice of strategies. As a whole, they are *payoffs* or advantages which the usage of certain strategy brings for the communication participants, and the other factor is the sociological variables which will be

discussed in the other section (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Some of the payoffs suggested by Brown and Levinson (1987) are explained below.

Bald on Record gives the advantage of efficiency of the act to S. In other words, S can claim that he does not care about the face issues, or the act is not at all an FTA. By employing Positive Politeness, the S can minimize the face damage of the H by making him sure that the S considers himself/herself to be 'of the same kind'. In addition, the S can avoid the debt implications which offers and requests have on H in two ways: (a) S indirectly refers to H as his/her friend; (b) S and H both benefit equally from the request or offer. If the S prefers to employ Negative Politeness, he/she can pay respect or deference to H, also, S can maintain social distance, and can avoid becoming more familiar with H. As a whole, S indicates that he/she considers H's negative face-wants in some respect. The advantages which using Off Record strategy provides for the S are: (1) S can get credit for being tactful; (2) S can avoid responsibility for the potential possibility of H's face damage; and (3) S can avoid the risk of his act's entering the 'gossip biography'. At last, Not doing the FTA payoffs results in S's avoidance of offending H at all, as he/she does not perform the FTA.

2.7.10. The Circumstances: Sociological Variables

Brown and Levinson (1987) believe that the assessment of the seriousness of an FTA can be estimated according to the following factors in many and perhaps all cultures:

(i) the 'social distance' (D) of S and H (asymmetric relation)
(ii) the relative 'power' (P) of S and H (asymmetric relation)
(iii)the absolute ranking (R) of impositions in the particular culture (p. 74).

D is a social dimension indicating difference/similarity in which S and H stand for the purpose of this act (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They put forth that in many cases, D is based on an assessment of the frequency of interaction and the kind of material or non-material goods (including face) which is exchanged between S and H.

P is a social dimension of relative power (Brown & Levinson, 1987). It means P (S, H) is the degree to which H can impose his plans and face at the expense of S's plans and face (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

R is defined by Brown and Levinson (1987) as "ranking of impositions by the degree to which they are considered to interfere with an agent's wants of self-determination or of approval (his negative- and positive-face wants)" (p. 77). According to Brown and Levinson (1987), there are two kinds of scales that are empirically identifiable for negative-face FTAs: "a ranking of imposition in proportion to the expenditure (a) of *services* (including the provision of time) and (b) of *goods* (including non-material goods like information, as well as the expression of regard and other face payments)" (p. 77).

Although these rankings can be culturally and situationally different, the rank order is subject to a set of operations which mix the impositions according to three criteria (Brown & Levinson, 1987):

a) whether actors have specific rights or obligations to perform the act;
b) whether they have specific reasons (ritual or physical) for not performing them and;
c) whether actors are known to actually *enjoy* being imposed upon in some way (p. 77)

The ranking of FTA against positive face involves an assessment of (Brown & Levinson, 1987):

(1) the amount of 'pain given' to H's face, based on the difference between H's own desired face and that presented by FTA; (2) cultural rankings of positive face aspects such as 'beauty', 'success' 'niceness' and so forth in particular circumstances; and (3) personal factors which means that some people object to certain kind of FTA more than others.

2.7.11. Context Dependence of P, D and R

Brown and Levinson (1987) believe that social dimensions of P, D and R can be viewed in various ways:

In the first view, it can be argued that individuals are assigned absolute values of P. For example, in a bank, the high P is the bank manager and the low P is the worker. However, when the worker pulls a gun at the manager, P has changed. Hence, in studying P, context should be considered.

The second view is that P is not attachable to individuals, but to roles or role-sets. Thus, in the role-set manager/employee, or parent/child, asymmetrical P is built in. However,

Brown and Levinson (1987) suggest that the notion of asymmetrical P is again problematic in two ways: (1) not all kinds of naked P come clothed in role-sets, and (2) individuals get sets of roles, and high P values in one role carry over into another. This can be clarified with the following example: the old friends of a newly elected president continue to be his friends, but they are unlikely to retain the old equality (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

A third view is that situational factors have an effect on P, D and R. Therefore, the values assessed hold only for S and H in a particular context and a particular FTA. For example, two American strangers who encounter each other by chance in the streets of New York would treat each other with great formality; however, the same strangers might embrace each other with all the excesses of positive politeness if they would meet each other in India (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

2.7.12. P, D and R as Independent Variables

Brown and Levinson (1987) view these social factors as independent from each other and include other factors like status, authority, occupation, ethnic identity, friendship, etc that have an important effect on the assessment of the FTAs. In order to assess this, two of the variables should be considered constant and the third one should be studied (Brown & Levinson, 1987), so:

1) Take P and R constant and consider the D variable: It means the relative power of S and H is more or less equal, and the imposition is not great. For example, (Brown & Levinson, 1987):

> (1) "Excuse me, would you by any chance have the time?" (p. 80)
> (2) "Got the time, mate?" (p. 80)

Our intuitions are that (1) displays the big distance between S and H, which can be strangers, and (2) shows that S and H are close, say friends. D, here is the only variable which changes (1) to (2).

2) Take D and R constant and consider P variable: S and H know each other by sight, and the imposition is more or less small.

> (3) "Excuse me sir, would it be all right if I smoke?" (p. 80)
> (4) "Mind if I smoke?" (p. 80)

Our intuitions are that (3) might be said by an employee to his boss, while (4) might be said in the same situation by the boss to the employee. Here it is observed that it is only the P which makes the difference between (3) and (4).

3) Take P and D constant and consider the R variable: The independency of the R can also be demonstrated similarly. Suppose P is small and D is great (e.g., S and H are strangers):

> (5) Look, I'm terribly sorry to bother you but would there be any chance of your lending me just enough money to get a railway ticket to get home? I must have dropped my purse and I just don't know what to do.
> (6) Hey, got change for a quarter? (p. 81)

Both of these, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), can be said in a railway station by a frustrated traveler to a stranger; however, our intuitions are that S in (5) considers the FTA to be much more serious than the FTA done in (6). Here, it is only the variable R which makes difference between (5) and (6).

2.7.13. Comments and Criticisms for Brown and Levinson's Theory

As stated before, there are a large numbers of studies (e.g., Pan, 1998; Dalton-Puffer, 2003; Hondo & Goodman, n.d.; Nevala, 2000, to name only a few) which have adopted Brown and Levinson's theory. In fact, whenever politeness is addressed, Brown and Levinson are cited. Also, there are a large number of communication problems which have been clarified by Brown and Levinson's theory. However, like any other theory, this theory has also been questioned by some researchers and authors.

One of the criticisms for the universality aspect of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory comes from Meier (2004). He believes that the standards on which politeness is based are largely informed by cultural values. He adds that different cultures put different perceptions of appropriacy which conflicts with the Brown and Levinson's theory.

One of the notions that challenges the universality of Brown and Levinson's theory is the claim of inverse relationship between politeness and directness (i.e., to be more direct is to be less polite). Examples of languages which exhibit this relationship include the

following: Chinese, French, Israeli Sabra, Japanese, Polish, Spanish and Wolof (Meier, 2004).

There is another study (Reiter, Rainey & Fulcher, 2005) which refers to the fact that directness is not a universal concept. In this study, by considering the Spanish and the English languages, they come to the conclusion that conventional indirectness appears to reflect different social meanings in English and Spanish.

Also, there are a few languages whose rules do not follow Brown and Levinson's concept of face and face-wants which are individualistic. Some of those languages are: Chinese, Hindi, Japanese, and Spanish, (Meier, 2004).

Wilson (1992, as cited in Meier, 2004) notes that a particular level of directness is less face threatening in one culture than in another and that Brown and Levinson's theory does not explain or predict when a directive will be face threatening and when it will not or whether it is going to threat the positive face or the negative face. The more important problem is that between the cultures, there is a large conceptual difference about directness. As Yu (1999, as cited in Meier, 2004) states, what is linguistically considered to be direct or indirect is different among the speakers of Chinese and English.

A more general problem has been proposed by some researchers (e.g., Sifianou, 1992; Ide et al., 1992; both as cited in Meier, 2004; Hua, Wei & Yuan, 2000). They claim that the concept of politeness is very different among the speakers of Greek and English, Japanese and English and Chinese and English, respectively.

Fraser (1990) has proposed that Brown and Levinson never give a definition for politeness.

Fitch (1994, as cited in Meier, 2004) criticizes the notion of "dominance" which is one of the criteria to choose politeness strategies. Fitch believes that this factor differs according to the kind of the society which can be egalitarian or hierarchal.

There are some comments (e.g., Baxter, 1984; Ide, 1989; both as cited in Meier, 2004; Meier, 1995) about the representational validity of politeness strategies. They point out that a particular linguistic behavior can be both a positive and negative strategy. In addition, they add that some speech acts such as request or advice can be understood as both threats and positive politeness strategy.

As a whole, Brown and Levinson (1987) themselves present a self-critique at the introduction of their 1987 edition, explaining problems with their theory and conclude that their categories are not suitable for quantitative studies. However, according to Meier (2004), Brown and Levinson's (1987) work was significant in placing important concerns on the map of politeness. Furthermore, according to Meier (2004), their theory encouraged researchers and authors to do much more cross-cultural or intra-cultural studies (e.g., Lakoff, 1989; Ide, 1989; Blum-Kulka, 1992; Watts, Ide & Ehlich, 1992; Lee-Wong 2000, all as cited in Meier, 2004; Hill et al., 1986; Blum-Kulka, 1990; Haugh 2003).

The subject of impoliteness has also turned out to become an important issue to be studied (see e.g., Kienpointner, 1997; Blas-Arroyo, 2003, both as cited in Meier, 2004; Culpeper, 1996).

2.8. Context

Since the early 1970s, the field of linguistics became aware of the important role of the context and its effect on the interpretation of the sentences (Brown & Yule, 1983).

The context often helps in understanding the particular meaning of the word, phrase or sentence (Tehrani & Shahbazi-Yeganeh, 1999). For example, consider the different meanings of the word *loud* in different contexts: in *"loud music"* (Tehrani & Shahbazi-Yeganeh, 1999, p. 40) it means the music is noisy, and in *"a tie with a loud pattern"* it is understood as "unpleasantly colorful" (p. 40).

Context includes all of the following (Tehrani & Shahbazi-Yeganeh, 1999):

1) substance: the physical material which carries or repeats the text.

2) music and pictures.

3) paralanguage: meaningful behaviors which accompany language, such as voice quality, facial expressions or gestures (in speech), and choice of typeface and letter sizes (in writing).

4) situation: the way in which the participants of the communication have perceived the properties and relations of the objects and people included in that communication.

5) co-text: the text which precedes or follows the text which is under analysis. It is the participants who judge that this text (co-text) belongs to the same discourse.

6) intertext: the text which the participants consider as belonging to other discourse; however, participants' interpretations are affected by that intertext.

7) participants: each participant at the same time is both a part of the context and observer of it. Participants here refer to their feelings, beliefs, intentions and interpretations, knowledge and interpersonal attitudes. Participants are usually referred to as *senders, addressers, addressees* and *receivers*.

8) function: what the text is intended to do by the senders and addressers, or understood by the receivers and addressers.

As stated before in Linguistic Pragmatics (see section 2.2.), Pragmatics is the study of the contribution of context to meaning (Richards et al., 1992). What is discussed next is the relationship between context and pragmatics.

2.8.1. Context in Pragmatics

Pragmatics refers to context as the basic element which helps to make inferences about meaning (Fasold, 1990).

Here are four sub-areas involved in context ("Pragmatics", 2002):
- physical context
- epistemic context
- linguistic context
- social context (p. 1)

Physical context: It refers to where the communication is taking place, what objects are present, what actions are being performed, and so forth.

Epistemic context: It refers to speaker's and hearer's knowledge about the world.

Linguistic context: It refers to what has already been said in the utterance. For example, an S talks about Michael Jordan as a top basketball player, and then in the next sentence refers to this athlete as 'him'. The interaction participants, based on their linguistic context knowledge, know that the referent of 'him' is Michael Jordan.

Social context: It refers to the social relationship which exists among speakers and hearers. An example will clarify all the concerns ("Pragmatics", 2002). Imagine you are in a library and at this time, two people come into library speaking really loudly. Unfortunately, they sit at your table and continue their babbling. Therefore, you look up at them and say: "Excuse me, could you speak up a bit more? I missed what you said" ("Pragmatics", 2002, P. 1).

It is our pragmatic knowledge which tells us what is the literal meaning (i.e., please speak up) and what is the intended meaning (i.e., shut up!). In other words, it is our knowledge of context in pragmatics and its four sub-areas which help us to realize the intended meaning. For further details, consider the contextual properties of this utterance ("Pragmatics", 2002):

physical: it is the place where this communication takes part, that is, a library.

epistemic: all competent agents know that libraries are quiet places.

linguistic: it is the sarcastic tone of speaker's voice, as intonation cues are linguistic.

social context: you have the right to ask someone to be quiet in a library where everyone is expected to be quiet, especially if their rule breaking disturbs others which overrides the social norm of not giving orders to strangers.

Finally, the two noisy people, based on their contextual knowledge, will comprehend the intended meaning. With any luck, they will tone it down.

One of the studies displaying the role of context is conducted by Grainger (n.d.). In this study, the researcher attempts to discover the kind of politeness strategy which nurses and patients used in the context of a hospital. The transcription of the collected data show that there is an extensive use of positive politeness strategies, despite the fact that nurses and patients barely know one another. However, this co-occurs with negative politeness strategies in the same interaction which shows that patients and nurses construct both a friendly and a deferential relationship. Thus, in the context of a hospital ward, it is seen

that both nurses and patients try to decrease the weight of FTA with positive politeness strategies and to claim for deference with negative politeness strategies.

Wittgenstein's language game theory considers words as 'tools' or 'instruments' which communication participants use for different purposes in different language games (Wittgenstein, 1968, as cited in Carlo & Yoo, 2003). The concept of language game refers to a dialectical unit of language use and understanding of the world (Apel, 1967, as cited in Carlo & Yoo, 2003). Drawing upon Wittgenstein's theory of language games, Carlo and Yoo (2003) propose a pragmatic view of organizational communication which unites research in media richness, sense-making, and conversation analysis. They conduct a comparative study of face-to-face versus computer-mediated reference transactions in an academic library and found that communicative context affects the way people use the language. They add that people utilize linguistic signals consciously to create a communicative context, especially a context of politeness.

2.8.2. Social Distance

The notion of social distance refers to the scope of distance or intimacy (Spencer-Oatey, 1996). Spencer-Oatey (1996) states that there are several terms used for social distance in the literature such as *solidarity*, *closeness* and *familiarity*. Spencer-Oatey (1996) defines social distance as length of acquaintance and frequency/amount of contact.

Many studies have adopted social distance as a key variable in the communication studies. For example, Stalker (1989) suggests that social distance is one of the criteria which helps the communication participants to connect the goals and contexts of the situation with the structures which we have available in our linguistic repertoire. Language users adopt linguistic features in a way to adjust the social distance between the producer and the receiver.

The other study which adopts social distance in politeness strategy is done by La Pair (1996). He studies the effect of the social distance, authority (power) and situational settings on the use of request strategies in Spanish and Dutch speakers of Spanish. It is found that Spanish native speakers of Spanish use more direct strategies than Dutch

nonnative speakers of Spanish. Furthermore, these two groups employ different mechanisms to realize the conventional indirectness.

Ruhi and Doğan (2001, as cited in Xie, 2002) are two Turkish researchers who examine the realization of the speech act of compliments according to the factor of the social distance. They identify the compliments as a form of phatic communication which may provide the environment for a positive mutual relationship between the complimenter and the complimentee. They find that most compliments in Turkish mainly occur in close relationships and equal status to emphasize in-group solidarity.

2.8.3. Power

As with distance, different terms have been used in the literature which all refer to power, such as status, authority, dominance or social power (Spencer- Oatey, 1996). Power has been defined as control of another's behavior (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Some authors use role relations to display different levels of power (Spencer-Oatey, 1996), for example, *Unequal* as: leader/member; boss/employee; teacher/student; doctor/patient and so forth. There are also *Equal* relations such as: co-workers, students, group members, friends, and so forth.

The power of one of the participants over the other can be permanent or temporary ("Indirectness and politeness", n.d.). For example, in the case of employer-employee relationship, up to the time that the employee is under the employment of the boss, there is a legitimate power.

There is another kind of power which refers to the superior knowledge of the speaker ("Indirectness and politeness", n.d.). In order to understand better this kind of power, consider the following example: Imagine that an instructor has just arrived in a university campus and asks for the directions from one of his/her colleagues. During the process of explaining the direction to the instructor, the colleague assumes a kind of temporary power over that person, because he/she is 'teaching' and has the superior knowledge about the campus street plans. Now assume that instructor is very familiar with computers and the same colleague asks the instructor about his/her problem with the computers. Now, the

instructor is the one who is explaining to the other and has the superior knowledge. Thus, the instructor has taken over the position of power. This kind of power is called expert power where S has superior knowledge over H ("Indirectness and politeness", n.d.).

There are two kinds of social status, that is, equal and unequal. The equal social status is characterized by symmetrical relationships which exist between S and H (Bou-Franch & Garces-Conejos, 2003). They add that there is closeness and familiarity between the interlocutors, so they employ the politeness strategies of involvement (see section 2.7.5.). These situations are mostly typical of conversations among friends, where the expression of solidarity is central (Bou-Franch & Garces-Conejos, 2003).

One of the studies which have been done in equal social status situations analyzes the use and function of the expletive *fuck* uttered by members of a workplace factory team. Daly, Holmes, Newton and Stubbe, (2004) record the daily interactions of co-workers with their co-workers of the same social status and with their Power Rangers (foremen) who are in a higher social status. They find that the ways in which workers express the speech acts of complaining and refusing towards their Power Rangers are very different from the ways in which they express to their co-workers. Among the co-workers, speech acts are expressed in a very direct way and without any elaboration. Furthermore, the speech acts of complaints and refusals are frequently reinforced by the use of expletives. Although the mentioned expletive is one of the swear words, Daly et al. (2004) find that the factory co-workers employ it to express positive politeness. Thus, factory workers try to redress the face threats which the speech acts of complaints and refusals involve. In other words, the co-workers want to show solidarity.

In the following lines, an explanation is given for the unequal status used in this study:

2.8.3.1. Student/Teacher Interaction

Every culture has individual norms which suggest the proper classroom behavior and teacher-student interaction (Ariza, Lapp, Rhone & Robison, n.d.). For example, according to Ariza, et al. (n.d.), in the American cultures, directness is preferred, so a teacher without hesitation utters such expressions: "Don't beat around the bush", "Get to the point," and

"The bottom line is…," (p. 4). However, they add, the culture of Asians, Native Americans and many Latin Americans prefer indirect speech. These cultures believe that it is important to save face by not embarrassing others or shaming another person.

The other study is done by Mills (1995), which displays the indirectness of American and directness of Russian teachers. Mills starts her comparative study with extensive observation of American and Russian elementary age children in their daily classroom activities. According to Mills (1995), American teachers appear to employ more indirect classroom strategies such as, "Josh, did you find your seat yet?" (p. 373), versus Russian direct requests like, "Natasha, you will read next." (p. 373).

Rees-Miller (2000) studies the effect of power in an academic context. She observes that professors apply more positive politeness strategies in showing disagreement with the students than do peers disagreeing with each other or students disagreeing with the professors. She adds that, although power is not the only criteria for the professors and students to choose the strategies, it is one of the most important ones to affect the choice.

Spencer-Oatey (1993) explores the effect of power in academic context. According to her study, social relations affect communicative interaction. In her study, she proposes that the assumption of all respondents of different cultures will assess role relations in similar ways and then she explores the validity of this assumption. She considers Chinese and British teachers and students. Her results show that there are significant differences in the conceptions of typical power and distance relations of the teacher/student relationship, and that nationality had a marked effect on this cognition.

Another study which is done on cross-cultural student-teacher interaction is done by Hiraga and Turner (1996). These researchers consider the speech acts of criticism, suggestion and request. A Discourse Completion Task (see section 3.4.) is administered to native speakers of English and Japanese. The results reveal that the British students consider their own face-wants, and the Japanese students care more about the positive face of the teacher. In British context, both for the tutor and students, it is important to attend each other's negative face. Also, students attend their own negative face. In the Japanese

context, neither the tutor nor the students want to attend each other's or their own negative face.

One of the studies which examined the power concept is 'Linguistics of power and politeness in Turkish: Revelations from speech acts' done by Doğançay-Aktuna and Kamışlı (2001, as cited in Boz, n.d.). By using Discourse completion task, they adopt Brown and Levinson's theoretical framework to examine how Turkish people satisfy the face-needs of interlocutors of both higher and lower status. The speech acts which they focus on are correction and disagreement. In the Turkish context, the results suggest that professors are significantly more direct than higher status bosses disagreeing with their assistants. These researchers theorize that this may be due to the fact that correction is considered as a part of the job of the professors (Doğançay-Aktuna & Kamışlı, 2001, as cited in Boz, n.d.). They add that professors do not feel the need to be indirect in giving corrections, whereas in the workplace much more consideration is given to the face-needs of the others.

2.8.3.2. Child/Parent Interaction

There are some societies where family has a very powerful role. For example, Japan (Conlan, 1996) is one such society and many studies have been done concerning the role-relationships of the Japanese. One of those studies (Conlan, 1996) argues that perceptions of role-relationships result from family groupings and Japanese culture includes this perception in a very different way from American society. As the Japanese conception of family is very different, many of the English language learners of Japanese society encounter problems in accomplishing linguistic politeness in English.

Blum-Kulka (1990) introduces three key notions which are combined to form the tone of family politeness. These are power, informality and affect. Power relations between parents and children permit the high level of directness, and the level of informality explains its non-offensiveness. The importance of affect is revealed by the salience of linguistic devices indexing positive affect. In her study, Blum-Kulka observes that Israeli families prefer nicknames and American parents prefer the usage of first names because they pay homage to children's independence.

Laforest (2002) studies the realization of the speech act of complaining. The data for this study are gathered from a corpus of family conversations recorded in Montreal, Canada. The interaction participants display preferential patterns for realization of this speech act in which the criterion, in part, is the intimacy relationships between the family groups. In other words, complaints are uttered without the precautions which are generally associated with FTAs.

2.8.3.3. Employee/Boss Interaction

Although participants in a workplace are believed to accomplish only a set of workplace tasks, they find themselves faced with some relational concerns (Koester, 2004). These relational concerns can be workplace talk and gender or workplace talk and power and social distance. In fact, it is very difficult to study these concepts separately, because these relations have an effect on each other and on the kind of interaction which the participants accomplish to communicate in the workplace (Koester, 2004).

There is an increasing number of women who are playing a traditional male role of authority and leadership in Japanese society today (Takano, 2005). It has been said that these professional women suffer from a sociolinguistic problem. In other words, they do not know whether to interact in culturally prescribed ways of speaking or communicate in a way which displays their powerfulness in the workplace. The use of directive speech acts by nine women are both tape-recorded and observed by Takano (2005). This study accounts for the following as the linguistic solutions for the problem: (1) the strategies which empower the 'gender-preferred' politeness, indirect form of directives; (2) the usage of positive politeness strategies for symmetrical interpersonal relationships and voluntary collaborations; (3) the activation of multiple identities through marked uses of polite language in the immediate context of use. The results of this study show that the relationship between language and context, rather than the power (or powerless) code structure by itself, are the factors which form the linguistic power cognition of the Japanese female professionals.

2.8.4. Ranking of Imposition

As stated before, when H's negative face is threatened, there is an imposition on H, because negative face refers to one's feelings for freedom of imposition (see section 2.7.2.).

In some cases, interaction participants try to make the imposition of the FTA less, for example, if they are friends, students or co-workers. Sometimes they try to put more imposition for the act, for example, if S is a high rank officer in a barrack.

In the Bulgarian language, the discourse marker of *xajde* ('come on/let's/why don't we, ...') expresses four different functions (Tchizmarova, 2005): (1) an initiator of utterances such as requests/orders, advice/suggestions, offers, and so forth; (2) shows leave-taking as a closing; (3) comes with agreements or (4) expressions of surprise. *Xajde* is an effective politeness marker which, this study shows, is used to minimize the imposition of the act. The interaction participants tend to minimize the imposition (Tchizmarova, 2005) of the act to empathy with the people and to focus on the emotions. It also bridges between being rude and being polite.

The social variables cannot be assumed stable in the study of speech acts ("Re-examining the Weight of Imposition", n.d.). The L1 transfer of the Japanese speakers of English in accomplishing the speech act of requests is studied to examine the ranking of imposition ("Re-examining the Weight of Imposition", n.d.). The researcher administrates the Discourse Completion Task (see section 3.4.) to collect data. The results show that researchers should not consider fixed any of the factors of power, social distance or rank of imposition. In this study, the Japanese language learners in comparison with American native speakers are much more concerned with the social distance with a classmate and this affects the strategy which they choose to make a request.

The other study which considers rank of imposition is done by Fukushima (1996). Fukushima administers comparable request situations to British and Japanese speakers who answere in their own native languages. There are two sets of requests: one with high and the other with low imposition on H. The results show that as the degree of imposition

increases, more politeness strategies are employed by both English and Japanese speakers. However, a closer investigation manifests a difference in the strategies chosen by both speakers.

2.9. Gender

There has been a great deal of research done on the subject of gender and language (Beattie, 1981; Connell, 1989; De Klerk, 1992; Erman, 1992; Holmes, 1995; Foster, 1995; Coates, 1996, 1997; Brown, 1998, to name only a few). Moore (n.d.) claims that gender makes a difference. This has been demonstrated by many researchers, such as Tannen (n.d. as cited in Moore, n.d.) and Spolsky (1998). Spolsky (1998) claims that from different aspects, men's and women's languages vary in most societies. The term gender, according to Sunderland (1998), refers to "a culturally-shaped group of attributes and behaviors given to the female or the male" (p. 1).

It is often said that women complain about men's dominance in conversation, and men always say that women never contribute to the conversation and that women are always talking about nothing (Pan, 1998). The differences between men's and women's language exist in different levels of phonology, grammar, lexis or syntax (Trudgill, 2000). However, in this study, discoursal and pragmatic levels are considered.

One of the speech acts which has been studied by many linguists, although without arriving at any general agreement, is making requests (Macaulay, 2001). There are different contexts to explore requests. Among these, Macaulay (2001) prefers topical and political interviews on radio and television. He finds that female interviewers employ more indirect requests for information than male interviewers do. However, as the indirect requests for getting information can function as provocative, the usage of provocative forms constitutes an enabling strategy. On the other hand, male interviewers prefer indirect requests to develop attunements and female interviewers prefer indirect requests to engage their interviewees analytically. Also, female interviewers employ indirect requests to ask tough questions and to control their position as speakers who have the power.

One of the other areas which shows a difference in women's and men's talk is comments of appearance to each other. Positive politeness can be expressed in many ways, one of which is paying compliments (Holmes, 1995). A study (Lauzen & Dozier, 2002) searching for the frequency of the compliments paid in television talk-shows displays the gender-specific difference in this way: male and female characters comment equally on other character's appearance; however, female characters receive those comments two times more than male characters. Also, the gender of the receiver is likely to be a factor on the type of the appearance comment which has been made (Lauzen & Dozier, 2002).

Some other suggestions (Keith & Shuttleworth, n.d. as cited in Moore, n.d.) have been made about the women's and men's language:

- women - talk more than men, talk too much, are more polite, are indecisive/hesitant, complain and nag, ask more questions, support each other, are more co-operative, whereas
- men - swear more, don't talk about emotions, talk about sports more, talk about women and machines in the same way, insult each other frequently, are competitive in conversation, dominate conversation, speak with more authority, give more commands, interrupt more. (p. 1)

As stated before, this study deals with the pragmatic differences of the gender and language. Lakoff (1975, as cited in Moore, n.d.) suggests some of the assumptions about women's language in discourse aspect. Some of those assumptions are pointed here:

- Hedge: using phrases like 'sort of', 'kind of', 'it seems like', and so on.
- Use (super) polite forms: 'Would you mind...', 'I'd appreciate it if...', '...if you don't mind'.
- Use tag questions: 'You're going to dinner, aren't you?'
- Speak in italics: intonational emphasis equal to underlining words - so, very, quite.
- Use direct quotation: men paraphrase more often.
- Use question intonation in declarative statements: women make declarative statements into questions by raising the pitch of their voice at the end of a statement, expressing uncertainty. For example, 'What school do you attend? Eton College?'
- Speak less frequently
- Apologize more: (for instance, 'I'm sorry, but I think that...')
- Avoid coarse language or expletives
- Use indirect commands and requests: (for example, 'My, isn't it cold in here?' really a request to turn the heat on or close a window). (p. 2)

In gender and language studies, there are two very important paradigms which researchers adopt in their studies. The first, *dominance,* is associated with Dale Spender, Pamela Fishman, Don Zimmerman and Candace West, and the second one, *difference,* is associated with Deborah Tannen (Moore, n.d.). Moore adds that dominance theory in mixed-sex conversations means that men are more likely to interrupt women. This theory interprets linguistic differences in women's and men's communicative competence as a reflection of men's dominance and women's subordination (Coates, 1988, as cited in Yarmohammadi, 2003). The second paradigm, difference, is associated with Deborah Tannen (Moore, n.d.). According to Coates (1988, as cited in Yarmohammadi, 2003), the difference approach suggests that, "communication breakdown may occur in mixed interaction because men and women have different expectations of what taking part in a conversation entails, or because they interpret the use of specific features differently" (p. 66).

Tannen (1994) believes that in social interactions two fundamental forces, power and solidarity, are at work. She states that although power and solidarity, and closeness and distance seem opposites, each entails the other. In other words, in Tannen's view, any show of solidarity necessarily involves power and any show of power involves solidarity. She clarifies this with an interesting anecdote:

> I once entitled a lecture "The paradox of Power and Solidarity." The respondent to my talk appeared wearing a three-piece suit and a knapsack on his back. The audience was amused by the association of the suit with the power, the knapsack with solidarity. (...) A professor wearing a knapsack might well mark solidarity with students at, for example, a protest demonstration. And wearing a three-piece suit to the demonstration might mark power by differentiating the wearer from the demonstrators, perhaps even reminding them of his dominant position in the institution hierarchy. (p. 23)

How can these concepts make a difference in mixed-sex interactions? According to Tannen (2000, as cited in Yarmohammadi, 2003), men control their interaction for aspects of power and women monitor theirs for signals of solidarity or intimacy. She notes further that the rules we employ to our own sex does not work across the sex divide. In this way, we use the same language but we are decoding the same interaction in different ways. Here, it is where the conflicts happen. As an example, Tannen (2000, as cited in Yarmohammadi, 2003) explains that men are taught to be competitive and one such strategy is interruption. On the other hand, women have been taught to establish rapport.

When these women and men come together in a mixed-sex interaction, the rule they would use for their own sex are potentially in conflict with each other (Tannen, 2000, as cited in Yamohammadi, 2003).

Compliments are one of the speech acts which are very gender-dependent. Ruhi and Doğan (2001, as cited in Xie, 2002) study the compliments and gender in Turkish society. The authors find that men compliment women more; women compliment other women more than they do men, and men compliment each other as much as women compliment men. It is assumed that all of these may be related to the cultural perceptions which the Turks have about the gender roles.

2.9.1. Who Speaks Here? Interacting Politely

In different contexts, different genders have different perceptions about the polite behavior. Holmes (1995) believes that this subject can be explained by considering the following topics:

2.9.1.1. Who's Asking Questions?

Questions are one of the most important means to generate talks (Holmes, 1995). Although questions are used as an indicator of positive politeness to encourage talk and contributions from others, sometimes they can be challenging and rude as well (Holmes, 1995).

Fishman (1983, as cited in Holmes, 1995) notes that "questions are internationally powerful devices" (p. 39), because they necessitate for another utterance and therefore at least a minimal interaction is ensured. In the conversation between the three heterosexual couples, Fishman (1978, 1983, as cited in Holmes, 1995) finds that women used questions to get their male partners to talk to them. There are many other studies which find comparable results (e.g., Tannen, 1984; West & Garcia, 1988; Defrancisco, 1991, all as cited in Holmes, 1995). However, they claim that women are not often successful in their attempts to make men interact with them.

In intimate contexts, it seems that men are not interested in talking, and they appear not to take into consideration women's attempts (Holmes, 1995). She believes that women can be successful in maintaining the conversation, if they find topics which will interest men, too. However, there is little evidence of mutual cooperation in these mixed-sex interactions.

In formal and public contexts, the results change. Many studies (e.g., Spender, 1979; Holmes, 1988; Bashiruddin et al., 1990, all as cited in Holmes, 1995) display the fact that women ask less questions than men do. It seems that in the status-enhancing context and when the talk is valued, men dominate in talking time (Holmes, 1995).

2.9.1.2. Who's Interrupting?

One of the other strategies which can be used for different purposes is interruptions (Holmes, 1995). Interruptions can display hearer's lack of interest in the other speaker's topic or they may overlap with the speaker's talking to support him/her (Holmes, 1995). There are many studies which indicate that men interrupt women more often than the reverse (e.g., Eakins & Eakins, 1979; Brooks, 1982; West & Zimmerman, 1983; Schick, 1988, all as cited in Holmes, 1995).

This tendency for men to interrupt women continues even when women are of a higher status than men (Holmes, 1995). Holmes (1995) adds that in one American study, male doctors interrupt their patients twice more than patients. West (1984, as cited in Holmes, 1995), on the other hand, finds exactly the opposite to be true. In other words, it is the female doctors who are more interrupted with male patients.

2.9.1.3. Back-Channeling – A Female Speciality?

Back-channels or supportive minimal responses are those forms which encourage the speaker to continue talking, such as *mm, mhm,* and *yeah* (Holmes, 1995). Holmes (1995) adds that these forms signal that the listener is paying attention to the speaker and wants the speaker to continue talking (Holmes, 1995). Holmes believes that both the supportive

interruption and back-channel may have the same function; however, the former involves overlapping the talk, while the latter, if used skillfully, avoids overlapping.

In order to distinguish whether the back-channel is used for positive feedback or for discouraging, intonation and timing should be considered (Zimmerman & West, 1975; Fishman, 1983, both as cited in Holmes, 1995). Sometimes, it is observed that back-channels are used to take the turn of speaking. A study of students' interaction in school discussions shows that girls use more minimal responses than boys in two of the three discussion groups; however, in the third group boys use more back-channels, but they use them for taking the turn to continue the discussion (Jenkins & Cheshire, 1990, as cited in Holmes, 1995).

2.9.1.4. Agreeable and Disagreeable Responses

There is no doubt that the content of the listener's responses to the talk of the speaker is another aspect of politeness behavior (Holmes, 1995). According to Brown and Levinson (1987), agreeing with others, and confirming their opinions is, in fact, supporting them and acts as a sign of positive politeness.

As stated before, interruptions can be supportive in effect. It also refers to another pattern which is women's desire to agree with each other where possible (Holmes, 1995). The results of many studies (e.g., Leet-Pellegrini, 1980; Edelsky, 1981; Coates, 1989, all as cited in Holmes, 1995) show that women, both in single-sex and mixed-sex interactions, display much more of an attempt to adopt the strategy of seeking agreement. A small but very interesting study in New Zealand done by Pilkington (1992, as cited in Holmes, 1995) shows very clearly the difference of genders in this matter. Pilkington records the interactions between a group of women and men working in a bakery. She finds that women are often trying to build on each other's contributions or to complete each other's utterances and as a whole to give an overall impression of talk as a very cooperative enterprise. However, men's responses are very different. There are often long pauses between speakers, where a woman would have been likely to agree or at least respond.

The evidence from the above information indicates that in public settings, men tend to dominate interactions (Holmes, 1995). According to Holmes (1995), men ask more questions, interrupt more often, and generally talk more than women. Furthermore, when men get the floor, they are more likely to challenge and disagree with the speaker (Holmes, 1995). On the other hand, women tend to provide more supportive feedback than men, to agree instead of disagree, and to add to and to build on the contributions of others (Holmes, 1995).

2.9.2. Criticisms and Developments in Gender-Specific Language Studies

A study by O'Barr and Atkins (1980, as cited in Moore, n.d.) challenges Lakoff's view of women's language. They study courtroom cases for 30 months searching for the differences which Lakoff has proposed. The results show that language differences are situation-specific and related to authority or power, rather than being gender-specific. O'Barr and Atkins find that the differences seem to be more as a result not of being a woman but rather of being powerless. In other words, they find that ("Language and Gender", n.d.) what has been termed "women's language" correlated with those who are in positions of relatively low power (i.e., low socioeconomic status, or people with no previous court experience).

Some parts of Lakoff's claim are modified by Holmes (2001, as cited in "Language and Gender", n.d.). Holmes believes that men and women both use tag questions. However, the functions of the tag questions differ; in other words, tag questions can be used to encourage conversation or to display uncertainty ("Language and Gender", n.d.). Based on this belief, Holmes (2001, as cited in "language and Gender", n.d.) concludes that:

- women do not use tags for the same purposes as men
- women put more emphasis than men on the polite functions of the tags, using them as facilitative positive politeness devices.
- men, on the other hand, used more tags for the expression of uncertainty. (p. 6)

The findings of some other studies (Takano, 2005) show that in doing research about the language and gender, in addition to the gender of the participants, the situation of the speech (i.e., in which context or community the speech is accomplished) should be considered, as well (see section 2.8.).

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One of the other studies which emphasizes situation is done by Hobbs (2003). She collects data from voice mail massages in a legal setting, and surprisingly, male attorneys' usage of politeness markers is more or less equal to that of women attorneys. In addition to this, positive politeness strategies are used almost exclusively by male attorneys. The factors which can explain these findings include firstly, the one-sided nature of voice mail communications, secondly, the situation of the data collection (which is a legal setting) and finally, the survey participants (consisting of eleven people, seven of which are the attorneys).

In addition to these studies, in the article of the "Language and Gender" (n.d.), it has been suggested that the use of the concept of 'communities of practice', defined as "an aggregate of people who come together around mutual engagement in an endeavor" (p. 7), should be considered as a proposal for future research.

2.10. Intercultural Discourse

Though the dimensions of the theories suggested in the discipline of pragmatics are universal, different factors which are relative to these theories vary from one culture to another (Holmes, 1995). For example, Sifianou (1992, as cited in Holmes, 1995) notes that the importance of status, solidarity, or weight associated with the formality of the context is not absolute and differs from one culture to another. In some cultures, even in personal interactions, the weight of power is much greater than that of solidarity (Holmes, 1995). According to Ide (1982, 1990, as cited in Holmes, 1995), Japanese speakers pay a great deal of attention to the relative roles and positions of the participants according to the hierarchies.

Correctly identifying what is considered as the polite behavior in a context and culture involves understanding the values of that society (Holmes, 1995). According to Wolfson (1992, as cited in Chick, 1996), what members of a society or cultural group thank or apologize for, or compliment on usually displays the values of that society, because in performing these speech acts, people are implicitly showing the way they assess the behavior, possessions, character, or appearance of others.

In societies like the U.S.A where low D is the emphasis and P is also minimized, symmetrical use of positive politeness and bald on record would be expected (Brown & Levinson, 1987). In the Turkish society, as it is one of the collectivist societies, for almost all Turks, family and the country are at the top of the list (Zeyrek, 2001, as cited in Xie, 2002). Zeyrek (n.d., as cited in Xie, 2002) states that "individuals are expected to place group advantages before personal ones, which actually determines the type of appropriate behavior in linguistic communication" (p. 3). Thus, there will be some differences with the opposite cultures in the realization of the speech acts.

One of the speech acts which imply perceptions on two extremes is advice-giving (Bayraktaroğlu, 2001, as cited in Xie, 2002). Advice-giving is considered as a highly face-threatening in western culture; however, the Turkish people employ it widely to show solidarity (Bayraktaroğlu, 2001, as cited in Xie, 2002).

One of the other studies which show the difference in the strategies employed by Turkish people is done by Doğançay and Kamışlı (1997, as cited in Akıncı, 1999). In their study, they examined the politeness strategies in workplace and academic settings. They found that it is possible to make a generalization about Turkish people's use of negative politeness rather than positive politeness. This means that they pay attention to respect rather than solidarity (Doğançay & Kamışlı, 1997, as cited in Akıncı, 1999).

For an utterance to result in the cooperation of a listener, it must involve the appropriate level of politeness (Dolinina & Cecchetto, 1998). However, they add that in intercultural communication, the speaker often encodes in the message according to the strategies which are valid in his /her culture, whereas the listener expects the strategies which are obligatory in his/her culture. Thus, according to Dolinina and Cecchetto (1998), even if the speaker and listener are formally using the same lingua franca, for example, English in an international context, they are using different politeness systems. They go on to say that a speaker who has not had special training does not know how to use the politeness strategies of the listener, so he puts the listener in an ambiguous position of having to make interpersonal inferences. As a result, three inferences are made by the listener: (1) the speaker is rude and wants to put an end to the communication; (2) the speaker does not considers the listener to be an equal and a respected partner and puts him

in a lower position; (3) the speaker is just an uncivilized person who does not know the elementary rules of the world. As a result of all these unpleasant inferences, the cooperative communication will be in danger. Thus, both the language teachers and the learners should be aware of the pragmatic rules.

2.11. Pragmatics and Language Learners

Learning a language, if it is aimed at enabling one to use that language for a range of social and expressive purposes requires more than learning lists of vocabulary items, syntactic models, and native like pronunciations (Schiffrin, 1996). The ethnographers of communication like Saville-Troike (1996) indicate that language is a system of use whose rules and norms are an inseparable part of a culture. Thus, Schiffrin adds that when one learns a language, he/she should develop his/her communicative competence. It means the language learner acquires the knowledge which governs appropriate use of language in situations of everyday life, in other words, one learns how to engage in conversation, do shopping, be interviewed for a job, pray, joke, tease, argue, or warn and even when to be silent (Schiffrin, 1996).

Apart from teachers, there is a heavy load on the students' part to learn the politeness strategies in the English language. As Dolinina and Cecchetto (1998) state, "English is a far less sensitive language to expression of politeness than most languages of the world, because it has very few grammatical mechanisms to mark diverse politeness relations" (p. 174).

One of the most emphasized sociolinguistics skills is the ability of the language user to perform various speech acts correctly in terms of register and politeness, and to have a good knowledge of how these aspects differ according to social roles and settings (Ranney, 1992).

There is a huge body of literature (e.g., Decapura, 1988, as cited in Cohen, 1996; Fukushima, 1996; Boxer, 1993; Yeung, 1997, to name only a few) which compare the speech act performance of non-native and native speakers of the English language speakers. It is observed that although the typology of speech acts seems to be universal,

their conceptualization and verbalization can vary to a great extent across cultures (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989, as cited in Yarmohammadi, 2003). This implies that non-native speakers can have access to the same range of speech acts like native speakers; however, the strategies that they choose are different. As a result, non-native speakers who want to learn the English language and to be pragmatically competent must be aware of the sociocultural conventions and rules on speech acts of the target culture. For example, Boxer (1993) found that while Americans use indirect complaints as a solidarity strategy, Japanese learners of English avoid this speech act, because it is an FTA in the Japanese language.

2.12. Pragmatics and Language Teachers

Now that we have identified that the focus of language teaching is communicative competence, it is easy to insert interactional sociolinguistics within the curriculum (Schiffrin, 1996). Also, it is important for the teachers to be aware of the individual differences which the students display in the acquisition of the pragmalinguistic features (Takahashi, 2005). According to Takahashi, non-native speakers' pragmalinguistic awareness depends on the motivation of the learners rather than on their proficiency. Here, teachers can provide situations and social events which involve particular utterances that are socially and culturally appropriate (Schiffrin, 1996). For example, if the teacher wants to teach the subject of making requests, he/she could incorporate into the lessons subjects such as the use of the modals, questions, and commands and when, to whom, why and where such forms are appropriate to be used (Schiffrin, 1996).

One of the other useful things which the teacher can do in class is to discuss with the students the possible social meanings of using a form to find whether or not it is appropriate for use in a given context. For example, the speech act can be imperatives, and students can discuss its different forms by performing role-plays. They can act as a boss and employee in a company, and use different directives and indirectives to show which form is appropriate for each person (Schiffrin, 1996). Also, it would be especially useful in EFL classrooms for students to practice and discuss the speech acts from different situations. In other words, students can collect data from different situations, such as films or tape records. Then, the students analyze the situation in terms of identifying the social

status and role of the participants, and the degree to which the act of, for example, requesting imposed on the listener (Schiffrin, 1996). Schiffrin adds that students can also do a contrastive analysis of the collected data to find the similarities or differences which exist between the target and native cultures.

One of the studies that show the importance of the teacher's role in students' acquisition of pragmatic competence is done by Soler (2002). This study divides 24 students into two groups which are instructed to use requests. Group A is randomly assigned to learn this speech act collaboratively and group B to teacher-led interaction on requests. In order to assess the students' awareness about this speech act, all of them are pre-tested and post-tested. Results support the claim that pragmatic knowledge may come out from assisted performance.

Thus, the important role of teachers in students' acquisition of the pragmatic knowledge is revealed. Because of this, the following ways are proposed by Olshtain and Cohen (1991, as cited in Cohen, 1996) which guide the language teachers in teaching the speech acts:

1) Diagnostic assessment is often the first step. Thus, the teacher will determine the students' level of awareness of speech acts. The teacher can do this in oral or written form. For example, the teacher tells the students to imagine that they have bumped into an old lady causing her to drop some packages. Then, the teacher asks which of the following expressions are appropriate to use in that situation: (1) "Forgive me, please." (2) "I'm really sorry. Are you okay?" (3) "Lady, such things happen." (4) "Hey, watch where you're going" (p. 413). If the students choose item 1, it may be a translation from their native language. If they choose item 2, they would be considered that they have recognized the appropriate form to some extent. If they choose item 3 or 4, they may not consider the event as a 'breaking a rule'. Production tasks can also be used. Here it is the students that provide their own utterances and no choices are given to them.

2) The second useful way is to use model dialogues. The students are given a dialogue and they must guess the speech act at first. Then, they will recognize the people speaking in the dialogue in terms of age, social distance or power.

3) The evaluation of a situation is another useful way to reinforce the students' awareness of speech acts. They are given a set of, for example, complaint situations and for

each, they must decide, in pairs or small groups, whether the violation requiring the complaint is mild or severe, whether it is necessary for the complainer to intensify the complaint, whether the hearer is likely to provide a remedy to the complaint and whether a certain situation-specific strategy is called for.

4) Role-play activities enable the students to practice the use of the speech act. The teacher should supply the students with enough information about the situation. For example, they can watch a video clip which shows a neighbor who is playing loud music and the adjacent neighbor needs to go to sleep because he/she must take an exam the next morning. The learners, in role-play fashion, act out the conversation which is expected to take place between these two neighbors.

5) Students give feedback and discuss their expectations and awareness of similarities and differences between speech act behavior in the target language and their native culture. This helps students to learn more about the areas of negative transfer which results in communication failure.

Therefore, as it seems, there are many activities which the foreign language teachers can do. Like any other object, the teachers should be prepared for teaching culture from curriculum to materials. Above all, the language teachers should be aware of the existence of the sociolinguistics transfer

2.13. Sociolinguistic Transfer

A source of intercultural miscommunication is sociolinguistic transfer (Chick, 1996). If the speaker, in interacting with members of another community or group, uses the rules of speaking of his/her own speech community or cultural group, the sociolinguistic transfer happens (Chick, 1996). Chick (1996) explains that this can occur when interlocutors are using a foreign language or second language but employing the rules of speaking of his/her own native language. Chick (1996) adds that the intercultural miscommunication can happen even if interlocutors share the same native language but belong to different speech communities which involve different rules of speaking, for example, misunderstandings may occur between the British and American English speakers. Wolfson (1983, as cited in Chick, 1996) cites the time when former President Carter, during one of his official visits to France, complimented a French official on the fine job he was doing. The next day,

editorial comment in the French press referred to this act as the interference of United States in the internal politics of France. This shows the difference which exists in the distribution and frequency of compliments between the French and American culture.

2.14. Favor Asking

There are four defining features for favor asking proposed by Goldschmidt (1998):

1) Favor asking is a kind of speech act which entails asking for something which is beyond the addressee's daily routines. For example, the speaker may ask for a ride to the airport, and it is presumed that going to the airport is not a habitual act on the part of the addressee.

2) Favor asking involves doing activities requiring some time/effort which should be paid by the addressee and or involves asking for goods belonging to the addressee. For example, the addresser can ask the addressee to take care of his/her child, or the addresser may ask to borrow something-either monetary or sentimental-from the addressee.

3) Favor asking sometimes involves tasks which has no obligation on the part of the addressee to fulfill. It means that when the addresser asks for a favor from an addressee he/she knows that the addressee is not obligated to fulfill the task. For example, a waiter in a restaurant is, according to his job duties, obligated to serve the customers. Hence, when a customer says, "Could you do me a favor and get me a glass of water" (p. 133), it is not an example of favor asking. Often in such situations, the word of the 'favor' is used to show politeness. In fact, there is a kind of expectation on the side of the speaker and obligation on the side of the hearer.

4) Favor asking sometimes involves no role-related obligation on the part of the addressee, but the addresser has an expectation from the hearer to fulfill the task. Also, there is an expectation in terms of 'return' favor. It means that the speaker becomes obligated to the favor for the hearer in the future. Consider the following example (Goldschmidt, 1998):

> A. Hi. It was good seeing you yesterday. We had a great time.
> B. Yeah, it was nice getting out of the house.
> A. Listen, can you do me a favor?
> B. Sure.
> A. Can you pick Sammy up and take her to her lessons because I'm still not supposed to be driving.
> B. No problem. I'll pick her up after school. Just tell her to wait for me.

A. Great. *I owe you* (pp. 133-134).

When the speaker A says 'I owe you', both parts of the interaction will recognize that some time in the future, speaker A should do a favor in return for speaker B (Goldschmidt, 1998).

There are three stages in favor asking and each of them has an important function in this speech act (Goldschmidt, 1998):

1) pre-favor

2) favor

3) response

1) Pre-favor

In order to prepare the addressee for the forthcoming event, the person who will ask for a favor will apply an initiating move to preface the favor itself (Goldschmidt, 1998). Goldschmidt adds that the pre-favor serves to enhance the chances of realization of the act on the part of the hearer. Also, according to Levinson (1983), pre-favor serves important functions in the delivery of the favor, for example, by avoiding an action which may cause the rejection of the favor, or to get permission from the hearer to ask a favor. Typically, the pre-favor, according to Goldschmidt (1998), comes at or near the beginning of the conversation, for example, the addressee, at the beginning of the conversation may say, "Could I ask you a favor?" (p. 136).

2) Favor

At this stage, according to Goldschmidt (1998), one of the interlocutors utters his/her need to the other interlocutor. She adds that it is during this stage that most of the work of speech modification is done. She also believes that for the work of speech modification, as the favor asking is context-dependent, the person who is going to ask for the favor should know all the circumstances around the favor. In other words, according to Goldschmidt (1998), there are three semantic formulas to realize this speech act, that is: (1) just the favor; (2) the favor and a simple expansion; or (3) the favor and the elaborate expansion. She claims that the speaker's judgment about the degree of imposition and his/her

perceived need to establish worthiness in the asking for the favor are the key factors which help the speaker to choose one of the semantic formulas.

3) Response

Here, there are theoretically four possibilities at the stage of response (Goldschmidt, 1998):

> Favor - Speaker (X) asks hearer (Y) to do act (Z).
> Response - Hearer (Y) responds positively to speaker (X), thus will do act (Z).
> Hearer (Y) responds positively to speaker (X), providing that certain conditions are met.
> Hearer (Y) responds negatively to speaker (X), thus will not do act (Z) (p. 138)

At the last stage of the favor asking, the addressee is free to commit or not to commit himself/herself to complying with what is asked of him/her (Goldschmidt, 1998).

Fukushima and Iwata (1987, as cited in Cohen, 1996) study the strategies which Japanese and Americans use to realize this speech act. They find that the sequence of semantic formulae employed by the Japanese and Americans is generally similar: apology → reason→ request. However, Japanese respondents pay more attention to the factor of social distance, whereas American English speaking respondents do not.

Another study which examines the requests strategies is done by Yeung (1997). She took into consideration the factors of social distance, power and imposition to find the differences existed between the English and Chinese language speakers. She finds that the rank of imposition has a statistically significant effect on the choice of the strategies in the English data; however, in the Chinese language, none of the factors show any significant difference.

Yarmohammadi (2003) studies the politeness strategies which British and Persian native speakers of English use when they realize the speech act of favor asking. She administers a discourse completion task questionnaire (see section 3.4.) to 120 male and female participants. She finds that the Persian native speakers use very long utterances in comparing with the British native speakers. Also, Persian native speakers prefer not to ask for a favor as frequently as British native speakers. The other finding of this study is that

Persian native speakers show a difference in employed strategies when they interact with the opposite gender which is not the case with the English native speakers.

With regards to politeness strategies, in Turkish business interactions, requests are characterized by the high frequency employment of indirect speech and avoiding the use of personal involvement (Akar, 2002). However, according to Akar, there might be differences in the ways which the requests are realized in internal communications (e.g., memos) as opposing to external communications (e.g., fax messages).

2.15. Complaining

Complaining has been defined by Olshtain and Weinbach (1993, as cited in Tatsuki, 2000) as a speech act,

> where the speaker (S) expresses displeasure or annoyance-censure-as a reaction to a past or ongoing action, the consequences of which are perceived by S as affecting her unfavorably. This complaint is usually addressed to the hearer (H), whom the S holds, at least partially, responsible for the offensive action. (pp. 1003-4).

Complaints have been classified as particular speech acts with levels of severity and directness (Brown & Levinson, 1987). In addition, complaints are explained as the socially justifiable (if not obligatory) acts in reaction to an act which is socially unacceptable (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Brown and Levinson suggest the concept of 'balance principle' which explains the logic basis for the production of complaints:

> If a breach of face respect occurs, this constitutes a kind of debt that must be made up by positive reparation if the original level of face respect is to be maintained. Reparation should be of an appropriate kind and paid in a degree proportionate to the breach. This principle should follow from the original assumptions of our model in just those circumstances where participants have adequate motives for caring for each other's face. Thus if A does something that damages B's face (or his assets, and thus indirectly his face), B has the right demand reparation for A's act, and a must then provide this in adequate proportion, and B must accept it. For instance, if A treads on B's toe, B has the right to complain, A the obligation to apologize, and b (if the apologies are adequate) the obligation to accept them (p. 236)

One of the ways through which the complaints can be realized is the use of contradictions in which the Quality maxim is violated (Brown & Levinson, 1987). For example, one may say regarding a drunken friend to a telephone caller, "Well, John is here

and he isn't here" (p. 221). The off record strategies of ironies, metaphors, and rhetorical questions can also convey a complaint (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Laforest (2002) defines the complaint as one way of reminding a person that there are certain norms of behavior which must not be transgressed. She also holds that complaint figures threaten positive face want by indicating that the speaker's wishes do not correspond to those of the hearer's. In this sense, disapprovals, criticisms, reprimands, accusations and insults may be uttered. She studies the complaint/complaint-response sequence in everyday conversations between people who are on intimate terms. She finds that there is a relationship between the realization patterns of complaint and the intimacy of the relationships between the interactants: in many ways, the complaints are uttered without the special consideration which is associated with the face threatening acts.

A study done by DeCapura (1988, as cited in Cohen, 1996) aims to find differences between native speakers of German studying in America and American college students. The German students, in order to realize the act of complaining, use a statement of problem and a request or demand for repair. Female respondents use more requests for repair than males and there are more requests for repair in German than in English.

Another study which examines the Japanese and English language is done by Boxer (2002, as cited in Haddington, 2002). She provides an overview on her own work on complaining in conversations between speakers of US English and speakers of Japanese and shows that Japanese speakers use many more backchannel cues than English speakers. This causes some confusion and frustration in the speakers.

According to Olshtain and Weinbach (1993, as cited in Tatsuki, 2000), there is a continuum involving five categories which explains the severity of the complaining: "(1) below the level of reproach, (2) expression of annoyance or disapproval, (3) explicit complaint, (4) accusation and warning, and (5) immediate threat" (p. 1004). They find that although native speakers of English and Hebrew displayed similarity in terms of severity, nonnative speakers of Hebrew are more willing to use strategies which are less severe. They also say that one-third of their respondents opt out from complaining. This can be due to one of the disadvantages of discourse completion task (see section 3.4.), or to the

fact that interlocutors sometimes try to minimize the source of frustration "e.g., A is late. B: Glad you could come. I just got here myself" (p. 1005), or even assume responsibility for another person's socially unacceptable act, for example, "A is late. B: Glad you could come. I'm afraid I didn't give you very good directions." (p. 1005).

Jorgenson (1995) shows that sarcastic irony is typically used to complain or criticize intimates who are hearers of the remarks at most. She studies hearers' reactions to both sarcastic and directly stated remarks which contain comparable content, and also remarks which express *trivial* and *serious* complaints, occurring in same-sex best friends' conversations. The results show that making the speaker appear less rude and unfair, especially when expressing a trivial criticism, the element of humor contributes little to this face- saving.

The speech act of complaining is investigated by Yarmohammadi (2003). She studies the strategies which Persian and British native speakers of English use. Both of the groups use mostly the strategy of NP to realize this speech act. Also, it is the Persian native speakers who made longer utterances.

Another study which focuses on complaints is done by Akıncı (1999). He studies complaints in the Turkish language by administering discourse completion task (see section 3.4.) questionnaire to 100 respondents. He finds that, firstly, there is a distinguishable difference in the employment of politeness strategies according to the degree of social distance. Secondly, it becomes clear that the status or power of the people is not as important as the other factors. Thirdly, the respondents consider the face of the person while complaining to his face. Fourthly, the complaint forms differ according to the context of the conversation. Fifthly, women use less polite forms in complaining and men are more polite or prefer not to talk at all; moreover, men take care of the face of the person they are talking to. Finally, it is the young group who do not complain to the professor and father and, on the other hand, the adult group utter complaints to the director or father by using off record and positive politeness strategies.

2.16. Griping

Longman Dictionary of contemporary English (Bullon, 2001) defines the verb 'gripe' as: to complain about something continuously and in an annoying way, as in "Joe came in griping about how cold it was" (p. 713). As a noun, in informal language, it is referred to as something unimportant that you complain about, for example, "my main gripe was the price of refreshments" (p. 713). Boxer (1993) refers to the griping as the indirect complaints. According to Boxer (1993), an indirect complaint is "the expression of dissatisfaction to an addressee about oneself or someone/something that is not present" (p. 280).

Moreover, Boxer (1993) believes that an indirect complaint can be distinguished from a direct complaint by saying that in an indirect complaint the addressee is neither held responsible nor capable of remedying the perceived offence, as in (Boxer, 1993):
Two male friends:
 A: I'll tell ya. New York is terrible!
 B: It's a zoo. Insane (p. 280).

Although both direct and indirect complaints have the effect of making conversations between the interactants longer, it is only the indirect complaint or the griping which interactants find to be based on the shared beliefs and attitudes of both the participants in the conversation (Boxer, 1993).

Dufon (1995, as cited in Tatsuki, 2000) believes that expressions which convey a complaint but function to increase solidarity through commiseration about impersonal frustrations, such as 'the weather' might be better labeled as 'griping' rather than complaining.

According to Boxer (1993), the earliest study on griping is carried out by Katriel in 1985 that looks at Israeli griping rituals. Boxer (1993) says that in her research carried out in 1991, she demonstrats that griping does not always function as rapport-inspiring speech interactions. In her study, 10 native English-speaking data raters examine the griping of the interactants and the results show that approximately 25% of the griping sequences serve to distance the interlocutors from each other. However, 75% of the griping function as

rapport-inspiring. This study reveals that native English speakers use griping to establish solidarity. Also, one other interesting finding of this study is that this type of negotiation, which brings more solidarity and closeness between the interlocutors, is heavily employed by women in the native speaker study.

Boxer (1993) carries out a cross-cultural study to find the differences between the responses which American English speakers and Japanese learners of English give to griping. She finds salient differences in the responses. The Japanese do not respond to griping as much as Americans and this may be related to the Japanese and American interlocutors' perception about talk. Yamada (1989, as cited in Boxer, 1993) explains that Americans have a positive orientation towards talk and Japanese are exactly the opposite. In other words, American people consider talking as a way of solving the problems while Japanese consider talking as a problem-maker itself. Thus, Japanese, by making the amount of talking less and less, attempt to avoid performing face-threatening acts. Boxer (1993) concludes that because of this inclination of Japanese, it may be very difficult for Japanese learners of English to establish fertile ground for interaction.

The speech act of griping is studied by Yarmohammadi (2003). She finds that Persian native speakers employ longer utterances than the British native speakers do. The significant difference is that the frequency of the Off-record strategy increases. Both the Persian and English native speakers employ more Off-record strategies to realize the speech act of griping. Also, the Persian native speakers show differences when they interact with the opposite gender; however, this is not the case with the English native speakers.

2.17. Conclusion

As the citations of the studies mentioned in the literature review shows, most studies have been done in the last 25 years. This indicates that the subject of politeness is a newly discovered area. However, there are some basic theories on which these recent studies are based. The speech act theory which was introduced in 1930s assists the current researchers with their politeness studies. Like any other discipline, the results of various politeness studies show differences and similarities. For example, it seems that the different results of

the studies related to the subject of language and gender persist. However, different cross-cultural studies reveal the fact that sociolinguistic transfer exists among the native and non-native speakers and more studies are needed to highlight the problematic areas.

CHAPTER 3

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

In this chapter, the nature of this study and the methodology adopted to answer the questions of this study are explained. It proceeds with the participants who were involved in this survey, the instruments developed, and finally the data collection and analysis procedures.

This study is a replication of a study which was carried out by Yarmohammadi (2003) in Iran. She compared the politeness strategies employed by the Persian native speakers of English as a foreign language, British English native speakers, and Persian native speakers.

In this study, the politeness strategies employed by American native speakers of English, Turkish native speakers of Turkish, and Turkish EFL teachers were compared in order to see whether or not there are differences among the groups regarding their choice of strategies to realize the speech acts of favor asking, complaining and griping. In addition, the factors of social distance, power, imposition and gender are included in this study to see their effect on the speaker's selection of the politeness strategies.

3.2. Nature of the Study

One of the most commonly used descriptive methods in educational research is the survey (Cohen & Manion, 1994). According to Cohen and Manion, a survey helps the researcher to gather data at a particular point in time to describe "the nature of existing conditions, or identifying standards against which existing conditions can be compared, or determining the relationships that exist between specific events" (p. 83). In order to describe these standards and conditions, a survey is conducted. A survey, according to

Kane (1984, as cited in Varlı, 2001), is a descriptive method "to find out what is happening or what has happened. This involves describing attitudes, behaviors, or conditions, and is called descriptive research" (p. 107).

The existing condition in this study is the linguistic competence and performance of the EFL group, and this study tries to describe the behaviors and strategies of three different groups. The motive of the researcher to examine this issue is her curiosity about the knowledge of the EFL group regarding the politeness strategies of the target culture. Based on the researcher's personal contacts with native speakers of English, weaknesses in the communication have been noted. The researcher, like many other EFL learners, hesitates when choosing the correct grammar and strategies which can be used according to the speech situation. Thus, it was determined that a survey was appropriate to examine the knowledge of the Turkish EFL learners regarding politeness strategies in the English language, and then to identify what politeness strategies the native speakers of English employ. Thus, the standards of politeness strategies of native speakers of English were investigated and these were compared with the existing conditions of the EFL group. Therefore, in order to describe these conditions, this study focused on these areas:

1) The different strategies which NSE, EFL and NST males and females employ for realizing the speech acts of FAL, FAH, GR, and CM in their interactions with males and females;

2) The possibility of FAL and GR being less face threatening, or more specifically, less imposing than FAH and CM and;

3) The perceived degree of imposition of the speech acts involved in the study and its relation with the social status (power) of the interlocutors.

In order to investigate the above-mentioned areas, this study used both qualitative and quantitative methods. The most important characteristic of the qualitative method is to investigate the subject of the study through the eyes of the survey participants (Ekiz, 2003). Ekiz adds that the other characteristic is to define the subject, data, and location of the study comprehensively. In addition, the qualitative method helps the researcher to examine the behavior of the survey participants (Ekiz, 2003). Ekiz adds that one of the other important characteristics of this method is that it is not reliant upon the numbers and frequencies, and it is not used for supporting or rejecting hypotheses. The application of

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the written discourse completion task (see section 3.4.) made it possible for the researcher to help the survey participants imagine themselves in the situations in which the politeness strategies can be used, so the researcher was able to study the politeness subject through the eyes of the native speakers and to study the behavior of the survey participants. As Ekiz (2003) notes, qualitative method helps the researcher to analyze the data in a detailed way to reach a result inductively. In addition, Erickson (1986, as cited in Ekiz, 2003) refers to the qualitative methods as 'interpretative'. Therefore, the utterances of the survey participants were used to reach a result inductively and 'interpret' the strategies which they exhibited in the realization of the speech acts.

As stated earlier in the section of the research questions (see section 1.7.1.), there are 25 hypotheses involved in this study. In order to test these hypotheses, a table of frequencies was used. In other words, the quantitative method is applied. As Ekiz (2003) states, the most significant principle of the quantitative method is to express data with numerical values and to test hypotheses. The quantitative method is based on the paradigms of the positivism and realism (Ekiz, 2003). According to Ekiz (2003), the positivism paradigm considers the reality and knowledge as right or wrong and posits that there is no choice between these two. Realism suggests that in order to create knowledge, reality should be analyzed in an objective way (Ekiz, 2003). This study attempted to analyze the politeness strategies using both quantitative and qualitative methods. To accomplish this, the responses taken from questionnaires were used to do both kinds of analysis. The questionnaires were applied to different participants as explained in the following paragraphs.

3.3. Participants

The participants in this study included 70 volunteers representing three cultural/linguistic backgrounds: American native speakers of English (NSE), Turkish lecturers of English (EFL), and Turkish monolingual speakers of Turkish (NST). Each group was further divided into male and female. The total number of each sub-group together with their mean and range of age are displayed in Table 2, as follows:

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Table: 2

Group's Number, Mean, and Range of Age

Groups	Number	Mean	Range
NSE Male	5	31	20-37
NSE Female	13	33.7	24-56
EFL Male	6	33.3	24-42
EFL Female	17	35.5	23-55
NST Male	14	31	24-63
NST Female	15	29.3	26-48

First of all, it should be said that all of the members of the groups are academicians who are teaching in different Turkish and American universities. The NSE group consists of lecturers in different departments of the universities. The EFL teachers are lecturers who are teaching in different departments related to English language. The NST group consists of lecturers who are lecturers in different departments, in other words, they are not teaching the English language.

The reasons for choosing the academicians as the population are: (1) there is more ease to get access to them for data collection, that is, to use e-mails for sending and receiving questionnaires; and (2) as the politeness matter is a very sensitive matter, there would be extremes if it were supposed to be studied in different professions existing in the society. Academicians are assumed not to form such disparate extremes, as they are all educated individuals.

3.3.1. Sample Selection

Sample selection is one of the most challenging stages of conducting a survey. According to Cohen and Manion (1994), as it is not always possible and practical to collect data from a population, the researcher tries to collect information from a smaller group in such a way that the gained knowledge represents the total population. Cohen and Manion (1994) call this smaller group a 'sample'. There are two types of samples:

Table: 3

Two Methods of Sampling

Probability	Non-Probability
Simple random sampling	Convenience sampling
Systematic sampling	Quota sampling
Stratified sampling	Purposive sampling
Cluster sampling	Dimensional sampling
Stage sampling	Snowball sampling

Source: Cohen & Manion, 1994

Probability sampling explains that "the probability of selection of each respondent is known" (p. 87). However, non-probability sampling refers to the non-probability of the samples "in which the probability of selection is unknown" (p. 87). In this study, the selection of the faculties and the lecturers was made in line with the rules of the random sampling. Simple random sampling, according to Cohen and Manion (1994), means "each member of the population under study has an equal chance of being selected" (p. 87). There are many scholars (e.g., Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1992; Fink, 1995b; Schofield, 1996, all as cited in Varlı, 2001) who support the application of probability sample selection to select the sample group of the survey studies. They believe that Probability sampling, "allows the researcher to say statistically that a sample is representative of the population, and allows every member of the population a probability of being included in the sample. This sampling procedure implies the use of random selection that eliminates the problem of bias in sample selection" (p. 115).

3.3.2. Selection of the NSE Group

For the NSE group, since there are more members from the American community as compared with other English-speaking communities residing or working in Turkey, it was decided for ease of access, to include members of this community to serve as the NSE group. The American lecturers working in Turkey were informed to participate in the study through a call in the regional meeting of the American lecturers. Apart from this, an e-mail was sent to a widely known website, namely, www.ESLcafe.com. Also, a copy of the

questionnaire was sent to Florida Atlantic University, as there was an ease of access to the lecturers there.

Altogether, the educational background of the NSE ranged from MA diploma to PhD. They all reported that their first language is English and that the language spoken at home is English as well.

3.3.3. Selection of the EFL Group

In order to choose the EFL group, among 52 state universities, the first 10 universities with the highest number of the staff were selected. The underlying motivation is to have a larger number of survey people to send the questionnaire to. Then, from each university, a faculty was selected randomly and then, from each faculty, a department was randomly selected. As it is the English Language teachers who teach the English language and are responsible to some degree for the pragmatic competence of the students, only the departments related to the English language were included in the sample selection. The educational background of the EFL ranged from BA to PhD degrees. They all reported that their first language is Turkish and the language spoken at home is Turkish as well.

There were ten universities six of which responded to the survey:

Anadolu University (English Language Teaching Department);

Atatürk University (English Language and Literature Department);

Çukurova University (Foreign Language Teaching Department);

Hacettepe University (Department of Linguistics);

Middle East Technical University (Department of Basic English and Department of Modern Languages);

Karadeniz Technical University (School of Foreign Languages).

3.3.4. Selection of the NST Group

The procedure for selecting the NST group was the same as for the EFL group. The same universities which were selected for the EFL group were considered. Then, by

random sampling, the faculties and departments were selected. Except for those related to the English Language, all the departments were included in sample selection.

The universities and departments which responded to this survey were:

Anadolu University (The program of Teaching Certificate);

Çukurova University (Department of Food Engineering) and

Karadeniz Technical University (Departments of Forestry Industrial Engineering).

As stated earlier, from each university a faculty and a department were selected. However, because the required number of the respondents was not obtained, three other sample selections from Karadeniz Technical University were done. The departments of Biology, Civil Engineering and Landscape Design Engineering, respectively, were involved in the study. All of these departments participated in this survey.

3.4. Instrumentation

One of the most significant dilemmas in sociolinguistic research area is to find the best method to collect data (Kasper & Dahl, 1991, as cited in Billmyer & Varghese, 2000). Johnson, Kasper and Ross (1998) state that such concerns are particularly important when the collected material is inherently context-sensitive. Manes and Wolfson (1981, as cited in Billmyer & Varghese, 2000) claim that the most authentic data in sociolinguistic research is spontaneous speech gathered by ethnographic observation; however, difficulties in relying on this method are well-documented (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989; Aston 1995, as cited in Billmyer & Varghese, 2000). According to Billmyer and Varghese (2000), these difficulties in data collection have led to the wide use of an elicitation procedure known as the Written Discourse Completion Task (WDCT), which is abbreviated as DCT.

The DCT is essentially a questionnaire containing a set of situations designed to elicit a particular speech act. Subjects read the situations and respond in writing to a prompt. For example, the second question of the questionnaire included in this survey for the speech act of favor asking is seen below:

No.2: You are a student and it's towards the end of the semester and exams are approaching. You have taken a course on mathematics, which has been very difficult for you. You feel that you need to have extra hours of instruction otherwise you'll fail. You think of asking help from one of your classmates who is good at math but you are not very close with.
What would you say to her/him if anything at all?

There are many studies (some of which are discussed subsequently) which administered Discourse Completion Task (henceforth DCT) questionnaires, either to examine the realization of the speech acts by native and non-native speakers of English or to study the validity of the DCTs.

DCT enables the researcher to test hypotheses which cannot be examined by the natural conversations (Cohen, 1996). For example, consider a study in which the researcher wants to do a cross-cultural study to find the differences which exist between American and Japanese in the rejection of advice (Cohen, 1996). Some of the hypotheses cannot be tested by naturally collected conversation, for example, the hypothesis of the "nonnative speakers made a greater use of unacceptable content in their rejections" (p. 393).

Beebe and Takahashi (1989b, as cited in Cohen, 1996) conduct a study to assess the differences which occur between the Japanese and Americans in disagreements and the provision of embarrassing information. They administer both the naturally occurring data and DCTs. They find that the results of their study are biased toward the linguistic preferences of the friends, relatives and associates, because they are the people with whom they tend to interact. They also find another bias. The researchers prefer the shorter exchanges, because they are not able to record the long exchanges in their notebooks during the recording stage of the natural conversation (Beebe & Takahashi, 1989b, as cited in Cohen, 1996). Finally, the researchers realize that they have a tendency to record those utterances which are atypical or nonnative-sounding because they stand out from more routine utterances.

Another study which examines the usefulness of discourse completion tasks is done by Beebe and Cumming (in press, as cited in Cohen, 1996). They compare refusals in both spontaneous speech and DCTs. They find that the application of DCT enables them to gather a large amount of data quickly. However, the DCT does not elicit natural speech

with respect to actual wording, length of utterances or number of conversational turns which are necessary to fulfill a function. In other words, the respondents use fewer words, sentences, and turns in DCT than in spontaneous speech.

A study done by Hartford and Bardovi (1992, as cited in Cohen, 1996) highlights the disadvantages which the DCTs have. They find that the DCT elicits fewer status-preserving strategies, narrower range of semantic formulas, and none of the extended negotiations which happen between the interlocutors. They explain that the DCT does not show turn taking and negotiations which are found in the course of natural conversation. In addition, they assert that DCT indicates that the respondents are less polite because of the absence of the face-to-face interaction. Another disadvantage of the DCT illustrated in this study is that the respondents in DCT have the choice to opt out, which is not the case in the natural data.

The DCTs have been exposed to modifications for several times by different researchers (Beebe et al., 1990, as cited in Nelson, Carson, Al Batal & El Bakary, 2002; Billmyer & Varghese, 2000). Researchers realize that it is almost impossible to collect naturally occurring data; therefore, it is better to modify the DCT in a way to make it more appropriate for collecting data and more comparable to the natural occurring data.

Billmyer and Varghese (2000) try to improve the traditional DCT by enhancing the details which are presented in the speech situation. They mention that in order to make the DCTs more similar to face-to-face spontaneous interactions, they try to enrich the situation involved in the questionnaire. Thus, the situations would stimulate more elaborations in support of respondents' communication goals. Then, they conduct a research to find out what effects the elaborated version of the DCT has on the results. They study the request act made by native and non-native speakers of English. They find that the mean length of the entire request act prompted by the elaborated version is two or three times greater than the mean length of the request act which has been prompted by the traditional version. Billmyer and Varghese (2000) add different contextual variables such as gender, social distance, role relationships, imposition, setting and scene (time, place), and length of acquaintanceship. In order to make clear the difference between two versions of the DCT, an example is given (Billmyer & Varghese, 2000):

The traditional version: "You missed class and need to borrow a friend's notes. What would you say?" (p. 548), and the elaborated version:

> You are at the end of a history class and you are sitting next to Tom Yates. You missed last week's class and need to borrow his notes. He has been in the same program as you for one year and you see him about once a month in a group. You will also be taking classes together in the future. He is a good note taker and one of the best students in the class. You have borrowed his notes twice before for the same class and the last time you borrowed them he was reluctant to give them up. In two weeks, you both have the final exam for your class. What would you say? (p. 548)

Based on the modifications introduced by Billmyer and Varghese (2000), it is clear that the instrument of the DCT is greatly improved. Also, there are advantages which are put forth by the researchers mentioned above. Moreover, as Billmyer and Varghese (2000) state, "there are to date no other sociolinguistic data collection instruments that have as many administrative advantages as the DCT, making it practically speaking" (p. 517). This study resembles other studies which investigate speech acts and use DCTs. Therefore, by considering all of the advantages suggested for DCT, it was decided to adopt Billmyer and Varghese's method of data-collection in this study.

3.4.1. Speech Situations and Speech Acts of the Study

There are twenty four speech situations and three speech acts (Favor asking, Complaining, and Griping) involved in this study. Favor asking involves one or more of the following (Goldschmidt, 1998): (1) asks for something 'outside' of the addressee's daily routine, (2) does activities that require some time and/or effort on the part of the addressee, or involves a good belonging to the addressee, (3) entails no role-related obligation on the part of the addressee to fulfill the task, and (4) implies the notion of reciprocity in terms of a return favor (see section 2.14.).

Further, the speech act of favor asking was classified into two levels of 'high' and 'low'. These two concepts have been adopted from Yarmohammadi's (2003) research which in turn she derived from Brown and Levinson's (1987) concept of 'imposition'. They state that:

> There are probably two such scales or ranks that are emically identifiable for negative- face FTAs: a ranking of imposition in proportion to the expenditure (a) of

services (including the provision of time) and (b) of goods (including non-material goods like information, as well as the expression of regard and other face payments). (p. 77)

In this respect, based on the above-mentioned explanations, the researcher together with an American Native speaker classified those acts that involved relatively less expenditures of services or goods as 'low', that is, FAL, and those requiring much more amount of expenditures of services or good as 'high', that is, FAH. The researcher did this in order to ensure that the criteria for classifying the speech act of favor asking into 'low' and 'high' are the same for both the American and Turkish cultures. For example, the act of asking for a student's notes was decided as FAL for both the American and Turkish groups.

The speech acts of complaining and griping have been defined by Boxer (1993). She explains that complaining refers to an act which is uttered when the hearer is responsible for the unaccepted act or the hearer is at least able to remedy the perceived offence. On the other hand, griping refers to an expression of dissatisfaction to an addressee about oneself or someone/something which is not present. For example, in the question No.7 of this study, the speaker is griping and not complaining to his co-worker, because the electric company is not present and at the same time the co-worker is not responsible for the unpleasant act, that is, the electricity being cut off.

3.4.2. Constructing the WDCT

In this study, a DCT consisting of twenty four situations based on the Billmyer and Varghese's (2000) proposed paradigm was constructed. The contextual cues which were included in this study are: social distance, power, imposition, and gender of interlocutor.

In the questionnaire of this study, the concept of social distance has been introduced to the respondents in speech situations through explanations such as:

Question No. 1: *She/he has been in the same program as you for a year and you see her/him socially about once in a month in a group. You will also be taking classes together in the future.*

Question No. 4: *A student from your program with whom you are not close borrowed your scientific calculator for a mathematics exam last week.*

Question No. 14: *It just occurs to you that another instructor of yours with whom you haven't had any interactions since you passed her/his course with an A might be willing to help you.*

The concept of power and ranking of imposition has been introduced by using six different scenarios of equal and unequal social status. The same status involved student/student (ST/ST), friend/friend (FR/FR), and co-worker/co-worker (CO/CO), respectively. The high status combinations were student/professor (ST/PR), child/parent (CH/PA), employee/boss (EM/BO), respectively. It is necessary to state that these unequal status situations were chosen because according to Spencer-Oatey's (1996) claim, these are the most used ones in different studies.

In order ensure that all of the situations are applicable for both cultures, the researcher worked with an American native speaker as a representative for NSE and her supervisor as an EFL teacher. In order to make it easier for respondents to imagine themselves easily in the situations, the natural settings which one may experience in real life were used. For example, for ST/ST and ST/PR, the university environment was used; for CO/CO and EM/BO, the workplace environment was used; for CH/PA relationships, home environment; and for FR/FR, home or outdoors were used.

Of note is that the questions No. 3, 7, 8 and 19 involved in the questionnaire of this study have been prepared by the researcher and the other questions have been adopted from the study done by Yarmohammadi (2003). Also, the 5th question of the study has been changed partially to make it more suitable for the Turkish norms.

On the first page of the questionnaire, the respondents were given the necessary information, such as the time they were expected to fill out the questionnaire, the statement of confidentiality and the instructions which were necessary for completing the questionnaire. Also, a few background questions such as respondents' age, gender, first language, the language spoken at home, and the school in which they are teaching were asked.

In the section of instructions, the respondents were asked to read each situation, imagine themselves interacting with someone of the same gender and then write the

answer in the provided space. Then, the respondents were asked to choose one of the options in each scale labeled as 'not difficult', 'moderately difficult' and 'very difficult' to express how imposed they feel themselves to realize that speech act. Next, they were asked to do the same thing, this time by imagining of themselves interacting with someone from the opposite gender. They were also told that by stating their reasons, they could opt out of a situation. Hence, it would not risk the reliability of the responses, that is, the respondents would not choose to opt out frequently. The other advantage of the provision of reasons is that a deeper insight into their cultural norms is gained and that it encourages self-reflection. The respondents were given a 10-15 day deadline to fill out the questionnaire. They were also notified that it was not necessary to fill out the questionnaire in one sitting. This was done to make the responses more reliable, especially the responses to the questions towards the end of the survey.

As most of the questionnaires were responded through electronic mail, there were two kinds of questionnaires designed for all of the three groups of samples. More response space was provided for the postal questionnaires. In order to enable those respondents responding through e-mail to mark in the boxes for indicating the degree of imposition, the boxes were designed in such a way that the respondents can easily mark in the boxes.

The summary of the WDCT is given in Table 4, and the complete ones are found in Appendices No. 4 and 5.

Table: 4

Summary of the DCT (Written Discourse Completion Task)

Situation	Speech Act	S's and H's Roles	Aim of Speech Act
1	FAL	ST/ST	Borrowing notes
2	FAH	ST/ST	Help in one's studies
3	GR	ST/ST	Food in dining hall
4	CM	ST/ST	Irreparable calculator
5	FAL	FR/FR	Use the phone
6	FAH	FR/FR	Buy a cake
7	GR	FR/FR	Electricity cut-off
8	CM	FR/FR	Damaged book
9	FAL	CO/CO	Make tea
10	FAH	CO/CO	Deliver a package
11	GR	CO/CO	Central heating
12	CM	CO/CO	Not attending to work
13	FAL	ST/PR	Press the elevator button
14	FAH	ST/PR	Ask the question
15	GR	ST/PR	Make ends meet
16	CM	ST/PR	Heavy workload
17	FAL	CH/PA	Go to dry-cleaner's
18	FAH	CH/PA	Give a ride
19	GR	CH/PA	Share the bedroom
20	CM	CH/PA	Room arrangement
21	FAL	EM/BO	Provision of information
22	FAH	EM/BO	Overlook regulations
23	GR	EM/BO	Messy office
24	CM	EM/BO	Unfair layoff

3.4.3. Translating the DCT

As one of the groups (i.e., NST) of the samples of this study was native speakers of Turkish who are not English teachers, a Turkish version of the questionnaire was required. The English version of the questionnaire was translated into Turkish by the researcher,

who attempted to translate the speech situations from English to Turkish as closely as possible.

It is known that the Turkish language is a language which has both the plural and singular form of pronoun 'you'. In the Turkish version of the questionnaire, the singular form of 'you' is preferred to construct a kind of solidarity between the writer (researcher) and the reader (respondent) of the questionnaire. As Bates (2003) suggests, it is very important to "establish the reader's identity as the writer's friend" (p. 658), and to use linguistic politeness strategies in a way that enables the writer "to build feelings of solidarity of the reader towards the writer" (p. 658).

3.4.4. The Pilot Work

The pilot study of the questionnaire was conducted with three NSE, four EFL, and five NST teachers who were not included in the main study. They were asked to report any problems which they faced with the wording or design of the questionnaire. One of the most problematic situations was question No.21 which was misunderstood by almost all of the respondents. It was understood that more detailed information should be given, so the respondents would understand the speech situation correctly.

The other problem was with the table providing information about the relationship between the speaker and hearer. In fact, this table was given to the respondent to make the visualization of the scenarios easier for him/her. However, as the information for all of the situations was given at the first page, it was difficult for the respondent to go back to the first page, for example, at question No. 19 and check the information. Therefore, this table was divided into four parts being at the beginning of each set of questions. Again, note that each set of questions represents a set of speech acts incorporating FAL, FAH, GR and CM.

Another change which was made as a result of the pilot study related to the cultural issues. Although the questionnaires prepared for NSE and EFL groups were both in English, there was a slight difference between the two. This difference was suggested to be done by the NSE who piloted the questionnaire. For example, in question No. 9, for the NSE group it was said, "You are desperate for a cup of *coffee*", and for the EFL group it

was said, "You are desperate for a cup of *tea*". It is important here to consider the cultural differences, so to make the process of imagination easier for the respondents.

3.5. Procedures

Three main procedures were involved in this study. These are data collection, coding scheme and data analysis.

3.5.1. Data Collection

The data for the NSE group were gathered from three different resources: (1) in a regional meeting, American lecturers working in Turkey were contacted through a colleague working in the researcher's institution. They were asked whether they would participate in the study. A copy of the questionnaire was emailed to those who volunteered to participate in this study; (2) an email was sent to a well-known website of the language teachers, www.ESLcafe.com, asking for American teachers interested in politeness studies. A copy of the questionnaire was sent to the volunteers, and (3) a copy of the questionnaire was sent to Florida Atlantic University. All of the respondents in this group claimed that they are native speakers of American English.

For the EFL group, as stated earlier, ten universities were selected and from those universities, all of the departments related to the English language were included in this study. For example, as the Middle East Technical University includes the departments of the 'Foreign Language Education', 'Department of Basic English' and 'Department of Modern Languages', all of these departments were included in the sample selection.

Similarly, for the NST group, the same ten universities were used. As stated earlier, a faculty from each university and a department from each faculty were selected for this study. It should be noted that four departments were selected from Karadeniz Technical University.

Most of the social studies, according to Cohen and Manion (1994), require the consent and co-operation of people who are aimed to be involved in the investigation and the

permission of the administration of the institutions or organizations. Informed consent has been defined by Diener and Crandall (1978, as cited in Cohen & Manion, 1994) as "the procedures in which individuals choose whether to participate in an investigation after being informed of the facts that would be likely to influence their decisions"(p. 350). In line with this, a telephone call was made by the research supervisor to the heads of the departments-both the EFL and the NST group-to get permission for the administration of the questionnaire to their lecturers. As Bell (1987, as cited in Cohen & Manion, 1994) advises, a written permission should also be obtained. Thus, a written request for permission was sent to the heads of the departments which had declared their agreement in the oral permission. The mentioned written permission was issued by the Social Sciences Institute of Karadeniz Technical University.

In order to increase the return rate, reminders were sent to the survey participants. They were told that if they happened to encounter any problem during filling out the questionnaire, they were always welcome to contact the researcher.

3.5.1.1. Problems with Data Collection

Choosing academicians as the sample of the study provided the ease of sending questionnaires using e-mail. However, the researcher was confronted with other problems related to internet service. The first one was that at the time of sending the questionnaires, the main internet cable of Turkish Tele-communication company was cut off, so it was impossible to send questionnaires.

The questionnaires were sent during the winter holiday of the universities so that academicians would have more free time for filling out the questionnaires. However, the web pages of most of the universities involved in the study were either under construction or about to be reconstructed. This made it impossible for the researcher to send the questionnaire for almost 2 weeks. On the other hand, not all of the e-mail addresses of the academicians were included in the web pages of their universities, so it was very difficult to contact them. This problem reduced sample size.

Another important problem was the use of 'sen' in the Turkish version of the DCT. 'Sen' is the equivalent for the second person singular 'you' in Turkish. The aim of using the second person singular was to create a rapport between the writer and reader (i.e., the participants) of the questionnaire; however, some members of the sample considered this very rude and refused to respond the questionnaire.

The most important problem of data collection was the length of the questionnaire. There were 24 speech situations and this made the questionnaire very long. These speech situations, as Billmyer and Varghese (2000) proposed, were written in details to make the imagination of the scenarios easier for the respondent; however, it demanded more of the respondent's time. Therefore, although the respondents in the pilot study claimed that it took 30-40 minutes to fill out the questionnaire, most of the sample did not respond. This made it difficult for the researcher to collect the responded questionnaires during the pre-planned period.

3.5.2. Coding Scheme

As the theoretical framework of this study is based on politeness strategies proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987), the coding scheme used in this study is in line with the criteria which they suggested. They put forth five super strategies of 'Bald on record (BO), Positive politeness (PP), Negative politeness (NP), Off record (OR), and not doing the act (NA)'. According to the minor strategies used in the responses, the super strategies were subsumed. It is useful to say that OR has 15, NP has 10, PP has 15 minor strategies, and BO and NA include no minor strategies (see sections 2.7.4. to 2.7.8.).

Imposition existing in the speech acts was calculated on a scale from 1 to 3, as the respondents rated the imposition. The tick of *not difficult* was considered as '1', *moderately difficult* as '2', and the *very difficult* as the '3'. The reason for choosing a three-level scale was to make the responses given to this section as distinct as possible. Moreover, in the pilot study, the given responses to these scale showed that the three-level scale gives the requisite data for the investigation of the rank of imposition.

In order to be sure about the consistency of the ratings, an intra-coder reliability test was carried out. The questionnaires were read twice by the researcher with a time interval of 20 days. The SPSS program was used to compare the total number of the strategies which was calculated during the first and second rating process of the questionnaires. In other words, the total number of each respondent's employed strategies was calculated. Then, in a 20-day time interval, the questionnaires were rated for a second time and then, by using the SPSS program, the correlation between these two numbers was calculated. Intra-coder reliability coefficient for the NST's questionnaire was found to be 0.89, for the EFL's, 0.91, and for the NSE's, 0.96. In order to cope with the discrepancies, the researcher recoded data to make the ratings consistent.

3.5.3. Data Analysis

Given that the frequency of the politeness strategies was studied, the collected data were of nominal type. Nominal data, according to Hatch and Lazaraton (1991), are facts that "can be sorted into categories such as L1 background (sorted into Mandarin, Farsi, Korean, etc.), sex (sorted as male, female) or ESL course level (sorted as beginning, intermediate, advanced)" (p. 393). They state that nominal data are measured as frequencies. It should be borne in mind that because the data gathered in this study were of the nominal type, as Hinton (1995) suggests, the data for all questions were analyzed using the 'Chi-Square' statistic, as it was considered to be the most appropriate test for nominal data.

Hatch and Lazaraton (1991) suggest that the first step in utilizing the Chi-Square test is to prepare a frequency chart. As there was more than one strategy employed by the respondents, there were more than one data in some cells of the tables. This made it impossible to employ the SPSS program to calculate the frequencies. Therefore, the researcher counted all of the strategies employed by the survey participants and prepared the chart of frequencies.

The critical level is customarily taken to be 0.05 in behavioral science research (McCall, 1994). Therefore, in this study, the same probability value was selected to determine whether the null hypotheses should be accepted or rejected. Then by considering

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the formula, the expected frequency, f_e, and Chi-Square statistic were calculated. If the obtained Chi-Square test statistic was greater or equal to the critical value, the null hypothesis was rejected, but if the observed Chi-Square was less than the critical value, the null hypothesis was supported (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991).

Analyses of the hypotheses No. 1 – 16

The Chi-Square test was employed to test the first sixteen null hypotheses. Next, within the same analyses, the results were analyzed further to find out the frequency of strategies employed by each group to understand which group uses significantly more strategies and which group uses fewer strategies. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), the order of the politeness strategies from the least polite to the most polite is:

– Polite				+Polite
1. BR	2. PP	3.NP	4. OR	5. NA

Fig. 2

The Continuum of the Politeness in Brown and Levinson's (1987) Model

Source: Yarmohammadi, 2003

Brown and Levinson (1987) claim that when the risk of 'face loss' is greater, the speaker will employ the higher numbered strategy in his/her utterances. For example, if the speaker prefers to employ strategy number 5, it means that the risk of 'face loss' is highly substantial, and because of this, the speaker prefers not to utter anything at all. According to this table, the researcher can find the differences which the groups show in being direct or indirect.

Analyses of the hypotheses No. 17 – 19

In order to test these hypotheses, the Chi-Square test was applied to find out whether FAL was considered less face threatening than FAH by the groups.

Analyses of the hypotheses No. 20 – 22

The other speech acts which were examined for their rank of imposition were GR and CM. Again, the Chi-Square test was applied to see whether GR was perceived as less imposing than CM by the groups.

Analyses of the hypotheses No. 23 – 25

In order to find the significant differences among the groups on their ranking of imposition with regards to the social status of the interlocutors, a Chi-Square test was applied to test the 23rd-25th hypotheses.

In order to analyze qualitatively the utterances of the respondents, examples from each category (e.g., Female-Female Frequency and Type of strategies for realizing FAL) were selected and analyzed. Then, these utterances were interpreted to find differences or similarities which the survey groups showed in the realization of the speech acts.

The example utterances were chosen according to the distinct findings existing in the table of each hypothesis. For example, if the NA strategy is the most significant employed strategy in a situation, those responses which display the NA strategy were selected to be analyzed qualitatively.

It should be noted that the utterances of the NST group were translated according to the politeness strategies which existed in the Turkish utterances. For example, if there were three politeness strategies employed in the Turkish version, it was translated into English in a way that three politeness strategies existed in the English version as well.

CHAPTER 4

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

In this chapter, the results of the analyses are reported and discussed in line with the order of questions and hypotheses posed in Chapter 1.

As mentioned in Chapter 1, in order to answer the first question, that is, 'Are there significant differences among NSE, EFL and NST males and females in the employment and number of the strategies for realizing the speech acts of FAL, FAH, GR, and CM in their interactions with males and females?', sixteen null hypotheses were posed. In order to answer the second question, that is, 'Are FAL and GR less face threatening, or more specifically, less imposing than FAH and CM for the groups?', six null hypotheses were analyzed. Then, in order to answer the third question, that is, 'Is the perceived degree of imposition in the speech acts involved related to the social status (power) of the interlocutors?', three hypotheses were posed. In what follows, discussions related to each hypothesis will immediately follow the results. In addition, the example utterances for each hypothesis are given immediately after the quantitative analysis of the results. It should be noted that all of the written texts in italics are the original responses given by the survey participants.

4.2. Question One

In order to answer the first question, that is, 'Are there significant differences among NSE, EFL and NST males and females in the employment and number of the strategies for realizing the speech acts of FAL, FAH, GR, and CM in their interactions with males and

females?', the hypotheses 1 – 16 were posed. In the following paragraphs, the results of the applied tests are illustrated and discussed.

4.2.1. Hypothesis 1

In order to test the first null hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant difference among female NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of FAL in their interactions with females.', a Chi-Square test was applied to the data obtained from the female NSE, EFL and NST groups in their realization of the speech act of FAL when interacting with the members of the same gender. Table 5 displays the results:

Table: 5

Female – Female Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing FAL

Strategy Group	BR	PP	NP	OR	NA	Row Total
NSE	2	53	51	2	3	111
EFL	5	50	111	4	4	174
NST	3	65	55	5	3	131
Column Total	10	168	217	11	10	416

Chi-Square	df	Significance	Critical χ^2
19.1	8	.01	15.50

As Table 5 shows, the observed Chi-Square statistic is 19.1, and is greater than the critical Chi-Square. This indicates that there is a significant difference in the realization of the FAL among the female NSE, EFL and NST groups with respect to the interlocutors of the same gender. As a further check, to understand the difference between the EFL and NST groups, another Chi-Square test was administered and the result (observed χ^2, 15.5, critical χ^2, 3.84) showed that it was, indeed, significant. The EFL group used significantly more strategies than the NST group. In other words, the EFL group deviated significantly from both the NSE and NST groups. However, according to the number of the strategies employed by groups, we may conclude that the high use of strategies for the EFL have

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been carried over to English from Turkish. This is evident because if the number of the employed strategies by EFL was less than the employed strategies of the NST, it could be said that the EFL group has transferred the low frequency of strategies from English to Turkish; however, this is not the case.

4.2.1.1. Example Utterances

The example utterances for the situation of the 'Female – Female Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing FAL' are as follows:

ST/ST Relationship

NSE *Could I borrow your notes from last week's class?*

EFL *I wonder whether it is possible for me to borrow for an hour and have them photocopied.*

NST *Pardon ders notlarını senden alabilmem mümkün mü acaba?*
(Excuse me, I wonder whether I can get your notes?)

Here it is seen that the EFL group has the longest utterance. Also, all of the groups use question form to make the FAL realized. It means the frequency of NP strategy is very high.

FR/FR Relationship

NSE *I was on my way home when the car overheated. Do you think I could use your phone?*

EFL *I would not disturb anyone at that time of night and instead just use my cell phone to call a taxi and leave the car locked.*

NST *Merhaba kusura bakma ya arabam bozuldu acil bir telefon açabilir miyim?*
(Hi, excuse me, my car broke down. Can I make an emergency call?)

Here, it is observed that the EFL respondent opts out to ask for such a favor, because she thinks that it is imposing for the H.

CO/CO Relationship

NSE *Would you mind getting me a coffee? I promise to return the favor next time.*

EFL *May I ask you for a favor? I am so tired and I haven't drunk anything since morning [sic]. Can you make a tea for me while I distribute these memos? I know it makes trouble for you, but you know if I didn't need tea, I wouldn't ask you such a thing.*

NST *Aslıcım ya ben kalkamıyorum da sana zahmet bir çay verebilir misin?*
(Dear Aslı, I can't get up. I know it makes trouble for you; however, can you give me a tea?)

Here, the NSE respondent reminds her H that she will return the favor in the future. This is the case which was not seen in the EFL's or NST's utterances. Also, by adding the suffix (in Turkish, it is a suffix) of 'dear', the NST respondent uses the positive politeness strategy.

ST/PR Relationship

NSE *Could you press that button for me? Thanks.*

EFL *Excuse me sir. I can't press the elevator's button, if I ask, can you please do it for me. I know it is a trouble for you but,...*

NST *Hocam rica etsem şu asansörün düğmesine basabilir misiniz?*
(My professor, if I ask, can you press the elevator's button for me?)

Again here, the most significant difference appears in the length of the utterances. The response given by the EFL group is the longest one.

CH/PR Relationship

NSE *Hey, Mom, could you stop by the dry cleaner's and pick up my suit? Thanks!*

EFL *Mom, if you're going to the shopping center, could you get my suit from the dry cleaner's too?*

NST *Annecim rica etsem gelirken de kuru temizlemeciye uğrayıp takımımı alabilir misin acaba?*
(Dear mom, if I ask, can you stop by dry cleaner's and collect my suits?)

Here, it is seen that the length and employed strategies are more or less the same in all survey groups.

EM/BO Relationship

NSE *Could I please have the contact information for the engineer?*

EFL *Sorry, I need X's address and fax details but I do not have the necessary information. Could you please bring them with you?*

NST *Nazan Hanım şu konuyla ilgili gerekli bilgiler sizden başka kimsede yok rica etsem onları da getirebilir misiniz?*
(Ms. Nazan, no one else has the necessary information for this subject. If I ask, can you bring them, too?)

The EFL and NST respondents express their excuses and then ask for the favor; however, the NSE respondent, without any explanations, asks for the required information from her boss.

4.2.2. Hypothesis 2

In order to test the second null hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant difference among female NSE, EFL, and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of FAL in their interactions with males.', a Chi-Square test was administered to the data obtained from the female NSE, EFL and NST groups in their realization of FAL when interacting with the members of the opposite gender. Table 6 shows the results:

Table: 6

Female – Male Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing FAL

Strategy/Group	BR	PP	NP	OR	NA	Row Total
NSE	6	57	85	4	4	156
EFL	8	52	122	7	5	194
NST	4	26	134	6	7	177
Column Total	18	135	341	17	16	527

Chi-Square	df	Significance	Critical χ^2
23.4	8	.002	15.50

As indicated, the observed Chi-square test statistic is 23.4, and greater than the critical Chi-Square, which leads to the rejection of the second hypothesis. This result indicates that the NSE, EFL and NST groups in realizing FAL with the members of the opposite gender display a significant difference. To examine whether or not there is a significant difference between the EFL and the NST groups, another Chi-Square test was administered and the result (observed χ^2 10.4, critical χ^2 3.84) revealed that there was, indeed, a significant difference. Again, the EFL group has deviated significantly from both the NSE and NST groups. However, it seems that the EFL group has carried over the high use of strategies from Turkish into English.

Another important point which can be seen from the table is the frequency of the strategies employed by the groups with respect to the same and opposite gender. It appears that all of the groups exhibited differences in the number of the strategies in interactions with the members of the opposite gender. All of them raised the frequency of the NP which means they preferred to be more indirect in favor asking with the members of the opposite group. Also, the NST group exhibited a difference in the number of the PP strategy used.

4.2.2.1. Example Utterances

The example utterances for the situation of the 'Female – Male Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing FAL' are as follows:

ST/ST Relationship

NSE   *I am sorry I missed the class last week, would you be so kind as to lend me your notes so I can make copies please?*

EFL   *Last week, I didn't come to school. Is it possible to get your notes copied? You are the best student in taking notes. If I get someone else's notes, I will not understand anything.*

NST   *Ali ya senden birşey rica edeceğim. Ben geçen hafta dersi kaçırdım. Senin notlarınıdan bir fotokopi çektirsem olur mu? Senden istiyorum çünkü sen çok düzenli not tutuyorsun. Şimdi başkasından alsam birşey anlamayacağım...*
(Ali, I want to ask for a favor. I missed last week's class. Is it possible to copy your notes? I ask you because you take notes very well. If I get from another student, I won't understand anything.)

The length of the utterances has become longer perhaps because of the gender of the interlocutor.

FR/FR Relationship

NSE *Hi, I'm terribly sorry but my car's engine stopped just around the corner. Can I make a phone call?"*

EFL *I am sorry to come by so late, however, my car broke down and my cell phone isn't working, would it be possible for me to use your phone to call the auto recovery.*

NST *ya kusura bakma gecenin bir yarısı rahatsız ettim arabam bozuldu bi telefon açabilir miyim?*
(Excuse me; I bothered you at midnight. My car broke down. Can I make a telephone call?)

As with the FR/FR relationship, it can be observed that the length of the utterances has been increased.

CO/CO Relationship

NSE *I'm swamped at the moment, would you mind getting me a coffee? I promise to return the favor next time.*

EFL *Hey, John, would you mind helping me out? I need to distribute all these memo's but I'm dying for a cup of tea. Do you have time to make some and we can have some together when I am finished?*

NST *Kendimi çok yorgun hissediyorum. Kendime gelmek için çay olsa iyi olurdu. Ama çok işim var. Eğer işin yoksa bana çay yapabilir misin?*
(I feel very tired. In order to pull myself together, it would be good if I had some tea. But I have so many things to do. If you don't have anything to do, can you make a tea for me?)

The unique incident observed here is that most of the NSE group mentions a *return favor*. This is not the case for either of the Turkish groups.

ST/PR Relationship

NSE *Could you do me a big favor and press the elevator button? Thank you very much!*

EFL *Hello Mr. ABC, if you don't mind, would you please press the elevator's button for me?*

NST *Hocam çok affedersiniz, sizden bir şey rica edebilir miyim? Elimde çok kitap var benim için asansörün düğmesine basabilir misiniz?*
(Excuse me professor, can I ask you for a favor? I have many books in my hands, can you press the elevator's button for me?)

Here the increase in the frequency of the NP strategy can be observed.

CH/PA Relationships

NSE *Dad, would you mind picking up my suit since you will be in the neighborhood. I would really appreciate it.*

EFL *Daddy, if and only if you are going over to the ABC street, could you pick up my suit from the dry cleaner because I have class till late hours the dry cleaner will be closed by then.*

NST *Babamdan benim için kuru temizlemeciye gitmesine isteyemem.*
(I cannot ask my dad to go to dry cleaner's for me.)

The outlying data comes from the NST group. They believe it is not a good idea to ask their father for such a favor. However, none of the NSE group had such a belief. The EFL group utters a very long sentence.

EM/BO Relationships

NSE *I am missing the contact information for the engineer. Would you mind bring* [sic] *that information with you when you come over?*

EFL *Mr. ABC? Could you please bring the contact information of Miss DEF's if possible? It really is important."*

NST *Şirketteki bir mühendisimizin adres ve faks ayrıntıları gerekiyor. Bu ayrıntıların sizde olduğu söylendi. Müdür Bey gelirken o kişiye ait adres ve faks ayrıntılarını getirmeniz mümkün mü?*
(One of our engineer's address and fax details are needed. It is said that you have this information. Sir, when coming here, could you bring that person's address and fax details?)

It seems that again all the groups used longer utterances to interact with a participant from the opposite gender.

4.2.3. Hypothesis 3

In order to test the third null hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant difference among female NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of FAH in their interactions with females.', a Chi-Square test was administered to the data obtained from the female NSE, EFL and NST groups on their realization of FAH in their interactions with females. Table 7 displays the results:

Table: 7

Female – Female Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing FAH

Strategy Group	BR	PP	NP	OR	NA	Row Total
NSE	3	75	57	4	6	145
EFL	5	81	96	4	12	198
NST	2	81	50	9	15	157
Column Total	10	237	203	17	33	500

Chi-Square	df	Significance	Critical χ^2
16.7	8	.025	15.50

As seen from the table, the observed Chi-Square statistic is 16.7, greater than the critical Chi-Square, which leads to the rejection of the third hypothesis. Hence, there is a significant difference among the groups in the realization of the FAH in interactions with the members of the same gender. Another Chi-Square test was administered to test the possibility of any difference between the EFL and NST groups. The result (observed χ^2 12.9, critical χ^2 3.84) showed that there was, indeed, a significant difference. The EFL group used significantly more strategies than NST. However, it seems the EFL group has carried over the high use of strategies from Turkish to English.

4.2.3.1. Example Utterances

The example utterances for the situation of the 'Female – Female Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing FAH' are as follows:

ST/ST Relationships

NSE   *Would you be available for an hour or so to meet in the library and review 'x,y&z'?*

EFL   *I'd rather not ask for help, because it is most likely for girls to be foxy when it comes to helping, that I cannot tolerate it at all. So I'd rather not ask than ask and have to get through a tense atmosphere.*

NST   *Bana zamanın varsa biraz matematik çalıştırır mısın?*
(If you have time, can you help me a little with my math?)

The EFL group prefers not to ask for a favor. She fails to achieve the communication goals.

FR/FR Relationships

NSE   *Could you stop by the store and buy a cake for the party? I can pay you back*

EFL   *Hey, how are you? I'm not that so good. You can't guess what just happened! My mom accidentally ruined the cake and I'm sorry I have to ask you for this but we have so much work left to do! Can you buy a cake on your way to us?*

NST   *Zahmet olmazsa bana bir kek alır mısın? Annem keki yakmış.*
(If it is not a burden for you, can you buy a cake for me? Mom has burnt the cake.)

The EFL group gives detailed information to her friend and then asks for the favor. All of the groups use higher number of the strategies relative to the situations when they wanted to ask for a FAL. It may indicate the higher imposition degree which FAH includes.

CO/CO relationships

NSE   *Hey since you are going where my sister lives would you mind to drop off a package for me? Or I can have her come and pick it up from you.*

EFL   *I hope you have a great time over there. I was wondering I have a package for my sister. I thought that my sister can meet you at the bus station, give you a ride to your hotel and this way she could get the package I sent her [sic].*

NST   *Ben böyle bir ricada bulunamam çünkü arkadaşım tatile gidiyor.*
(I cannot ask for such favor, because my friend is going on a holiday.)

Again, the EFL group gives the most detailed response, and as a result, the longest utterance to the prompt. Also, the NST group opts out, so she cannot interact with her participant.

ST/PR Relationships

NSE *I don't think I would ask another professor for help. I would feel kind of weird asking an old professor on help with work for another class.*

EFL *I think students should ask for help only from their own professor. I won't ask for such thing.*

NST *Hocam merhaba, saatlerdir bir proje için çalışıyorum ve hocam şehir dışında. Çözemediğim bir problem var. Siz bana yol gösterir misiniz?*
(Hi professor, I have been working on a project for hours and my professor is out of town. There is a problem I can't solve. Can you help me?)

Here, it is seen that the respondents reject to ask for a favor. As Table 7 shows the number of the NA strategy has been increased.

CH/PR Relationships

NSE *Mom, come on, wake up I need a ride.*

EFL *Nothing. I don't want my mom to ride lonely* [sic] *early in the morning.*

NST *Annecim lütfen hemen beni havaalanına bırakabilir misin geç kaldım?*
(Dear mom, can you immediately give me a ride to airport? I am late.)

The NSE group uses a higher frequency of BR strategy. He/she may believe that as there is an emergency in going to airport, so there is no need to use longer and different utterances or strategies. It should be noted that one of the cases in which the speaker uses the BR strategy is the existence of a kind of emergency in realizing the action. On the other hand, interesting responses such as one mentioned here by the EFL group was used which displays the Turkish culture to some extent.

EM/BO Relationships

NSE *My family is going on a very important vacation and I would really like to go. Can I take my vacation early and then I return. I will work overtime if needed to get everything back on track.*

EFL *I am a hard worker and that* [sic] *I need a favor. I don't call out often and I am very responsible. I need a favor because I would like to go on vacation with my family but there isn't enough time for me to request the time off. Can you help me out?*

NST *Ayten hanım çok özür dilerim ama yalnızca bu defalık iznimi bu hafta kullanabilir miyim?*
(Mrs. Ayten, I am so sorry, but only for this time can I use my time off this week?)

The longest utterance has been used by the EFL group. The NSE group by saying, *I will work overtime if needed to get everything back on track,* points to the *return favor.* The NSE group used *return favor* frequently at the end of the utterances for favor asking. However, this was not the case with the other two Turkish groups.

4.2.4. Hypothesis 4

In order to test the fourth hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant difference among female NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of FAH in their interactions with males.', a Chi-Square test was administered to the data obtained from the female NSE, EFL and NST groups in their choice of strategies in FAH with the members of the opposite gender. Table 8 shows the results:

Table: 8

Female – Male Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing FAH

Strategy\nGroup	BR	PP	NP	OR	NA	Row\nTotal
NSE	6	85	73	4	9	177
EFL	5	73	146	6	22	252
NST	5	80	127	3	14	229
Column Total	16	238	346	13	45	658

Chi-Square	df	Significance	Critical χ^2
19.8	8	.01	15.50

As indicated, the observed Chi-Square statistic is 19.8, which is greater than the critical Chi-Square, so the fourth null hypothesis is rejected, indicating that there is a significant difference among the female groups to use the strategies in the realization of FAH with the members of the opposite gender. To check further, another Chi-Square test was administered to see whether or not there is a difference between the EFL and NST groups. The results (observed χ^2 2.6, critical χ^2 3.84) showed that there is, in fact, *no* significant difference, as the observed Chi-Square test statistic is less than the critical Chi-Square

statistic. The findings showed that the EFL group resembled the NST group to a great extent. It seems the EFL group has transferred the high use of strategies from Turkish into English.

Another important point here is that all of the groups, especially the EFL and NST groups, have raised the number of the strategy NP in interactions with the members of the opposite gender. In other words, the EFL and NST groups are more indirect than the NSE groups in interactions with the members of the opposite gender.

4.2.4.1. Example Utterances

The example utterances for the situation of the 'Female – Male Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing FAH' are as follows:

ST/ST Relationships

NSE   *The same answer which was given for female, i.e., would you be available for an hour or so to meet in the library and review 'x, y & z'?*

EFL   *I don't ask for such kind of thing. Everybody is responsible for his own learning.*

NST   *Zamanınız uygunsa, bana yardım eder misiniz matematik çalışırken?*
(If it is convenient for you, can you help me when studying math?)

The NSE group does not show any difference with opposite gender and the EFL group raises the number of the NA strategy employed to realize this speech act.

FR/FR Relationships

NSE   *My mom spoilt the cake. Can you pick one up on the way?*

EFL   *Hey, what are you doing? You can't believe what just happened! Can you buy a cake on your way to us?*

NST   *Merhaba Ömer ya bir şey diycem ama aramızda kalsın. Annem parti için yaptığım keki dökmüş sana zahmet gelirken kakaolu kek alabilir misin?*
(Hi Ömer, I want to say something but between ourselves, my mom has spilled the cake which I had prepared for the party, it's a burden for you, can you buy a cacao cake?)

There is not a significant difference between the EFL and NST groups in the number of the employed strategies; however, again the NSE group uses the shortest utterances.

CO/CO relationships

NSE *My sister lives where you are going. Can you please take this package to her?*

EFL *Would it be possible when you go on your holidays to deliver this package to my sister. It is very light and if it is okay with you I'll let her know where you are staying so she can pick it up from you. Thanks and have a good holiday. I really appreciate this.*

NST *Böyle bir ricada bulunamam. Bu onun tatilidir.*
(I can't request such a thing. This is his holiday.)

The EFL group definitely uses the longest utterance.

ST/PR Relationships

NSE *Do you remember me? I took your class a while ago? I was wondering if you would be so kind to help me with a project that I am having some problems with.*

EFL *Hi Mr. X, how are you? I couldn't solve this problem and I need a way out. I was wondering if you have time, could you help me?*

NST *Hocam, rahatsız ediyorum ama mümkünse bir konuda fikrinizi alabilir miyim?*
(Professor, I put you in trouble, but, if it is possible, can I consult with you about a subject?)

Exceptionally, the NSE group used the longest sentence. The most important issue here is that all of the groups have increased the number of the NP strategy.

CH/PR Relationships

NSE *Dad, I am running so late and I need you to drop me at the airport. Everyone is waiting for me and no one can go anywhere until I arrive.*

EFL *Daddy, I'm so sorry but could you drive me to the airport. I'm late, I overslept, please?*

NST *Babacım [sic], kusuruma bakma, lütfen hemen beni havaalanına bırakabilir misin.*
(Daddy, excuse me, can you please give me a ride to the airport? I am late.)

Here seemingly, it is the NSE group who uses the longest utterance; however, it is the EFL and NST groups who use the NP strategy more than the NSE group.

EM/BO Relationships

NSE *Could I please request some personal time off. I am feeling a bit burned out. I will make up the time when I return and all will be finished as prescribed.*

EFL *I won't ask for such a favor, because the employees should obey the rules.*

NST *Müdür Bey izine çıkmadan önce iki hafta öncesinden yazılı olarak isteğimi belirtmem gerektiğinin farkındayım. Ama bu tatil işi bir anda ortaya çıktı. Bir kereye mahsus olarak izin verebilir misiniz?*
(Mr. Director, I know that I should request for time off in a written form two weeks beforehand. However, this holiday subject came out suddenly. Can you permit me only for one time?)

Here once again it is seen that the NSE group reminds her hearer that she will return the favor in future.

4.2.5. Hypothesis 5

In order to test the fifth null hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant difference among female NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of GR in their interactions with females.', a Chi-Square test was administered to the data obtained from the strategies which the female NSE, EFL and NSE groups employed for realizing the speech act of GR with the members of the same gender. Table 9 displays the results:

Table: 9

Female – Female Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing GR

Strategy \ Group	BR	PP	NP	OR	NA	Row Total
NSE	2	88	29	2	12	133
EFL	3	91	77	5	13	189
NST	5	114	47	3	9	178
Column Total	10	293	153	10	34	500

Chi-Square	df	Significance	Critical χ^2
19.3	8	.01	15.50

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As seen, the observed Chi-Square statistic is 19.3, and greater than the critical Chi-Square which means that the fifth null hypothesis is rejected. This indicates that there is a significant difference among the survey groups in the choice of strategies for realizing GR with the members of the same gender. As a further check, another Chi-Square test was administered to see whether or not there is a difference between the EFL and NST groups. The results (observed χ^2 9.1, critical χ^2 3.84) revealed that there is a significant difference between the EFL and NST groups. Thus, it seems that the EFL group has deviated from both NST and NSE groups, but according to the high number of the strategies employed by EFL, it can be said that the high frequency use of strategies has been carried over from Turkish into English by EFL.

4.2.5.1. Example Utterances

The example utterances for the situation of the 'Female – Female Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing GR' are as follows:

ST/ST Relationships

NSE *I would say the food sucks. Why don't we go grab some food somewhere else.*

EFL *I wouldn't complain to a student who can't do anything about the situation*

NST *Bir şey söylemezdim, çünkü o yemekleri beğeniyor olabilir.*
(I wouldn't say anything, because she may like the food.)

Here, it is observed that the number of the NA strategy is increased.

FR/FR Relationships

NSE *I can't believe the power went out and I lost all my work.*

EFL *I wouldn't complain because it's my own fault. I would just mutter about my own stupidity.*

NST *Teknolojinin içerisinde bize ilkelliği yaşatıyorlar.*
(In the midst of technology, they make us live in primitiveness.)

Once again, the EFL group preferred NA and the NST group used PP strategies to interact with her participant.

CO/CO relationships

NSE *This is crazy, I can't work like this. There is going to be no heating for the week, we're gonna get sick working like this.*

EFL *We'll freeze here! Shall we bring a small heater or something?*

NST *Bu devirde hala ısıtma sisteminde sorun olması çok garip değil mi?*
(In these days, having a problem in the heating system is very strange, isn't it?)

In the realization of this speech act, the employment of the PP strategy is increased by all groups.

ST/PR Relationships

NSE *I would not complain at all because we are all grown adults and we should be able to handle a couple of things at once. That is just part of being a grown up.*

EFL *I am afraid I could not finished my dissertation because of my part-time job.*

NST *Benim özel problemim olması nedeni ile konuyu paylaşmam.*
(I don't share my problem, because it is a personal problem.)

Both the NSE and NST groups preferred not to do the FTA at all.

CH/PR Relationships

NSE *Mom, please tell (my brother) that if we have to share a room, he needs to respect my things and my area in the room. He keeps changing my picture that I hang on the wall.*

EFL *Nothing, because this is a problem between my brother and I.*

NST *Kardeşimle bir de sen konuşur musun?*
(Can you talk with my brother?)

This is one of those exception cases which the NSE group uses longer utterances.

EM/BO Relationships

NSE *I would like to have a staff meeting about this collective area or would like to discuss it with you in private. I am really unhappy about the situation in the office now.*

EFL *People are always disregarding there trash in my office space. As you are aware I like things to be nice and clean. Maybe we can put up some signs or something can be said in a meeting so that people are aware of problem.*

NST *Başkalarının dağınıklığını ben toplamak zorunda kalıyorum. Buna bir çözüm getirmeniz gerekir.*

(I always have to gather the other people's stuff. You should bring a solution for this.)

The EFL group displays very significantly how she uses the longest utterances.

4.2.6. Hypothesis 6

In order to test the sixth hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant difference among female NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of GR in their interactions with males.', a Chi-Square test was administered to the data obtained from the strategies which female NSE, EFL, and NST groups employed in GR in their interactions with the members of the opposite gender. Table 10 shows the results:

Table: 10

Female – Male Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing GR

Strategy \\ Group	BR	PP	NP	OR	NA	Row Total
NSE	3	86	25	2	13	129
EFL	4	82	70	5	17	178
NST	5	98	50	4	15	172
Column Total	12	266	145	11	45	479

Chi-Square	*df*	Significance	Critical χ^2
15.9	8	.05	15.50

As seen in the table, the observed Chi-Square statistic is 15.9, and greater than the critical Chi-Square, which leads to the rejection of the sixth null hypothesis. This means that there is a significant difference among the female groups in the use of strategies in the realization of GR with the members of the opposite gender. For a further check, to understand whether or not there is a difference between the EFL and NST groups, another Chi-Square test was administered. The results (observed χ^2 5.4, critical χ^2 3.84) showed that there is a significant difference between the EFL and NST groups, so EFL has

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deviated from both NSE and NST. However, because of the high number of the strategies employed by the EFL group, it can be said that the EFL group has carried over the high frequency use of strategies from Turkish into English.

Another important point here is that there is no significant difference among the groups in the employment of the strategies with the members of the same versus opposite gender. It means for all of the groups the gender of the interlocutor does not affect the choice of strategies.

4.2.6.1. Example Utterances

Before discussing the utterances, it should be noted that none of the groups showed any difference in the employment of the strategies when they talked with the opposite gender. However, in order to discuss more statements, the utterances of different speakers were chosen to be analyzed along the following lines. The example utterances of the situation of the 'Female – Male Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing GR' are as follows:

ST/ST Relationships

NSE   *Oh my gosh is it me or does this food suck.*

EFL   *Not make any complaints*

NST   *Tanımadığım için bu şikayetimi dile getirmem.*
       (As I don't know him, I won't complain.)

Not only do the groups prefer to use NA strategy, but also they do not show any difference for the opposite gender.

FR/FR Relationships

NSE   *I know there is no excuse for me, it was an honest mistake, I was so involved in doing the paper that I forgot to save it.*

EFL   *It's not fair! What sort of country is this? We've spent so much time on it!*

NST   *Allah kahretsin ne yapıcaz şimdi?*
       (Damn it, what should we do now?)

Both NST and EFL groups prefer to employ the PP strategy.

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CO/CO relationships

NSE *Oh my gosh it is to damn cold to work.*

EFL *I think we cannot work in these conditions. Let's take our work home and leave the office until the heater is on again.*

NST *Umarım bu haftayı hasta olmadan geçirebiliriz.* (I hope we will pass this week without getting ill.)

Once again, both NST and EFL groups prefer to employ the PP strategy.

ST/PR Relationships

NSE *Mr. Jones, I really don't like the job and I want to focus on my doctoral* [sic]. *What do you think I should do?*

EFL *Mr. ABC I'm sorry to mention of such personal matter but I'm having a very hard time trying to keep up with my studies and my job. It's very important for me to continue both. For this is why, I don't want to sound unprofessional but sometimes I may delay my studies just a little without any intention. I would like to apologize for such situation beforehand.*

NST *Benim özel problemim olması nedeni ile konuyu paylaşmam.*
(As it is my private problem, I don't share the subject.)

The EFL group uses the longest utterance and NSE and NST groups do not show any difference for the opposite gender.

CH/PR Relationships

NSE *Why can he not respect my side of the room? I do not bother his pictures.*

EFL *Nothing. I try to solve this problem myself.*

NST *Baba kardeşimle artık duvardaki resimler hakkında çok büyük bir problemim var. Senin bu konuyu onunla konuşmanı istiyorum.*
(Dad, I have a big problem with my brother about the pictures on the wall. I want you to talk with him about this problem.)

None of the groups shows any difference for the opposite gender.

EM/BO Relationships

NSE *They do not clean up after themselves, so I am trying to fix the problem.*

EFL *I'm trying to keep my working space very tidy to be able to reach to anything necessary easily, unfortunately my co-workers are giving me a little hard time. I don't know how to handle this situation.*

NST *Diğer çalışanlar mektup ve dosyaları almak için sürekli odama geliyorlar ve kimse aldığını yerine koymuyor. Verimli çalışamıyorum. Bu durumu arkadaşlarla sizin görüşmenizin daha uygun olacağının kanaatindeyim.*
(Other employees come to my room regularly to get their letters and files and nobody puts things in their places. I can't work productively. I think it is better you to talk with colleagues about this problem.)

Both the EFL and NST groups use long sentences. In addition, there are no changes for gender variable.

4.2.7. Hypothesis 7

In order to test the seventh hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant difference among female NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of CM in their interactions with females.', a Chi-Square test was administered to the data which were obtained from the female speakers of the NSE, EFL and NST groups in their choice of strategies in CM with the members of the same gender. Table 11 illustrates the results:

Table: 11

Female – Female Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing CM

Strategy Group	BR	PP	NP	OR	NA	Row Total
NSE	3	66	40	3	6	118
EFL	6	92	78	4	16	196
NST	3	42	71	10	12	138
Column Total	12	200	189	17	34	452

Chi-Square	df	Significance	Critical χ^2
22.6	8	.002	15.50

As indicated, the observed Chi-Square test statistic is 22.6, which is greater than the critical Chi-Square, leading to the rejection of the seventh hypothesis. This result indicates that there is, indeed, a significant difference among the groups in their choice of strategies in CM with the members of their own gender. To see where the difference lies, another Chi-Square test was administered to the data obtained from the strategies of the EFL and NST groups. The findings (observed χ^2 13.1, critical χ^2 3.84) revealed that there is, indeed, a significant difference between the EFL and NST groups in the use of strategies. However, by comparing the frequency of the employed strategies, it appears that EFL has carried over this from Turkish into English.

4.2.7.1. Example Utterances

The example utterances for the situation of the 'Female – Female Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing CM' are as follows:

ST/ST Relationships

NSE   *Did something happen to the calculator? It is not working and it's not able to be fixed, I'm kind of stuck because I really need that calculator for my class.*

EFL   *I noticed after you returned my calculator last week that it isn't* [sic] *working. I tried to have it repaired and it is not only irreparable but also irreplaceable. I am very upset as this is expensive and was a birthday gift from my parents so it has a lot of sentimental value to me. I really think you need to reimburse me for the total cost of it so I can look into getting a comparable model.*

NST   *Ben sana bu hesap makinesini bu şekilde mi vermiştim. İnsanlara verdiğin değer de buymuş demek, çok yazık!*
(Did I give you the calculator in this condition? So this was the value you give to people, what a pity!)

The EFL group very distinctly employs the longest sentence.

FR/FR Relationships

NSE   *You have destroyed my book and I don't like books that are in a state of disrepair as I really don't enjoy books in that condition, why don't you go ahead and hold on to that.*

EFL   *Nothing but never give him/her anything later.*

NST *Bir daha sana kitabımı vermeyeceğim. Ben ödünç aldığım her şeyi çok özenle kullanırım.*
   (I won't give you my book one more time. I use very carefully every thing which I borrow.)

The EFL group is the one which uses the highest number of the NA strategy. This group thinks that it is face threatening to complain to the interaction participant, so because of this, she prefers not to do the act at all.

CO/CO Relationships

NSE *I really need your help with this project. Would you mind doing "xyz" that way we can both leave at a reasonable hour?*

EFL *I think we need to finish this work very soon and we haven't progressed much. Do you want to discuss why we haven't been able to?*

NST *Neden ben çalışırken sen boş oturup işini yapmıyorsun? Sen bu şirkette çalışıyorsun değil mi?*
   (Why do you just sit and don't do your job while I am working? You are working in this company, aren't you?)

The EFL group in a friendly way focuses on the pronoun of *we* and tries to solve the problem and CM by using the PP strategy. In a short sentence, it is observed that the pronoun of *we* have been used for three times. This group has the highest frequency of PP strategy.

ST/PR Relationships

NSE *I wouldn't say anything. If I have to take a class 3 times, I need the extra work to gain a better understanding.*

EFL *I really don't think it is fair that you have given me the most difficult portion to do again. I think you are being very unreasonable and would really appreciate if you could please assign a portion of my assignment to another student to share the load.*

NST *Hocam ben her dönem zor görevleri alıyorum ve artık diğer arkadaşların da sizce zor görevler alması gerekmiyor mu?*
   (Professor, every term I get the difficult tasks. Don't you think other students should from now on get the difficult tasks, too?)

The NSE very reasonably refuses to CM. The EFL group uses the longest utterance. The NST group by using NP strategy tries to CM to her professor.

CH/PR Relationships

NSE *Why does it always have to be my room? Wouldn't it be fair if someone else gave up their [sic] room this time?*

EFL *You know Mom, I really don't think it is fair that I have to give up my room again to accommodate our guests. This is happening too often and why do I always have to be the one to sacrifice my room, my space, and my privacy. I think someone else or my younger sister should give up their room this time.*

NST *Anne neden hep ben odamı misafirlere bırakmak zorunda kalıyorum.*
(Mom, why am I always obliged to give up my room for guests?)

The EFL group complains in a very detailed way which makes again her utterance the longest one.

EM/BO Relationships

NSE *I'm quite shocked to receive this so quickly after my promotion. I thought the company thought highly of me.*

EFL *Excuse me, (boss), can we please talk for a moment in your office? I don't understand this. How is the company making decisions about who gets laid off? I just got a promotion and now I'm being cut. I don't understand.*

NST *Çalışanları ve tecrübeli elemanlarınızı böyle mi ödüllendirdiniz?*
(Do you reward your workers and experienced employees in this way?)

In order to complain politely, the NST speaker prefers to employ the OR strategy which is the most polite strategy after the NA strategy.

4.2.8. Hypothesis 8

In order to test the eighth hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant difference among female NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of CM in their interactions with males.', a Chi-Square test was administered to the data obtained from the female speakers of the NSE, EFL and NST groups in their choice of strategies in CM with the members of the opposite gender. Table 12 displays the results:

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Table: 12

Female – Male Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing CM

Group / Strategy	BR	PP	NP	OR	NA	Row Total
NSE	4	70	37	4	6	121
EFL	5	70	49	4	18	146
NST	2	50	55	9	11	127
Column Total	11	190	141	17	35	394

Chi-Square	df	Significance	Critical χ^2
16.6	8	.03	15.50

As seen from the table, the observed Chi-Square statistic is higher than the critical Chi-Square, so the eighth hypothesis is rejected. This finding shows that there is a significant difference among the groups in their choice of strategies in realizing CM with the members of the opposite gender. In order to examine whether or not the difference between the EFL and NST groups is significant, another Chi-Square test was administered and the results (observed χ^2 6.8, critical χ^2 3.84) proved it significant. Nevertheless, according to the number of the strategies employed, it appears that the EFL seems to have carried over the high frequency of strategy use from Turkish into English.

It is also important to mention that by comparing Table 11 and 12, it appears that survey groups have employed different number of strategies in their interactions with the members of the opposite gender. In other words, for the NSE group, the gender variable does not make a difference. However, the EFL group used fewer PP and NP strategies and NST used fewer NP and more PP strategies in interactions with the opposite gender. This implies that the EFL and NST groups take into consideration the factor of gender on their choice of strategies in interactions with the opposite gender.

Before discussing the following hypotheses, it is important to note that through Tables 13-20 (Hypotheses 9-16), because there was a substantial difference among the number of the male respondents of the survey groups, the number of the strategies employed by the NSE males was multiplied by 2.8, and the number of the strategies employed by the EFL

male respondents was multiplied by 2.3 to make the results consistent. In other words, the number of the NST males was 2.8 times greater than the NSE males and 2.3 times greater than the EFL males.

4.2.8.1. Example Utterances

The example utterances of the situation of the 'Female – Male Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing CM' are as follows:

ST/ST Relationships

NSE   *Hey (name), did you have any problems with the calculator? Because it's not working now and they say, it can't be repaired. Did anything happen?* (No gender difference)

EFL   *I wish my calculator continued to work after you returned it to me. It was a birthday present from my parents*

NST   *Bunun manevi değeri vardı.*
(This had spiritual value.)

As the number of the frequencies shows, the EFL prefers to employ far shorter utterances when she talks to the opposite gender.

FR/FR Relationships

NSE   *What happened to the book? Is that the condition when I let you borrow it?* (No gender difference)

EFL   *It seems as if you don't know how to use a borrowed book at all. I'd rather not take it. Keep it.*

NST   *Kitabı neden bu hale getirdin?*
(How did you manage to put this book into this condition?)

The NSE group does not make any difference when she talks with the opposite gender

CO/CO Relationships

NSE   *I hate to complain but I would like to go home sometime today. I really need you to carry your end of the workload. It's not fair that I sit here working while you spend this time playing. Can't we play after this is finished?* (No gender difference)

EFL   *I don't say anything to this person, because I prefer talk to the boss.*

NST　*İş sorumluluğu almak istemiyorsanız, neden hala burada gereksiz yere zaman harcayarak, biz çalışanlara da engel oluyorsunuz?*
(If you don't want to take job responsibility, why do you hinder us by wasting time here?)

Here, the EFL group is the one who has the highest frequency of the employment of the NA strategy.

ST/PR Relationships

NSE　*Am I getting the heavier workload because you feel I am capable or is it that you think no one else is capable of handling the work? I do have other classes and obligations. Could we perhaps do the assignment in groups or pairs?* (No gender difference)

EFL　*I wouldn't say anything at all, I suppose.*

NST　*Biraz da kolay ödevleri bana verebilir misiniz?*
(Can you give me a little easy homework?)

The NST group by using *biraz da* (a little) tries to use the PP strategy. This group used this strategy more frequently in comparison with the interactions with the same gender.

CH/PR Relationships

NSE　*Why does it always have to be my room? Wouldn't it be fair if someone else gave up his room this time?* (No gender difference)

EFL　*I wouldn't say anything if my room is the most convenient one for some reason.*

NST　*Baba benim odamı vermek zorunda mısın?*
(Dad, should you give my room?)

Once again, the EFL group shows that she prefers not to do the act at all.

EM/BO Relationships

NSE　*I do not understand why certain employees that do not have the tenure of other employees were spared their jobs. Can you please explain to me why this is the case?* (No gender difference)

EFL　*I would like to discuss the recent situation with you. Can we make an appointment for this, please?*

NST *Ahmet bey, ben bunca sene burada çalıştım biraz olsun emeğimin karşılığını almak istedim.*
(Mr. Ahmet, I have been working here for many years. I wanted to get at least my reward in return.)

The NSE group does not show any difference for the gender variable, and the NST group by using *biraz olsun* (at least) tries to show that her desire to be retained is not a big one, in other words, this speaker wants to CM by employing the PP strategy.

4.2.9. Hypothesis 9

In order to test the ninth hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant difference among male NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of FAL in their interactions with males.', a Chi-Square test was administered to the data obtained from male NSE, EFL and NST groups in their choice of strategies in FAL with the members of the same gender. Table 13 displays the results:

Table: 13

Male – Male Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing FAL

Strategy / Group	BR	PP	NP	OR	NA	Row Total
NSE	3	45	60	6	6	120
EFL	3	42	134	9	6	194
NST	3	68	81	6	3	161
Column Total	9	155	275	21	15	475

Chi-Square	df	Significance	Critical χ^2
21.8	8	.002	15.50

As Table 13 shows, the observed Chi-Square statistic is 21.8, which is greater than the critical Chi-Square. This means that the ninth hypothesis is rejected. This finding shows that, indeed, there is a significant difference among the groups on the realization of the FAL in the interactions with the interlocutors of the same gender. For a further check, in order to see whether or not there is a difference between the EFL and NST groups, another Chi-Square test was administered, and the results (observed χ^2 17.3, critical χ^2 3.84)

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revealed that there was a significant difference between the EFL and NST groups. In other words, the EFL group has deviated to a great extent from both the English and Turkish norm. However, the number of the strategies employed by the groups seems to show that the high frequency use of the strategies employed by the EFL group has been carried over into English from the Turkish language.

4.2.9.1. Example Utterances

The example utterances of the situation of the 'Male – Male Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing FAL' are as follows:

ST/ST Relationships

NSE *Will you give me your notes, I'll copy them and bring back tomorrow.*

EFL *Hi, I was absent last week and I was wondering if I could copy your notes from class. I would really appreciate it.*

NST *Geçen hafta derse katılmadım, sen de güzel not tutuyorsun, notlarınızı ödünç alabilir miyim?*
(I wasn't in the class last week, and you take notes well, can I take your notes?)

The NP strategy is the most used strategy to realize the speech act of FAL. As above, it is very common to use *if clauses* and *question forms* to ask for a favor.

FR/FR Relationships

NSE *Good morning! My car broke down, can I use your phone to call a tow truck?*

EFL *Hi! Good morning! How are you? I am so sorry to bother you at this time in the morning. I think my car has broken down. Can I use your phone to call a mechanic?*

NST *Arkadaşım caddenin köşesinde arabam bozuldu. Telefonunu kullanabilir miyim?*
(My friend, my car broke down at the corner of the street. Can I use your phone?)

Here again it is observed that the frequency of the NP strategy is high. At the same time, the EFL is the group which has used the longest utterances.

CO/CO Relationships

NSE *Hey Man, can you get me a cup of coffee? I'll get you on the next run.*

EFL *I am dying for a cup of tea, but I need to deliver this stuff. Can you make a cup of tea for me?*

NST *Çok yoğunum bana çay yapabilir misin?*
(I am very busy, can you make a tea for me?)

Once more, the NSE group shows that it is important for them to mention the *return favor*.

ST/PR Relationships

NSE *Could you please press the elevator button for me?*

EFL *Excuse me, professor, I am sorry to ask for this but my hands are full of books and I can't press the button. Could you please press the button for me?*

NST *Affedersiniz hocam rica etsem düğmeye basabilir misiniz?*
(Excuse me professor, if I ask, can you press the button?)

All groups use several NP strategies and the EFL makes the longest utterance.

CH/PR Relationships

NSE *Can you stop at the cleaners and pick up my suit?*

EFL *Dad, can you take my suit from the dry cleaner's?*

NST *Baba, kuru temizlemeciye elbisemi bırakmıştım. Ancak yetişemeyeceğim. Rica etsem alışveriş sonrası, elbisemi alabilir misin?*
(Dad, I had given my suit to the dry cleaner's. However, I won't be in time for it. If I ask, can you pick up my suit after doing shopping?)

This time, the NST group uses the longest utterance. The NSE and EFL groups, by using only one NP strategy which makes their utterance short, realize the speech act of favor asking.

EM/BO Relationships

NSE *(Name) I need to get the engineer's address and fax number.*

EFL *I need the X engineer's address and fax numbers. Would you please give me the contact information?*

NST   ... *X...*   *bey size zahmet olmazsa mühendis beyin adres ve faksını gelirken getirebilir misiniz?*
(...Mr. X, if it isn't inconvenient for you, can you bring the engineer's address and fax number while coming here?)

The NSE group asks for the favor directly, and does not use any NP strategy. However, the other two groups, that is, the EFL and NST groups both employ the NP strategy.

4.2.10. Hypothesis 10

In order to test the tenth null hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant difference among male NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of FAL in their interactions with females.', a Chi-Square test was administered to the data obtained from the interactions of the speakers in the realization of the FAL with the members of the opposite gender. Table 14 displays the results:

Table: 14

Male – Female Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing FAL

Strategy Group	BR	PP	NP	OR	NA	Row Total
NSE	6	48	63	6	3	126
EFL	5	44	130	8	5	192
NST	6	62	71	5	3	147
Column Total	6	48	63	6	3	126

Chi-Square	df	Significance	Critical χ^2
18.2	8	.025	15.50

As Table 14 shows, the observed Chi-Square statistic is 18.2, and greater than the critical Chi-Square. This means that there is a significant difference among the groups in their choice of strategies when they realized FAL with the members of the opposite gender. For a further check, in order to understand whether there is a difference between the EFL and NST groups, another Chi-Square test was administered and the results (observed χ^2 20.5, critical χ^2 3.84) showed that the EFL group deviated from the NST group to a

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significant extent. However, according to the frequency of the strategies employed by the groups, it can be concluded that the EFL group has carried over the Turkish norms into English.

By comparing the thirteenth and fourteenth tables, it can be said that all of the groups have employed more or less the same number of strategies with the same and opposite gender. This means that the gender variable does not affect the groups' choice of strategies with respect to the same and opposite gender.

4.2.10.1. Example Utterances

Before discussing the utterances, it should be reiterated that none of the groups showed any difference in the employment of the strategies when they talked with the opposite gender. However, in order to discuss more statements, the utterances of different speakers were chosen to be analyzed in the following lines. The example utterances of the situation of the 'Male – Female Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing FAL' are as follows:

ST/ST Relationships

NSE *Can I take your notes, please?*

EFL *I missed class last week* [sic]. *Can I make a copy of your notes?*

NST *Sen iyi not tutuyorsun. Ben dersi kaçırdım. Notlarını verirsen bende yazarım.*
(You take notes well. I missed the class. If you give me your notes, I can write, as well.)

The NP strategy is used as the most frequent strategy.

FR/FR Relationships

NSE *Hey, my car broke down, can I use your phone?*

EFL *I prefer sleeping in my car to asking for help from my female friend at that time of night.*

NST *Kusura bakma seni rahatsız ettim ama arabam arızalandı. Acil telefon etmem gerekli, telefonunu kullanabilir miyim?*

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(Excuse me! I bothered you, but my car broke down. I should call urgently; can I use your phone?)

The EFL group gives a very interesting response to this situation. This is one of those statements which illustrates the cultural differences between the English and Turkish native speakers.

CO/CO relationships

NSE *Hey (Name) would you do me a big favor? Can you make me a cup of coffee?*

EFL *I have to distribute all of these memos and I need some tea, but unfortunately, I have not got any time. Could you please make me a cup of tea?*

NST *Senin elinden çay içmek iyi olurdu. Vaktin varsa yapar mıydın?*
(It would be good to drink tea which you made. If you have time, could you make it?)

The EFL group gives information about why he himself cannot make tea and as a result of this his favor asking becomes a long utterance.

ST/PR Relationships

NSE *Excuses me professor, can you push the button for me?*

EFL *Hello madam, how are you? Could you please press the elevator button for me?*

NST *Merhaba hocam, asansöre binmeme yardımcı olabilir misiniz?*
(Hello professor, can you help me in getting on the elevator?)

Again, here, the NSE group directly expresses his want and makes his utterance very short.

CH/PR Relationships

NSE *Mom, can you please collect my suit from the dry cleaner's while you are doing your shopping?*

EFL *Hey mom, I am late for class and I need my suit for tomorrow. Can you pick it up for me since you are going to be in the same area?*

NST *Anne fakültede işim biraz uzayacak. Geçerken benim elbiseyi de temizleyiciden alır mısın? Saat 7 de kapanıyor da.*

(Mom, my work will be lasting for a while in school. While passing, can you pick up my suit from the dry cleaner's? It closes at seven.)

Both of the EFL and NST groups make it clear why they are asking their mothers to pick up their suit for them; however, the NSE group does not do so.

EM/BO Relationships

NSE *Excuse me (Boss's name) I have missed the engineer's address and fax number on your way here can you bring it to me.*

EFL *Madam, if possible, could you please remind me the address details of the engineer?*

NST *Görev nedeniyle benim gitmem uygun olduğu için ben gider bilgileri alırdım.*
(As it is my duty, I myself go and get the information.)

In a reasonable way, the NST group refuses to do the act, and the other groups use the NP strategy.

4.2.11. Hypothesis 11

In order to test the eleventh null hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant difference among male NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of FAH in their interactions with males.', a Chi-Square test was administered to the data obtained from the strategies which the male NSE, EFL and NST speakers employed in their interactions with the same gender for FAH. The table 15 displays the results:

Table: 15

Male – Male Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing FAH

Strategy / Group	BR	PP	NP	OR	NA	Row Total
NSE	3	54	51	6	3	117
EFL	4	53	124	8	7	196
NST	4	70	75	5	4	158
Column Total	11	177	250	19	14	469

Chi-Square	df	Significance	Critical χ^2
17.4	8	.025	15.50

As Table 15 displays, the observed Chi-Square statistic is 17.4, which is greater than the critical Chi-Square. This finding shows that there is a significant difference among the groups in their choice of strategies for realization of FAH with the members of the same gender. Another Chi-Square was administered to find the possible difference between the strategies employed by the EFL and NST groups. The results (observed χ^2 11.7, critical χ^2 3.84) revealed that the EFL group deviated significantly from the NST group. However, by considering the number of the strategies employed by the groups, it can be said that the EFL group has carried over the high use of strategies from Turkish into English.

4.2.11.1. Example Utterances

The example utterances of the situation of the 'Male – Male Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing FAH' are as follows:

ST/ST Relationships

NSE   *I am really struggling in this course and need to pass the final. Are you in a study group or would you mind starting one?*

EFL   *Would you make it possible and teach me Math, please?*

NST   *Arkadaşım rica etsem matematik dersi konusunda bana yardımcı olabilir misin?* (My friend, if I ask you, can you help me with math?)

As the speakers ask for a favor with high imposition, all of them prefer to use the NP strategy.

FR/FR Relationships

NSE *Listen. I am in a jam, my mother ruined the cake. Could you please stop at the bakery and pick one up?*

EFL *I don't do that; instead,* [sic] *go and buy it myself*

NST *Bir aksilik oldu gelince anlatırım ama acil olarak seni aradım. . Ben çok sıkışık durumdayım. Gelirken... pastahaneye uğrayıp... adet kek alırmısın.*
(There was an unfortunate incident. When you come, I will explain but I called you urgently. I am very hard pressed. While coming, can you stop by ... pastry shop, can you buy ... cake?)

The NSE group uses more direct strategy to realize the act. The EFL group opts out of doing the act. The NST group gives detailed information to the hearer.

CO/CO relationships

NSE *Do you have enough room in your luggage to take this package to my sister?*

EFL *Could you please deliver this small package to my sister if possible when you arrive there? She will call you about it.*

NST *Benim bir paketim var kardeşime göndermem gereken şeyler var içinde. Giderken onu da götürebilir misin?*
(I have a package, in which there are necessary things which I should send to my sister. Can you take it when going?)

By using both the NP and PP strategies, all of the groups make an endeavor to ask for a favor.

ST/PR Relationships

NSE *Hi Dr. "Blank". I am stuck on a problem and I was wondering if you might be able to help me.*

EFL *I'm sorry but you are the only person that I can get help* [sic]*, may I ask [sic] your help?*

NST *Hocam rica etsem, zamanınız varsa, problemin çözümü hakkında bana yardımcı olabilir misiniz?*
(Professor, I ask you, if you have time, can you help me with the solution of the problem?)

The NST group by using three NP strategies in one utterance tries to realize the act in a very indirect and polite way.

CH/PR Relationships

NSE *Hey Dad, I'm going to miss my flight. Wake up and drop me off at the airport PLEASE!!!!!*

EFL *Hey Dad, wake and get up, you should take me to the airport immediately, all my friends are waiting [sic] me there, save my life.*

NST *Eyvah, aksiliğe bak, uyanamadım ve rezil oldum. Biletlerde bende. Ne olursa olsun alana yetişmem lazım. Baba beni meydana yetiştirebilir misiniz?*
(My God! What an unfortunate incident! I didn't wake up and am disgraced. I have the tickets. In any circumstance, I should get to the airport. Dad, can you take me to the airport?)

Both of the NSE and EFL groups use BR strategy, because they believe that there is an emergency for the act being realized. However, the NST group does not think so and again employs the NP strategy to ask for a favor.

EM/BO Relationships

NSE *Boss, please authorize my vacation. I know that two weeks notice is normally required, but I am willing to explore ways to make up for it when I return.*

EFL *Please sir, this vacation is very important both to me and my family [sic]. I will work for extra hours when I come back.*

NST *X... bey tatil konusunda önemli bir fırsat yakaladım. Eğer mümkünse bir defalık izin verebilir misiniz?*
(Mr. X, I got a very good chance of having a holiday. If it is possible, can you give me permission for once?)

There is a similarity between the NSE and EFL groups. Both of them remind their bosses about extra work hours that they will do after coming back from holiday. In other words, it can be said that the offer is a kind of *return favor*.

4.2.12. Hypothesis 12

In order to test the twelfth hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant difference among male NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of

FAH in their interactions with females.', a Chi-Square test was administered to the data obtained from the strategies which the male NSE, EFL and NST groups employed in their choice of strategies for realizing FAH in interactions with the members of the opposite gender. Table 16 shows the results:

Table: 16

Male – Female Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing FAH

Strategy Group	BR	PP	NP	OR	NA	Row Total
NSE	3	63	33	6	3	108
EFL	5	90	42	7	6	150
NST	3	44	59	6	5	117
Column Total	11	197	134	19	14	375

Chi-Square	df	Significance	Critical χ^2
17.6	8	.025	15.50

As Table 16 displays, the observed Chi-Square statistic is greater than the critical Chi-Square. In other words, there is a significant difference among the groups in their choice of strategies for realizing the speech act of the FAH with respect to the members of the opposite group. A further check (observed χ^2 15.2, critical χ^2 3.84) revealed that there is, indeed, a significant difference between the EFL and NST groups. However, according to the number of the strategies employed by the members of the groups, we may conclude that the EFL group has carried over the high frequency use of strategies from Turkish into the English norm.

A comparison between Tables 15 and 16 shows that the EFL and NSE groups have employed more PP and fewer NP strategies, in their interactions with members of the opposite gender. Also, NST employed both of the PP and NP strategies less frequently in interactions with the opposite gender. Hence, for all of the groups, the gender variable is an affecting factor to choose the strategies to interact with the interlocutors of the opposite gender.

4.2.12.1. Example Utterances

The example utterances of the situation of the 'Male – Female Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing FAH' are as follows:

ST/ST Relationships

NSE *Hi! How are you? I need help preparing for the Final. Can we get together or form a study group to hammer down the material? Dinner and drinks are on me!*

EFL *I don't know how to say [sic], but I need you to teach me math. Is it possible for you?*

NST *Ben bu konuyu tam olarak anlamadım. Yardımcı olabilir misin?*
(I didn't understand this subject exactly. Can you help me?)

The NSE group by offering *dinner and drinks* tries to remind the hearer of a *return favor*. Also, both of the NSE and EFL groups use more PP strategies to realize the act.

FR/FR Relationships

NSE *Hey Baby! Momma killed the cake. Pick up something from the French bakery on your way here.*

EFL *Would you do me a favor and buy a cake for me?*

NST *Arkadaşım kek yapılırken problem çıktı, benim için kek satın alabilir misin?*
(My friend, while making cake, something bad happened. Can you buy a cake for me?)

The NSE group uses BR strategy and directly asks for a favor although this favor was considered a favor asking with high degree of imposition. The use of BR strategy here may indicate that the act was an emergency, that is, buying a cake. Therefore, the NSE did not consider the other strategies and directly asks for the act.

CO/CO Relationships

NSE *N/A (I don't mix my work with my private life).*

EFL *Well, would you mind if I asked [sic] you to take this package to my sister?*

NST *Bavulunda yer varsa kız kardeşime göndermek istediğim paketi götürebilir misin?*
(If you have any space in your luggage, can you take the package which I want send to my sister?)

The NSE believes that the best way is to use NA strategy. However, the EFL and NST groups employ the NP strategy to realize the act.

ST/PR Relationships

NSE *Hello Professor! How have you been? You look like you've lost some weight since the last time I saw you. Can you spare some time to explain something to me?*

EFL *I'm sorry but you are the only person that I can get help, may I ask your help?*

NST *Hocam bir sorunum var. Acaba bana yardımcı olabilir misiniz?*
(Professor, I have a problem. I wonder if you can help me.)

The NSE group very clearly uses the PP strategy to ask for a favor. Before asking for help, he talks about the weight losing of the professor then he talks about the main subject. He uses the first minor strategy of employing PP. At first, he attends to the H's interests and then asks for help.

CH/PR Relationships

NSE *Get out of bed now I have an emergency!*

EFL *Mom, please give me a drive to the airport immediately, please...*

NST *Sabahın körü olduğu için annemden beni havaalanına götürmesini istemem.*
(As it is very early in the morning, I don't ask my mother to give me a ride to the airport.)

The NSE group uses BR strategy, because he thinks the emergency of the act is the most important thing at that time. The EFL group makes the request a little indirect by using the words *please*. The NST group does not prefer to do the act at all, because he thinks about his mother on her way back home.

EM/BO Relationships

NSE *Please Boss I beg you to consider the situation.*

EFL *I know this is unwise to ask but is it possible to have some holiday with your permission?*

NST *Patron beni bu seferlik idare eder misiniz?*
(Boss, can you get by this time?)

The EFL group uses the longest utterance.

4.2.13. Hypothesis 13

In order to test the thirteenth hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant difference among male NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of GR in their interactions with males.', a Chi-Square test was administered to the data which was obtained from the male NSE, EFL and NST groups in their choice of strategies in the realization of the speech act of GR when they interact with the members of the same gender. Table 17 displays the results:

Table: 17

Male – Male Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing GR

Strategy\\Group	BR	PP	NP	OR	NA	Row Total
NSE	3	72	39	3	12	129
EFL	5	96	35	5	25	166
NST	9	79	51	9	33	181
Column Total	17	247	125	17	70	476

Chi-Square	*df*	Significance	Critical χ^2
13.4	8	.10	15.50

As Table 17 displays, the observed Chi-Square statistic is 13.4, which means the thirteenth null hypothesis is *supported*. It indicates that there is *no* significant difference among the male NSE, EFL and NST groups in their choice of strategies in the realization of the GR with the members of the same gender. For a further check, another Chi-Square test was administered to see whether there is a difference between the EFL and NST groups or not. The results (observed χ^2 6.7, critical χ^2 3.84) revealed that there is a significant difference between the EFL and NST groups. Thus, as a whole, it is said that

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there is no significant difference among the groups; however, there is significant difference between the EFL and NST groups. Thus, it appears that the EFL group attempted to assimilate to the NSE group, but as the frequency of the strategies used by the EFL group is really higher than the NSE, it seems that EFL's attempt was not a successful one. As there is a high number of the strategies assigned by the EFL and NST groups, it seems that this has been carried over from Turkish into English norm.

4.2.13.1. Example Utterances

The example utterances of the situation of the 'Male – Male Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing GR' are as follows:

ST/ST Relationships

NSE   *I can't believe we actually pay to eat this stuff.*

EFL   *I think the staff do not eat such things.*

NST   *Bir şey söylemezdim. Çünkü onun suçu değil.*
(I didn't say anything. Because it isn't his fault.)

The NST group shows the highest number for not doing the act at all. As he does not utter what he wants to talk about, he cannot achieve his communication goals.

FR/FR Relationships

NSE   *I can't believe this! Why does this always happen to me when I am in a rush?*

EFL   *Can you believe this bloody electricity?*

NST   *Köyde mi yaşıyoruz şehirde mi?*
(Are we living in a village or a city?)

The NST speaker by using OR strategy wants to express his anger. The other two groups prefer the more direct strategies.

CO/CO Relationships

NSE   *If I had known that I was going to be working in the Antarctic, I would have asked for hazard pay.*

EFL   *Somebody should solve this problem; otherwise we'll find ourselves in hospitals.*

NST   *Bu ne rezalet! Bu koşullarda çalışılmaz. Patrona söyleyelim ya bir çare bulsun yada hastalanmadan işe ara verelim.*
(What a scandal! It is impossible to work in such conditions. We should tell the boss either to find a solution or stop working for a while before getting ill.)

The NSE group uses NP strategy and the EFL and NST groups use PP strategy to realize the act.

ST/PR Relationships

NSE   *I do not think my advisor needs to know my situation with my finances.*

EFL   *It is quite hard to live without working here, on the other hand it is very difficult both to work and to study.*

NST   *Bir şey söylemem. Doktora yapmak benim secimim ve her şeyi kendim çözmeliyim.*
(I don't say anything. It is my own choice to do my PhD studies and I should solve everything myself.)

The speakers believe that they cannot say anything to the hearers, because it is their private problem and as a result of this the number of the NA strategy increases.

CH/PR Relationships

NSE   *If he takes the picture down from my side of the room again I am going to beat him, so talk to him and let him know.*

EFL   *Dad, can you remind my brother that I am older than him?*

NST   *Babama söyleyip azar mı işiteyim. Söylemem.* (Telling it to my father and being dressed down! I don't tell him.)

The NSE group employs both the NP and BR strategies and the EFL group uses the NP to realize the act. The NST group because of his interesting reason rejects doing the act.

EM/BO Relationships

NSE   *(Boss's name) other people come in to my office to use some of the books on the shelf and to get their mail, however, before they leave they make a mess. Is there something you can say to them so that they treat my office with more respect?*

EFL   *I am not happy with the mess created by the staff.*

NST *Kusura bakmayın burada iş yoğunluğu fazla arkadaş dağıtıyor biraz.*
(Excuse me, there is a heavy workload here and the friend makes a little mess.)

This is one of the exceptional cases in which the NSE group makes longer utterances than the other two groups.

4.2.14. Hypothesis 14

In order to test the fourteenth hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant difference among male NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of GR in their interactions with females.', a Chi-Square test was administered to the data obtained from the strategies which the male NSE, EFL and NST groups employed regarding the realization of GR in their interactions with the members of the opposite gender. Table 18 displays the results:

Table: 18

Male – Female Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing GR

Strategy Group	BR	PP	NP	OR	NA	Row Total
NSE	6	69	36	6	15	132
EFL	4	105	30	4	21	164
NST	7	90	57	8	27	189
Column Total	17	264	123	18	63	485

Chi-Square	*df*	Significance	Critical χ^2
12.7	8	.20	15.50

As Table 18 shows, the observed Chi-Square statistic is 12.7, and less than the critical Chi-Square. In this sense, the fourteenth hypothesis is *supported*, indicating that there is *no* significant difference among the groups in their choice of strategies when they interact with the members of the opposite gender in the realization of GR. However, a further check (observed χ^2 10.8, critical χ^2 3.84) revealed that there is significant difference between the EFL and NST groups. In other words, the frequencies in Table 18 show that

the EFL group has significantly employed fewer strategies than the NST. Therefore, it appears that the EFL group tried to assimilate to the NSE, but because of the high frequency of the strategies employed by the EFL, it was not a successful attempt. Nevertheless, the results indicate that the high use of strategies for the EFL seems to have been carried over from Turkish into English usage.

Another important point observed in the Tables of 17 and 18 is that all of the groups employed a higher number of the strategy NA and fewer number of the strategy NP. In other words, the male speakers preferred not to do the FTA in GR when they interacted with the members of the same and opposite gender. With respect to the degree of the directionality of the strategies (see Fig. 2, in section 3.5.3.), we may conclude that the male participants preferred to be really indirect which, is the most polite form of the continuum.

As for the gender variable, by comparing the Tables 17 and 18, it seems that there is no difference in the realization of the speech acts. In other words, the gender factor does not play an important role to affect the survey groups' choice of strategies.

4.2.14.1. Example Utterances

Before discussing the utterances, it should be noted that none of the groups showed any difference in the employment of the strategies when they talked with the opposite gender. However, in order to discuss more statements, the utterances of different speakers were chosen to be analyzed along the following lines. The example utterances of the situation of the 'Male – Female Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing GR' are as follows:

ST/ST Relationships

NSE *I wouldn't, she might think its good and get mad.*

EFL *The food isn't delicious at all.*

NST *Ona şikayet etmem. Direkt yönetime başvururum.*
(I don't complain to her. I go directly to the administration.)

The NSE and NST groups prefer not to the act at all. The strategy of the NA was used with a very high frequency.

FR/FR Relationships

NSE *Hey Baby! I am sorry for not having backed up our work, but we need to knuckle down and get this done...*

EFL *Guess! What happened, everything has gone, we should begin from the beginning.*

NST *Yazdıklarımı kaydetmemek beni kendi suçum arkadaşıma bir şey demem.*
(It is my fault not to save my project, so I don't say anything to my friend.)

The NSE and EFL groups both employ the PP strategy by using the pronoun of *we*. However, once again the employment of the NA strategy is the EFL group's preference.

CO/CO relationships

NSE *I don't think I can work like this all week. It is too cold for me to be here if they don't fix it soon I am going to have to go home.*

EFL *They don't think about us. They should have found another way to heat the building.*

NST *Allah aşkına hiç böyle işyeri mi olur?*
(For God's sake, is there such a kind of workplace?)

The NSE prefers to use the NP strategy. The EFL and NST use PP strategy.

ST/PR Relationships

NSE *I'm in dire straits. Can you spare some change? I'll gladly repay you after I graduate.*

EFL *Well, I know I have to catch up with the dissertation but I have to work part-time for a living, too.*

NST *Hocam bu durumlarda olacağımı bilseydim doktoraya sanırım hiç başlamazdım.*
(Professor, if I had known that I would be in such situation, I wouldn't have started the doctoral studies.)

All of the groups use the NP strategy.

CH/PR Relationships

NSE *Mom, you seriously need [sic] explain the concept of seniority to my younger brother.*

EFL *I don't say anything. It's our problem.*

NST *Bu sorun ben ve kardeşim arasında olan bir şeydir. Anneme bir şey söylemem.*
(This is a problem between my brother and me. I don't say anything to my mother.)

This situation is one of those which speakers mostly preferred the NA strategy.

EM/BO Relationships

NSE *NA (I would look into finding ways to resolve the situation without involving the boss; furthermore running to the boss about co-workers is not conducive to maintaining a good rapport with coworkers).*

EFL *Sorry for the mess, but these are not mine but others.*

NST *Efendim, bu ve benzeri dağınıklıklardan dolayı bir yazı ile çalışanlara gerekli uyarılarda bulunmamız mümkün olabilir mi?*
(Sir, is it possible for us to warn workers on account of this and such mess by a piece of writing?)

The NSE group prefers not to do the act at all. The EFL and NST groups use the NP strategy.

4.2.15. Hypothesis 15

In order to test the fifteenth null hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant difference among male NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of CM in their interactions with males.', a Chi-Square test was administered to the data obtained from the male NSE, EFL and NST groups in their choice of strategies employed to realize the speech act of the CM with the members of the same gender. Table 19 shows the results:

Table: 19

Male – Male Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing CM

Strategy \ Group	BR	PP	NP	OR	NA	Row Total
NSE	3	75	39	6	12	135
EFL	7	115	67	7	12	208
NST	5	60	77	5	10	157
Column Total	15	250	183	18	34	500

Chi-Square	df	Significance	Critical χ^2
15.6	8	.05	15.50

As displayed, the observed Chi-Square statistic is 15.6, which is greater than the critical Chi-Square. Hence, there is a significant difference among the groups in their choice of strategies when they interact with the members of the same gender in the realization of the CM. For a further check, another Chi-Square test was administered and the results (observed χ^2 11.6, critical χ^2 3.84) showed that there is, in fact, a significant difference between the EFL and NST groups in their choice of strategies. In other words, once again, the EFL group deviated from both the NSE and NST groups. However, by comparing the frequency of the strategies employed, the results indicate that the EFL group has carried over the high frequency use of strategies from Turkish into English.

4.2.15.1. Example Utterances

The example utterances of the situation of the 'Male – Male Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing CM' are as follows:

ST/ST Relationships

NSE   *What happened to my calculator?*

EFL   *You owe me the one you broke down.*

NST   *Açıkçası kendime kızardım....*
       (In fact, I would become angry with myself.)

The PP strategy is employed by the NSE group to realize the act. The EFL group uses the BR strategy and the NST group prefers to employ the NA strategy. They all use different strategies to complain to the hearer.

FR/FR Relationships

NSE *Better late than never. Did you carry this book thru the jungle?*

EFL *Look, what have you done, when I gave this, do you remember how it was?*

NST *Bilseydim kitabımı bu kadar detaylı okuyacaksın yaprakların arasına kağıt koyardım.*
(If I had known you would read the book in such a detailed way, I would have put some paper among the pages.)

The NST group uses the OR strategy in a very clever way. The other two groups use the PP strategy. The NSE group mixes the OR strategy with PP.

CO/CO relationships

NSE *It looks like you are going to have to stay late.*

EFL *What do you think you are doing? Don't you realize that we have a lot to do?*

NST *Arkadaşım biz burada çırpınırken, senin yaptığın doğru mu?*
(My friend, while we are exerting effort here, is what you are doing right?)

Both the EFL and NST groups employ the PP strategy; however, the NSE group prefers to use the OR strategy by giving hints.

ST/PR Relationships

NSE *Can you please give me another role?*

EFL *Nothing. I would try to do my best.*

NST *Hocam bana güveninize teşekkür ederim. Ancak diğer arkadaşlara da şans tanıyabilir misiniz? Ben yine onlara yardımcı olurum.*
(Professor, thank you for trusting me. However, can you give a chance to other friends? I will help them, too.)

The NSE group uses the PP, and the EFL prefers the NA strategy. The NST group employs the NP strategy.

CH/PR Relationships

NSE *Isn't it time for someone else to give up their* [sic] *room?*

EFL *This time I won't sacrifice my room.*

NST *Baba, misafir başımızın tacı. Ancak misafir odamız eksik. Misafir odası yaptırabilir miyiz?*
(Dad, guests are very important for us; however, we don't have a guest room. Can we prepare a guest room?)

The NST group uses an OR and an NP strategy to make the complaint indirect.

EM/BO Relationships

NSE *Explain the reasoning to me behind this decision.*

EFL *I am sure that you are going to consider our previous service and think twice on your decision, we really do not deserve such a treatment.*

NST *İşten çıkarılmaları değerlendirirken hangi kriterleri göz önüne aldığınızı anlayamadım. Hele terfi aldıktan sonra, herhalde referans mektubu yerine geçecek.*
(I can't understand which criteria you considered when you were evaluating the firings? Especially after getting the promotion, it certainly will be a letter of recommendation.)

The NSE group uses the BR strategy. The other two groups use the PP strategy.

4.2.16. Hypothesis 16

In order to test the sixteenth hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant difference among male NSE, EFL and NST groups in the strategies employed in realizing the speech act of CM in their interactions with females.', a Chi-Square test was administered to the data obtained from the strategies employed by the male NSE, EFL and NST groups in the realization of CM in their interactions with the members of the opposite gender. Table 20 displays the results:

Table: 20

Male – Female Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing CM

Strategy / Group	BR	PP	NP	OR	NA	Row Total
NSE	6	84	45	3	12	150
EFL	4	120	78	8	16	226
NST	7	62	88	6	10	173
Column Total	17	266	211	17	38	549

Chi-Square	df	Significance	Critical χ^2
22.8	8	.002	15.50

As Table 20 illustrates, the observed Chi-Square statistic is 22.8, which is greater than the critical Chi-Square. This finding means that there is, indeed, a significant difference among the groups regarding their choice of strategies on CM in their interactions with the members of the opposite gender. The results (observed χ^2 14.6, critical χ^2 3.84) revealed that there is a significant difference between the EFL and NST groups. This means that the EFL group has deviated from both the NSE and NST groups. Nevertheless, the high frequency use of strategies employed by the EFL speakers displays that they transferred the Turkish norms into English.

By comparing the Tables 19 and 20, it can be said that the male speakers of the NSE and EFL employed more or less the same number of the strategies when they complain to the members of the opposite gender. In other words, the gender variable, for all groups, does not make a difference in their choice of strategies to complain to the opposite gender.

4.2.16.1. Example Utterances

Before discussing the utterances, it should be reiterated that none of the groups showed any difference in the employment of the strategies when they talked with the opposite gender. However, in order to discuss more statements, the utterances of different speakers were chosen to be analyzed in the following lines. The example utterances of the situation of the 'Male – Female Frequency and Type of Strategies for Realizing CM' are as follows:

ST/ST Relationships

NSE *You need to buy me a new calculator.*

EFL *I wouldn't say anything to him*

NST *Tamir ettir olmuyorsa çöpe at ve benden ve arkadaşlarından aldığın eşyayı daha dikkatli kullan.*
(Have it repaired. If it isn't possible, throw it away and use carefully the stuff that you borrow from your friends and me.)

Both of the NSE and NST groups use the BR strategy; however, the EFL group prefers not to the act at all.

FR/FR Relationships

NSE *I think you need to buy me a new one and keep this one for yourself.*

EFL *Is this the book I gave you?*

NST *Anlaşılan kitaptan çok etkilenmişsin. Bari hırsını çıkarmak için kendine sahaftan bir tane alsaydın ya. Ayrıca senin için önemli olanları benim bilmeme gerek yoktu.*
(It seems that you have been affected very much by the book. At least, in order to vent your spleen on, you could buy a copy for yourself from the publisher. Also, it wasn't necessary for me to know what was important for you.)

All of the groups use different strategies to realize this act. The NSE uses NP, the EFL uses PP and the NST uses OR to complain to hearer.

CO/CO relationships

NSE *We need to get this done today. You have not done anything for the past hour. Let's get some work done.*

EFL *It is better you start working as I do because I am not your servant here we are equals.*

NST *Benim bu yoğunluğumu görüp de hiç için sıkılmıyor mu?*
(Don't you become frustrated seeing me in such a busy condition?)

All of the groups use the PP strategy.

ST/PR Relationships

NSE *I wouldn't. I would see the task as a challenge and go with it because in school as will as in the work force life is not fair.*

EFL   *Would you please lessen the burden on me?*

NST   *Şikayet etmezdim. Çünkü gerçek hayatta kimse senin problemlerinle ilgilenmiyor.*
(I wouldn't complain, because in real world, nobody cares about your problems.)

Both of the NSE and NST groups prefer to use the NA strategy. Both of the groups think that it is not a good idea to complain to the professor. However, the EFL group by using the PP strategy realizes the act.

CH/PR Relationships

NSE   *Can't they sleep in someone else's room for a change?*

EFL   *Mom, for God's sake, can't our guests sleep in another room, please? I cannot sleep out of my bedroom.*

NST   *Ne yapalım misafirdir işte. Bir şey söylenmez.*
(What can we do, they are guests. Nothing can be said.)

Both of the NSE and EFL groups complain about the giving their room to the guests; however, the NST group prefers to say nothing.

EM/BO Relationships

NSE   *Nothing (this is a situation that I've personally witnessed on several occasions; no amount of pleading will reverse the winds of change).*

EFL   *I would like to learn the criteria for being made redundant, if possible.*

NST   *10-yıllık çalışmamın karşılığı buysa napalım genç arkadaşlarla size başarılar derim.*
(If the reward to 10-year working is this, what can we do? I wish you success with your young workers.)

Both of the EFL and NST groups complain to their boss by using the NP strategy and the NSE prefers not to say anything.

4.3. Question Two

In order to answer the second question of the study, that is, 'Are FAL and GR less face threatening, or more specifically, less imposing than FAH and CM, respectively?', six null

hypotheses were stated. In the following paragraphs, the results of the tests of hypotheses are illustrated and discussed.

4.3.1. Hypothesis 17

In order to test the seventeenth hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant difference in the perceived degree of imposition between FAL and FAH for the NSE.', a Chi-Square test was administered to the data obtained from the NSE in their rankings of imposition in speech acts of FAL and FAH. Table 21 displays the results:

Table: 21

NSE Imposition Rankings of FAL and FAH

Imposition Speech Act	1	2	3	Row Total
FAL	182	27	6	215
FAH	102	62	32	196
Column Total	284	89	38	411

Note: 1= Least imposing, 2= Moderately imposing, 3= Very imposing

Chi-Square	*df*	Significance	Critical χ^2
53.4	2	.00001	5.99

As seen in the table, the observed Chi-Square statistic is greater than the critical Chi-Square, which leads to the rejection of the seventeenth hypothesis. This result indicates that for the NSE, there is, indeed, a significant difference in the ratings of the imposition between FAL and FAH. By considering scale 1 in FAL, one finds that the NSE assigned the highest value to this scale, which means the rate of 'not difficult' is significantly higher than the other rates. By considering FAH, it can be observed that the rate of scale '1' decreased and the rates of scales '2' and '3' increased. Hence, it can be understood that for the NSE group the speech act of FAH is more imposing than FAL, because the rates of '2' and '3' meant 'moderately difficult' and 'very difficult'.

4.3.2. Hypothesis 18

In order to test the eighteenth hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant difference in the perceived degree of imposition between FAL and FAH for the EFL.', a Chi-Square test was administered to the data obtained from the EFL in their ranking of impositions for the speech acts of FAL and FAH. Table 22 shows the results:

Table: 22

EFL Imposition Rankings of FAL and FAH

Speech Act \ Imposition	1	2	3	Row Total
FAL	152	97	27	276
FAH	114	98	58	270
Column Total	266	195	85	546

Note: 1= Least imposing, 2= Moderately imposing, 3= Very imposing

Chi-Square	df	Significance	Critical χ^2
16.5	2	.0001	5.99

As shown, the observed Chi-Square statistic is greater than the critical Chi-Square, which leads to the rejection of the eighteenth hypothesis. This finding reveals that to the EFL group, there is a significant difference between the FAL and FAH with respect to imposition. The frequencies in the table show that in the speech act of FAL, the EFL gave the highest rank for the rate of '1', which indicates least imposition. Furthermore, their ratings on 2 and 3 tend to decrease. However, with FAH, it is observed that a higher number of ratings was given to the rate of '3', which means it was very imposing and 'very difficult' for the EFL to make such requests. In other words, in FAH, as the rate of 'very difficult' increased, which means the realization of the FAH was more difficult for the respondents.

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4.3.3. Hypothesis 19

In order to test the nineteenth hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant difference in the perceived degree of imposition between FAL and FAH for the NST.', a Chi-Square test was administered to the data obtained from the NST in their ranking of imposition for the speech acts of the FAL and FAH. Table 23 displays the results:

Table: 23

NST Imposition Rankings of FAL and FAH

Imposition / Speech Act	1	2	3	Row Total
FAL	222	91	35	348
FAH	165	117	65	347
Column Total	387	208	100	695

Note: 1= Least imposing, 2= Moderately imposing, 3= Very imposing

Chi-Square	df	Significance	Critical χ^2
20.4	2	.00002	5.99

As seen in the table, the Chi-Square statistic observed is 20.4, which is greater than the critical Chi-Square. This means the nineteenth hypothesis is rejected. In other words, to the NST, FAL is less face threatening than FAH. The NST group rated the FAL mostly as '1' which indicates the least imposing; however, in FAH, the numbers of the scales 2 and 3 increased and the number for the scale 1 decreased dramatically, which means for the NST, FAH is more face threatening than the FAL.

In order to find out whether the speech act of GR is less face threatening or less imposing than CM for the NSE, EFL, and NST, hypotheses 20 - 22 were posed. In the following paragraphs, the results of the administered tests are illustrated and discussed.

4.3.4. Hypothesis 20

In order to test the twentieth hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant difference in the perceived degree of imposition between GR and CM for the NSE.', a Chi-Square test was administered to the data obtained from the ratings which the NSE attributed to the speech acts of the GR and CM. Table 24 displays the results:

Table: 24

NSE Imposition Rankings of GR and CM

Imposition / Speech Act	1	2	3	Row Total
FAL	144	45	17	206
FAH	116	62	38	216
Column Total	260	107	55	422

Note: 1= Least imposing, 2= Moderately imposing, 3= Very imposing

Chi-Square	df	Significance	Critical χ^2
13.3	2	.001	5.99

As illustrated, the observed Chi-Square statistic is 13.3, which means the twentieth hypothesis is rejected. This finding shows that there is a significant difference for the NSE group between the GR and CM on the basis of the imposition regarding the speech acts. The frequencies of the FAH show a decrease for the scale '1' indicating least imposing and an increase for the scales '2' and '3' indicating moderately and very imposing. These changes display the greater imposition which the NSE group feels on the realization of the FAH.

4.3.5. Hypothesis 21

In order to test the twenty-first hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant difference in the perceived degree of imposition between GR and CM for the EFL.', a Chi-Square test

was administered to the ratings which the EFL group attributed to the imposition regarding the speech acts of the GR and CM. Table 25 displays the results:

Table: 25

EFL Imposition Rankings of GR and CM

Imposition / Speech Act	1	2	3	Row Total
FAL	154	82	34	270
FAH	115	95	60	270
Column Total	269	177	94	540

Note: 1= Least imposing, 2= Moderately imposing, 3= Very imposing

Chi-Square	*df*	Significance	Critical χ^2
13.4	2	.001	5.99

As Table 25 displays, the observed Chi-Square statistic is 13.4, which is greater than the critical Chi-Square. This finding shows that for the EFL group, there is a significant difference between the imposition caused by the speech acts of GR and CM. By comparing the frequencies, it can be observed that the EFL group, regarding the speech act of GR, assigned a heavier value to scale '1' which indicates least imposing. Then, with CM, values assigned for the rate of '2' and '3' increased and the value given for the scale '1' decreased. This means that to the EFL group, situations on GR are less face threatening than CM.

4.3.6. Hypothesis 22

In order to test the twenty-second hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant difference in the perceived degree of imposition between GR and CM for the NST.', a Chi-Square test was administered to the NST imposition ratings of the situations regarding GR and CM. Table 26 displays the results:

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Table: 26

NST Imposition Rankings of GR and CM

Speech Act \ Imposition	1	2	3	Row Total
FAL	238	63	43	344
FAH	200	97	47	344
Column Total	438	160	90	688

Note: 1= Least imposing, 2= Moderately imposing, 3= Very imposing

Chi-Square	*df*	Significance	Critical χ^2
10.5	2	.005	5.99

As Table 26 displays, the observed Chi-Square statistic, 10.5, is greater than the critical Chi-Square, and this leads to the rejection of the twenty-second hypothesis. This indicates that for the NST group, the realization of the GR is less imposing, or, in other words, less face threatening than CM. This finding is further displayed by comparing the frequencies of ratings. The NST group assigned a higher value for scale '1' in GR. When it comes to CM, the value of scale '1' decreased and the values assigned to the scales of '2' and '3' increased.

4.4. Question Three

In order to test the third question, that is, 'Is the perceived degree of imposition in the speech acts involved related to the social status (power) of the interlocutors?', three null hypotheses were posed. In the following analyses conducted to answer the third question, the data obtained from the groups regarding the above mentioned six relationships were pooled into two categories of equal and unequal. Then, the ratings which survey groups assigned to the imposition of the equal and unequal status power were calculated.

It should be reiterated that the social status in the WDCT was classified into equals and unequals. The equal social status relationships are those including the same rank or power, namely, student/student, friend/friend, and co-worker /co-worker. The unequal status

relationships involve interlocutors of a higher rank in power, namely, child/parent, student/professor and employee/boss.

4.4.1. Hypothesis 23

In order to test the twenty-third hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant relationship in the rating of imposition of the speech acts concerned with respect to the social status (equal/unequal) of the interlocutors for the NSE.', a Chi-Square test was administered to the data obtained from the ratings of imposition which the NSE interlocutors assigned to the equal and unequal power relationships. Table 27 shows the results:

Table: 27

NSE Imposition Ratings on Social Status of Interlocutors

Imposition Speech Act	1	2	3	Row Total
FAL	292	94	46	432
FAH	271	102	47	420
Column Total	563	196	93	852

Note: 1= Least imposing, 2= Moderately imposing, 3= Very imposing

Chi-Square	df	Significance	Critical χ^2
0.7	2	.70	5.99

As Table 27 shows, the observed Chi-Square statistic is 0.7, which is less than the critical Chi-Square. It means that the twenty-third hypothesis is *supported*. In other words, there is *no* significant relationship between the NSE's ranking of imposition with regards to equal and unequal status. For a further check, the frequency of the values can be compared. In unequal status, although the value of scale '1' decreased, the value assigned for scale '3' is not increased. In other words, for the NSE group the weight of imposition in both the equal and unequal status relationships are the same. This finding shows that to the NSE males and females, on the whole, the variable of power does not play an important role for their being imposed. In other words, the NSE members do not feel imposed when

interacting with the members of a higher social status in comparison with an interlocutor of a same level of social status.

4.4.2. Hypothesis 24

In order to test the twenty-fourth hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant relationship in the perceived degree of imposition of the speech acts concerned with respect to the social status (power) of the interlocutors for the EFL.', a Chi-Square test was administered to the data obtained from the EFL groups' ranking of imposition regarding the interlocutor's social status. Table 28 shows the results:

Table: 28

EFL Imposition Ratings on Social Status of Interlocutors

Speech Act	Imposition 1	2	3	Row Total
FAL	283	195	70	548
FAH	252	177	109	538
Column Total	535	372	179	1086

Note: 1= Least imposing, 2= Moderately imposing, 3= Very imposing

Chi-Square	_df_	Significance	Critical χ^2
10.4	2	.005	5.99

As Table 28 displays, the observed Chi-Square statistic is 10.4, which indicates that the twenty-fourth hypothesis is rejected. It means that there is a significant relationship between the EFL's ranking of imposition with regards to interlocutors of equal and unequal social status. The EFL group assigned a very high value to scale '1' for the imposition of equal status situations. Nevertheless, this value decreased with the unequal status relationships, and the value assigned to scale '3' for unequal relationships increased significantly. This result indicates that the EFL group found the unequal status relationships significantly more imposing than the equal status relationships. Hence, the EFL group considers the power variable an indicating factor in their rating of imposition.

Contrary to the NSE group, they feel more imposed when they interact with an interlocutor from the higher social status.

4.4.3. Hypothesis 25

In order to test the twenty-fifth hypothesis, that is, 'There is no significant relationship in the perceived degree of imposition of the speech acts concerned with respect to the social status (power) of the interlocutor for the NST.', a Chi-Square test was administered to see whether the NST groups' ranking of imposition was affected by the social status of the interlocutor or not. Table 29 displays the results:

Table: 29

NST Imposition Ratings on Social Status of Interlocutors

Speech Act \ Imposition	1	2	3	Row Total
FAL	462	164	66	692
FAH	390	204	98	692
Column Total	852	368	164	1384

Note: 1= Least imposing, 2= Moderately imposing, 3= Very imposing

Chi-Square	df	Significance	Critical χ^2
16.4	2	.0001	5.99

As seen, the observed Chi-Square statistic is 16.4, which is greater than the critical Chi-Square, in other words, the twenty-fifth hypothesis is rejected. In other words, for the NST group, there is a significant relationship between the rating of imposition with the speech acts involved in the interactions of equal and unequal social status. The NST group assigned the greatest value to score '1' of the equal status situations which means these situations are not imposing or face threatening for the NST group. Then, this score for '1' decreases in unequal social status relationships. Also, in comparison with equal status, the values of scores '2' and '3' increase significantly in unequal status situations which means that the NST group assigned a greater weight to the imposition of the unequal social status

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interactions. As a result, the NST group, like the EFL group, feel more imposed when they interact with an interlocutor of a higher level of social status.

From the above analyses and results (hypotheses 23-25), it can be concluded that the EFL group has assimilated with the NST and deviated from the NSE. For the EFL and NST groups, it seems that the social status of the interlocutors matters. However, for the NSE group, equal or unequal social status of their interlocutors does not have a significant effect.

CHAPTER 5

5. CONCLUSION

5.1. Introduction

This chapter will present the conclusions drawn from the findings of the study. It also includes an overview of the study, pedagogical implications, implications for the instrument of data collection, limitations of the study, as well as prospects for further research.

5.2. Overview of the Study

The aim of this study was to compare the politeness strategies which are employed across the American and Turkish societies within the speech acts of the favor asking (High and Low), griping, and complaining. The theoretical framework of this study was that of Brown and Levinson's (1987) paradigm which, as stated earlier (see section 1.4.), is one of the most commonly adopted frameworks for cross-cultural studies. This study also attempted to find out whether or not some speech acts, that is, FAH and CM, were more face threatening than others, that is, FAL and GR.

Data were collected from Turkish and American academicians by using the WDCT questionnaire (see section 3.4.). The quantitative analysis of the data was done by using the Chi-Square test. The qualitative analysis was done by examining the respondents' utterances elicited through a questionnaire. As a result of these analyses, the following conclusions were made.

5.3. Conclusions

With the first question which attempted to find whether or not there are significant differences among the male and female NSE, EFL and NST groups in their choice of strategies in carrying out the speech acts, the findings revealed that there is, in fact, a significant difference.

Considering the female speakers, all of the hypotheses (hypotheses 1-8) were rejected and it was revealed that there was a significant difference in the frequency of the strategies employed by the groups. A further check showed that the EFL group, except for one case, namely, the female-male FAH, deviated both from the NSE and NST groups; however, the high frequency of the strategies employed by the EFL group indicated that the EFL group transferred the overuse of strategies from Turkish into English.

With regards to the gender difference, female speakers of all groups in FAL, used more NP strategy when speaking with the members of the opposite gender. Also, the NST group used less PP as well. This result implies that all of the groups became more indirect in interactions with the opposite gender. With regard to the speech act of FAH, all of the female speakers of all groups used more NP when they interacted with the opposite gender. With the speech act of GR, there was no change in strategies. With the speech act of CM, NSE did not show any change; however, the EFL used less PP and NP and NST used more PP and less NP. It means that in CM with the opposite gender, the NSE group did not take into consideration the gender variable, but the EFL and NST did.

As for the male speakers, the results with the FAL display the fact that the EFL group deviated from both the NSE and NST groups and no gender difference was observed. In FAH, the male NSE and EFL speakers, as in the previous speech act, deviated from both the NSE and NST groups. However, this time the NSE and EFL male speakers used more PP and fewer NP strategies in interactions with the opposite gender. Also, the NST group showed a difference as well. They used fewer PP and NP strategies in interactions with the opposite gender. In other words, for all of the groups in the realization of the FAH opposite gender makes difference in comparison with the same gender.

The differences appear with the speech act of GR, that is, hypotheses 13 and 14, both of which were supported. The male speakers did not show a significant difference in their choice of strategies; however, the EFL group showed a significant difference with the NST group. Thus, it means that the EFL group wanted to become similar to the NSE group norms. Nevertheless, by considering the high frequency of the strategies employed by the EFL group, it would be reasonable to say that the high frequency use of strategies was carried over from Turkish into English. Another important difference came with the frequency of the strategy NA. The findings of hypotheses 13 and 14 revealed that as the male speakers employed an extraordinary high frequency of the strategy NA, the male speakers were not willing to gripe with their interlocutors, no matter whether they are of the same or opposite gender.

The male speakers, when CM with the members of the same and opposite gender, displayed a significant difference among the groups. Like other hypotheses, whether by considering the value of the administered Chi-Square or by comparing the frequency of the strategies, the EFL group seems to transfer the Turkish norms into English. It is also important to keep in mind that by comparing the frequency of the strategies which the male speakers employed in CM, no difference in interacting with the opposite gender manifested. In other words, for all groups, the gender variable was not a relevant factor to make them change the strategies that they employ with the same gender.

There were similarities and differences between the males' and females' conditions. For example, the cases of male FAL and FAH were like the females' cases. In other words, in the realization of these speech acts, the EFL group deviated from both the NSE and NST groups. With regards to gender, in FAL, only the female speakers are sensitive towards the gender variable; however, in FAH, both male and female speakers take into consideration this variable. In other words, it is because of the higher rank of imposition which FAH involves that both males and females pay attention to the factor of gender.

If, in the realization of the GR and CM, the strategies of the female and male speakers are to be compared, it was indicated that one of the most significant differences appeared here. The male speakers did not show any differences among their groups, and they were not willing to GR; however, the female groups differed from each other in the choice of the

strategies. With the similarities, it can be said that both female and male speakers did not show sensitivity to the gender variable. With the CM, the only difference between males and females was that NST and EFL females showed a difference towards the gender factor in interactions with the opposite gender; however, none of the male groups showed a difference to the gender factor when they CM to the opposite gender.

With the second question, it was determined that for all three linguistic/cultural groups, the speech acts of the FAL and GR were less imposing or in other words, less face threatening than the FAH and CM. This finding empirically supports Brown and Levinson's (1987) theories about the weightiness of some speech acts. They point out that the proportion of expenditures of services (including the provision of time) and of goods (including non-material goods like information) are determining factors in the assessment of imposition.

With the third question, both the NST and EFL groups perceived the level of imposition higher when they were interacting with a member of a higher social status. However, for the NSE group, the power of the interlocutor was not an important variable in determining their choice of strategies. In other words, they did not take into consideration the power of the interlocutor when they interacted with their participants.

In comparing all of the hypotheses with each other, one of the most striking points was the high frequency of the NA employed by the NST and EFL in comparing with the NSE. It shows that the native speakers of English do resort to linguistic means, that is, politeness strategies to achieve their communication goals. However, the NST and EFL groups more frequently preferred to opt out. Most of the respondents, in explaining their logic for opting out, pointed to the fact that they found it threatening to their own and H's face. However, it should be borne in mind that these groups failed to communicate, so they could not achieve their goals.

The other striking point was that the EFL group, in 14 situations out of 16, used longer utterances than the NST. In comparison with the NSE, in all situations, the EFL group used longer utterances than the NSE group. Additionally, there was a greater difference in the number of the strategies employed by these two groups (NSE and EFL). It appears that as

the EFL is communicating in a foreign language, in order to be sure that he/she is understood by the native speaker and there is not any miscommunication, the EFL uses more and more strategies which make his/her utterances longer.

As stated earlier (see section 1.1.), this study is a replication of the study carried out by Yarmohammadi (2003). In the following lines, some of the distinct similarities and differences which exist between these two studies are explained. Yarmohammadi (2003) found that there was a significant difference among the female groups in the realization of the acts. She also found that the Persian EFL speakers transferred the use of strategies from Persian into English. This is exactly the result which was found in this study. With regards to the male speakers, Yarmohammadi (2003) found that except for one situation, namely, male-female FAH, Persian EFL speakers acted significantly different from both the English and Persian native speakers. In other words, the hypothesis related to the strategies which male speakers use in interactions with the opposite gender in the realization of the FAH was supported. However, in this study, the hypotheses related to the male-male and male-female speakers' GR were supported. In spite of this, in both of the studies, the researchers according to the number of the strategies employed by all of the groups found that the Persian and Turkish EFL speakers transferred the use of strategies from their mother language into the English language.

One of the other similarities was the perceived degree of imposition which the survey groups considered in relation with the speech acts. In both of the studies, for all of the groups, FAL and GR were less imposing than the FAH and CM. However, there is a difference in the results gained by the data related to the power of the interlocutors. In the study done by Yarmohammadi (2003), the British native speakers of English and Persian EFL speakers groups displayed the fact that they take into consideration the power of the interlocutor. However, the native speakers of Persian did not consider the power of the interlocutor as a relevant factor to change their employed strategies in interactions with a participant of a higher power. In this study, it was the EFL and NST groups who considered the power of the interlocutor as an important factor to choose the politeness strategies, and the NSE group did not consider the power of the interlocutor in their interactions with the participant of the higher power.

5.4. Pedagogical Implications

There are several pedagogical implications which this study raises. This study reveals the fact that the learners of English as a foreign language, counter to their advanced linguistic competence, deviate from the native speech norms. Thus, the socio-cultural competence of the learners needs to be reinforced.

The most important implication of this study is that the EFL learners needs to remember that they could transfer their communication aims in the target language with a smaller number of strategies. Hence, they should be reminded to avoid lengthy utterances. These utterances can sound irrelevant and even annoying to the NSE and as a result, it will hinder the ease of communication.

The EFL learners need to know that the native speakers of English, more or less, do not alter the politeness strategies in accordance with the gender of the interlocutor. Thus, especially female EFLs should know that in interactions with the opposite gender, they could accomplish the FTA as directly as they do when they talk to the same gender. In other words, they should remember that the Turkish socio-cultural norms do not overlap with those of the target culture.

In addition, the EFL learners should be aware of the fact that native speakers of the American English do resort to politeness strategies to achieve their communication goals. However, the EFL learners mostly prefer not to do the act at all. Like American speakers, they should feel free to use other strategies rather than NA. If they do not do so, it means that they do not achieve their communication goals.

One of the most important implications is to provide situations in the classroom to practice the politeness strategies. For example, teachers can put forth discussions which involve the realization of the speech acts. Then, students can carry out the acts and compare the strategies employed with those which are used in their own native language. Also, the teachers can provide dialogues or films which involve speech acts, and then the students can discuss the appropriacy of the strategies employed in those interactions. The teacher can put forth speech situations like those in the questionnaires of this study and ask

the students to think about how they can realize the speech acts. Thus, the students can learn about the different social variables and find out the effect of each on the choice of strategies. One of the other things which the language teachers can do is to assign the students a speech act and then direct them to write a dialogue and engage in role-playing. Different speech acts can be played in different ways, that is, to apply different social status, social distances or genders in the role-playing activity. Hence, the students will be familiar with the strategies which are employed in different situations to realize different speech acts.

5.5. Implications for the Instrumentation of the Data Collection (DCT)

This study demonstrates the fact that the content-enriched type of DCT enables the researcher to gather the required data to accomplish cross-cultural studies related to the subject of speech acts. The responses of the survey group indicate the fact that participants found themselves in real speech situations, because their written responses were as if they were talking at that moment. For example, they called their interaction participant by their imaginary names, or their feelings of anger were easily understandable when they realized the speech act of CM. The other example which clarified the success of modified type of DCT is question No.21. As stated earlier (see section 3.4.4.), while conducting the pilot study, most of the respondents misunderstood this question. This happened because the given information for this question was less than what should be. In other words, it was not prepared within the requirements of the modified DCT. Therefore, in revising the questionnaire for the main study, more information was added and none of the respondents misunderstood this speech situation. Apart from this question, all of the other questions provided the required data even at the stage of the pilot study. This makes clear that the modified DCT proposed by Billmyer and Varghese (2000) can be the most suitable instrument for data collection in those studies which naturalistic ways are not possible.

5.6. Limitations

This study has some limitations which hinders generalization. Firstly, although the faculties and departments were randomly selected, the respondents of the questionnaires participated in the study on a voluntary basis. Also, the selection of the NSE group was on

a voluntary basis. This limitation made the study not generalizable within the cultural/linguistic communities. Secondly, the profession of all participants was a possible bias for the study of the gender variable. As the participants were academicians, the gender difference was studied less than what was expected. In other words, although the EFL and NST groups showed differences in terms of the gender variable as an affecting factor, it is assumed that if a different social class was considered as the participants, the findings for the gender variable could be more significant and the gender difference could be illustrated more clearly. Thirdly, the participants were not classified among themselves according to their teaching experience and this may have a bearing on the generalizability of the data. In other words, the academicians, from MA degree to Professors, were not included in different classifications. Finally, the data collection method was limited to WDCT, but other methods of data collection need to be administered to complete data.

5.7. Prospects for Further Research

Both the results of this study and scarcity of cross-cultural studies between American English and Turkish speaking communities raise some questions related to the realization of the speech acts within these communities. Here are some of the topics suggested for further research:

1) This study can be administered to a different social class or classes other than academicians. Then, it may be possible to say that more significant results can be achieved for the gender variable.

2) One of the limitations of this study was that the teaching experience was not considered. Another study may highlight the question of whether or not the EFL groups' employed strategies differ in comparison with their teaching experience. In other words, another research can study the following question: As the teaching experience of EFL teachers increases, do the strategies which they employ become more similar to those of NSEs?

3) Brown and Levinson (1987) introduce a formula to calculate the weightiness of the acts. The formula is $Wx = D (S, H) + P (H, S) + Rx$. In this formula, Wx is the weightiness of the speech act x. $D (S, H)$ is the value which measures the social distance between S and H. $P (S, H)$ is the value which displays the power of H over the S, and Rx refers to the degree to which the act is rated as an imposition in that particular culture. This formula

was not used to calculate the weightiness of the act, because it requires more information from the participants. The researcher was aware of the fact that the questionnaire of the study was a demanding one, so she did not want to request substantially more time of the participants. Another study can be done to calculate the rating of imposition by using this formula.

4) As considered in this study, there are five super strategies of BR, PP, NP, OR and NA to accomplish the politeness rules during linguistic communication; however, as stated through the sections of 2.7.4. to 2.7.8., each super strategy involves minor strategies. Further research can be useful to analyze and classify the employed strategies according to their minor strategies. Thus, it would be beneficial, especially for the teachers who teach the speaking skill to become aware of the details of the strategies employed by the groups.

5) Research on the relationship between gender and ranking of imposition would be complementary. In other words, it would be useful to find out whether or not there is a relationship between the gender of the interlocutor and ranking of imposition.

6) It is also interesting to study the possible relationship between the imposition involved in the speech acts like FAH and CM and the number of the strategies which are employed by the speakers. In other words, it can be examined whether or not there is a relationship between the rank of imposition of the speech acts and the length of utterances.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Chart of Strategies: Positive Politeness

(Source: Brown & Levinson, 1987, P.102)

Positive politeness
Do FTA on record plus
redress to:
H wants [S wants-H's wants]

5.3.1 Claim 'common ground'
(S & H ∈ {A} who want {X})

Convey 'X is admirable, interesting'
1. Notice, attend to H (his interests, wants, needs, goods)
2. Exaggerate (interest, approval, sympathy with H)
3. Intensify interest to H

Claim in-group membership with H
4. Use in-group identity markers

Claim common
5. Seek agreement
6. Avoid disagreement
7. Presuppose/raise/assert common ground
8. Joke

(point of view, opinions, attitudes, knowledge, empathy)

5.3.2 Convey that S and H are cooperators

Indicate S knows H's wants and is taking them into account
9. Assert or presuppose S's knowledge of and concern for H's wants

Claim reflexivity
10. Offer, promise
11. Be optimistic
12. Include both S and H in the activity
13. Give (or ask for) reasons

If H wants (H has X) then S wants (H has X)
If S wants (S has X) then H wants (S has X)

Claim reciprocity
14. Assume or assert reciprocity

5.3.3 Fulfil H's want (for some X)
15. Give gifts to H (goods, sympathy, understanding, cooperation)

APPENDIX B

Chart of Strategies: Negative Politeness

(Source: Brown & Levinson, 1987, P.131)
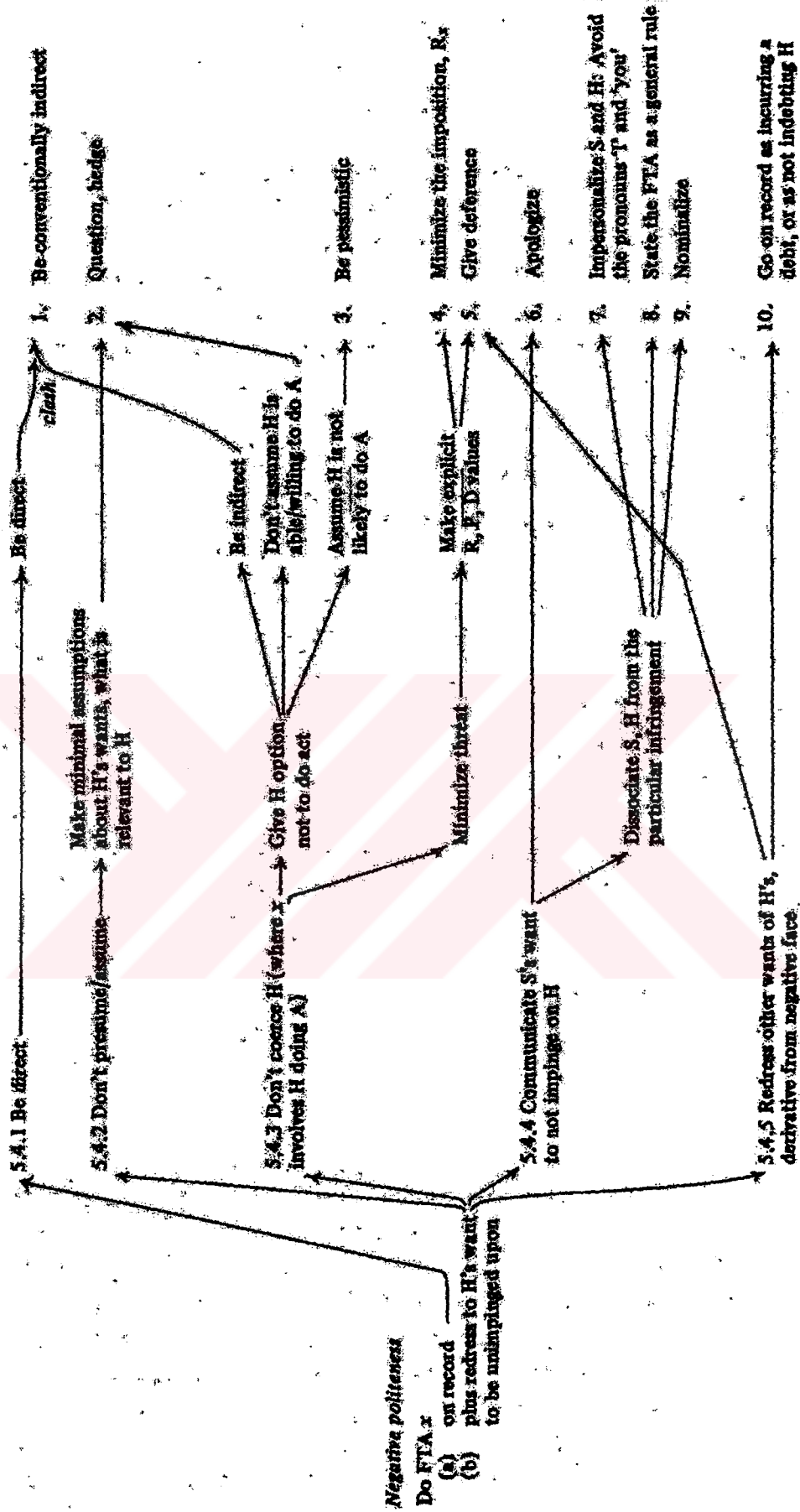
APPENDIX C

Chart of Strategies: Off record

(Source: Brown & Levinson, 1987, P.214)

		1.	Give hints → motives for doing A → conditions for A
	Violate Relevance Maxim	2.	Give association clues
		3.	Presuppose
		4.	Understate
	Violate Quantity Maxims	5.	Overstate
		6.	Use tautologies
5.5.1 Invite conversational implicatures, via hints triggered by violation of Gricean Maxims		7.	Use contradictions
	Violate Quality Maxim	8.	Be ironic
		9.	Use metaphors
		10.	Use rhetorical questions
		11.	Be ambiguous
		12.	Be vague
5.5.2 Be vague or ambiguous → Violate Manner Maxim		13.	Over-generalize
		14.	Displace H
		15.	Be incomplete, use ellipsis

Off record
Do FTA x, but
Be indirect

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APPENDIX D

The English version of WDCT

Dear Friend,

I am an MA student in Applied Linguistics, in the Department of English Language and Literature, at Karadeniz Technical University, Trabzon, Turkey. My area of study is cross-cultural linguistic politeness. The data required for this study is planned to be collected through a questionnaire, and the overall population of the study is the academicians. Therefore, this questionnaire has been sent to you. This questionnaire is designed to gather the data necessary for my study and your responses are of the greatest importance to me. You have 10-15 days to return it and feel free to fill out the questionnaire in more than one sitting. All responses will be kept strictly confidential and will only be used for research purposes. Thank you very much in advance for taking time out of your busy schedule to fill out this questionnaire.

<div align="right">Saye ZİBANDE</div>

Age   :
Sex   :

First language   :
Language(s) spoken at home   :

The university in which you are currently employed:
Degree(s) held or being sought   :

Instructions: Please read each situation carefully and imagine yourself in it. Then, write down *exactly what you* would say to your counterpart (interlocutor); remember the first set of questions (labeled as 'a') requires you to imagine your interlocutor as the *same sex* (if you are a male, imagine your counterpart as a male and vice versa) and the third set (labeled as 'c') as the *opposite sex* (if you are a male, imagine your counterpart as a female and vice versa).

NOTE: IF YOU HAPPEN TO OPT OUT (NOT SAY ANYTHING ON A PARTICULAR SITUATION) PLEASE SPECIFY THE REASEON WHY.

	YOUR ROLE	YOUR COUNTERPART'S (interlocutor's) ROLE
Questions 1-4	Student	Student

1. You are at the end of a history class, and you are sitting next to a student. You missed last week's class and need to borrow that student's notes. She/he has been in the same program as you for a year and you see her/him socially about once in a month in a group. You will also be taking classes together in the future. She/he is a good note-taker and one of the best students in the class. You decide to ask her/him for the notes.

a) What would you say to her/him if anything at all?

b) How difficult is it for you to make this request (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

c) How would you make this request (if at all) if the student were of the opposite sex?

d) How difficult would it be for you to make this request if she/he were of the opposite sex (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

****

2. You are a student and it's towards the end of the semester and exams are approaching. You have taken a course on mathematics, which has been very difficult for you. You feel you need to have extra hours of instruction otherwise you'll fail. You think of asking help from one of your classmates who is good at math but you are not very close with.

a) What would you say to her/him if anything at all?

b) How difficult is it for you to make this request (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

c) How would you make the request (if at all) if the student were of the opposite sex?

d) How difficult would it be for you to make this request if she/he were of the opposite sex (please check only one box)?

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Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

****

3. You're a student and you have your lunch everyday at the dining hall of the campus. The food isn't good at all and you think that even though it is cheap, it isn't worth the cost. A student whom you don't know is sitting across from you and looking at you.

a) How would you make this complaint (if at all) to the student sitting across from you?

b) How difficult is it for you to make this complaint (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

c) How would you make this complaint (if at all) if the student were of the opposite sex?

d) How difficult would it be for you to make this complaint if she/he were of the opposite sex (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

****

4. A student from your program with whom you are not close borrowed your scientific calculator for a mathematics exam last week. When returned, you realized that your calculator was no longer working. The calculator apart from being very expensive has great sentimental value because your parents gave it to you for your birthday. You have enquired and have been informed that it is irreparable and the model is irreplaceable.

a) What would you say to her/him if anything at all?

b) How difficult is it for you to make this complaint (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

c) How would you make this complaint (if at all) if the student were of the opposite sex?

d) How difficult would it be for you to make this complaint if she/he were of the opposite sex (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

****

	YOUR ROLE	**YOYR COUNTERPART'S (interlocutor's) ROLE**
Questions 5 - 8	Friend	Friend

5. It is now 1 a.m. on a cold winter night, and you're driving to your home. Suddenly, you realize that your car is overheated. You pull over and park your car. Not knowing what to do, you realize that one of your close friend's house is just around the corner, and you decide to knock on her/his door and ask if you could use her/his telephone to ask the auto recovery to come and rectify the problem.

a) What would you say to her/him (your friend) if anything at all?

b) How difficult is it for you to make this request (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

c) How would you make this request (if at all) if your friend were of the opposite sex?

d) How difficult would it be for you to make this request if she/he were of the opposite sex (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

****

6. You and your family have arranged to have a party, and you have been preparing for the last 3 days. You've made several dishes, but unfortunately your mother has ruined the cake. It's just 3 hours before your guests arrive and you have plenty of work to do. Nevertheless, you decide to phone a friend who is also invited to the party to buy a cake for you on the way to your house.

a) What would you say to her/him if anything at all?

b) How difficult is it for you to make this request (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult
☐   ☐   ☐

c) How would you make the request (if at all) if your friend were of the opposite sex?

d) How difficult would it be for you to make this request if she/he were of the opposite sex (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult
☐   ☐   ☐

****

7. You are going to hand in a project to your instructor in a few days. You have been working on this research for about 1 month and now you are writing it in your computer. Unfortunately, the electricity suddenly goes out and as you haven't saved your work, everything is deleted. You are very angry and think that electric company is at fault. Your friend who has helped you with this project is looking at you.

a) How would you complain about this to your friend (if at all)?

b) How difficult is it for you to make this complaint (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult
☐   ☐   ☐

c) How would you make this complaint (if at all) if your friend were of the opposite sex?

d) How difficult would it be for you to make this complaint if she/he were of the opposite sex (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult
☐   ☐   ☐

****

8. A friend of yours borrowed one of your favorite novels and promised that she/he would return it in 10 days. However, after about 4 months she/he delivered the book. Of course you were very angry with the delay, but it wasn't all, because when she/he gave the book to you, you see that the book is in a very bad condition: there are some lines drawn with pen under the lines, some pages have been crumpled and even torn.

a) What would you say to her/him if anything at all?

b) How difficult is it for you to make this complaint (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

c) How would you make this complaint (if at all) if your friend were of the opposite sex?

d) How difficult would it be for you to make this complaint if she/he were of the opposite sex (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

****

	YOUR ROLE	**YOUR COUNTERPART'S (interlocutor's) ROLE**
Questions 9 – 12	Co-worker	Co-worker

9. You have been in your office since 7:30 a.m. It is now 11 a.m., and it has been a hard day. Your desk is cluttered with memos that need to be distributed to several departments within your company. You are also desperate for a cup of coffee. You decide to ask a colleague of yours if she/he would make you a cup of coffee whilst you distribute the memos.

a) What would you say to her/him if anything at all?

b) How difficult is it for you to make this request (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

c) How would you make a request (if at all) if your co-worker were of the opposite sex?

d) How difficult would it be for you to make this request if she/he were of the opposite sex (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

****

10. One of your co-workers whom you've known for years is going to another city for a holiday. She/he happens to be going to the same town where your sister lives. You have got a package which you would like your sister to have. You decide to ask her/him to deliver this package to your sister.

a) What would you say to her/him if anything at all?

b) How difficult is it for you to make this request (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult
☐   ☐   ☐

c) How would you make this request (if at all) if your co-worker were of the opposite sex?

d) How difficult would it be for you to make this request if she/he were of the opposite sex (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult
☐   ☐   ☐

****

11. You arrive at work at 7:30 in the morning and you realize that the central heating has been off for the weekend. You check with the service section to enquire what the problem is. They inform you that there's going to be no central heating for the whole week. You're sitting in the office wearing a pair of gloves, a scarf around your neck and freezing to death. You are unable to work because of the freezing conditions.

a) What would you say to your co-worker regarding this situation if anything at all?

b) How difficult is it for you to complaint about this to your co-worker (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult
☐   ☐   ☐

c) How would you complain about it (if at all) if your co-worker were of the opposite sex?

d) How difficult would it be for you to make this complaint if she/he were of the opposite sex (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult
☐   ☐   ☐

****

12. It is 5:30 in the afternoon, and there's still work to be done in the office. This work has to be done today. Although you realize that you have done your utmost to accomplish the job, it is evident that your co-worker in your office is not attending towards her/his duties. Ideally, if your co-worker had been more productive throughout the course of the day, you would not be in the position that you are now in. You realize that she/he has spent at least an hour out of the office joking with other members of the staff whilst she/he was fully aware of the workload. After careful consideration you have decided to complain to her/him.

a) What would you say to her/him if anything at all?

b) How difficult is it for you to say it (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

c) What would you say in this regard (if anything) if your co-worker were of the opposite sex?

d) How difficult would it for you to say it if the co-worker were of the opposite sex (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

****

	YOUR ROLE	YOUR COUNTERPART'S (interlocutor)'S ROLE
Questions 13 - 16	Student	Instructor

13. You have just borrowed a pile of books from the library, and you're going to take the elevator, but you can't press the elevator button with all the books you're carrying. Just then, you see one of your instructors passing by. You think of asking her/him to press the elevator button for you.

a) What would you say to him/her if anything at all?

b) How difficult is it for you to make this request (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

c) How would you make this request (if at all) if your instructor were of the opposite sex?

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d) How difficult would it for you to make this request if the instructor were of the opposite sex (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult
☐   ☐   ☐

****

14. You are a student and have been working on your assignment in the library for a few hours. You come across a problem, which you think you can't solve and need to ask your professor for help. You know that your instructor is out of town for the next 3 days and you have to hand in your assignment soon after your instructor comes back. It just occurs to you that another instructor of yours with whom you haven't had any interactions since you passed her/his course with an A might be willing to help you.

a) What would you say to him/her if anything at all?

b) How difficult is it for you to make this request (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult
☐   ☐   ☐

c) How would you make this request (if at all) if your instructor were of the opposite sex?

d) How difficult would it be for you to make this request if the instructor were of the opposite sex (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult
☐   ☐   ☐

****

15. You're a doctoral student and 2 months ago when you started working on your dissertation, you decided to quit your part-time job in order to be able to concentrate more on your studies. However, when you calculated your cost of living and matched it against your savings, you realized that you couldn't possibly make do with your savings until you finish your studies. So last week you started your job, and this has made you depressed and also rather anxious. You now have an appointment with your dissertation advisor in her/his office.

a) How would you complain about your financial problem to your advisor (if at all)?

b) How difficult is it for you to complain about this (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

c) What would you say in this regard (if anything) if your instructor were of the opposite sex?

d) How difficult would it be for you to talk about this if the instructor were of the opposite sex (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

****

16. This is the third time you're taking a course with a professor who likes to assign a big group project for the students to do, and he himself sets the tasks for each student. When the tasks were all laid out and clarified, you realize that this is going to be the third time that you're assigned the most arduous task. In the other courses that you had with this professor, you had gotten an A in each of them and had been very competent and contributed to class discussions and have a reputation as one of the best students in the class. But you feel that this is unfair, and it's high time that your professor understood that the workload should be evenly distributed among the students.

a) What would you say to your instructor if anything at all?

b) How difficult is it for you to make this complaint to your instructor (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

c) How would you complain about it (if at all) if your instructor were of the opposite sex?

d) How difficult would it be for you to make this complaint if the instructor were of the opposite sex (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

****

	YOUR ROLE	YOUR COUNTERPART'S (interlocutor's) ROLE
Questions 17- 20	Child	Parents

17. You have just finished eating your breakfast and are about to leave the house to go to university. You realize that you should have collected your suit from the dry cleaner's yesterday. The dry cleaner's usually closes around 7.00 pm and you know that it won't be possible to collect the suit today. Your mother is sitting down, discussing her plans for the day with your father. You overhear that she is going to do some shopping in the same area as the dry cleaner's.

a) What would you say to your *mother*, if anything at all?

b) How difficult is it for you to make this request, if at all (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐ ☐ ☐

c) How would you make this request (if at all) if you were to ask your *father*?

d) How difficult would it be for you to make this request to your father (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐ ☐ ☐

****

18. You and your friends have made arrangements to go on a skiing trip together. You have made all the reservations and have everybody's tickets for the excursion. It is agreed that you will meet up with your friends outside the airport at 6.00 am on Tuesday. Unfortunately, on the day, your alarm clock does not work and you oversleep. You gather your things together as fast as possible and phone the local taxi company to send a car immediately. The agency informs you that they don't have a taxi available for another hour. You realize that all your friends are depending on you because you're holding the tickets for the trip. Without them, they cannot travel. Both of your parents are fast asleep in bed. It's likely that if one of your parents takes you to the airport immediately you'll get there just on time.

a) What would you say to your *mother*, if anything at all?

b) How difficult is it for you to make this request (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

c) What would you say (if anything) if you were to ask your *father?*

d) How difficult would it be for you to make this request to your father (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

****

19. You share your bedroom with your younger brother. There is a disagreement with your brother about the pictures on the wall. You want to hang landscape pictures on the walls of your side and the artists' pictures on the wall of your brother's side; however, your brother wants to fill all the walls with those artists' pictures. Every morning, you hang the landscape pictures on your side but after coming back from school you realize that they have been changed. Today it is the fifth day and there is no change. So you are going to explain the situation to your mother.

a) What would you say to your *mother* if anything at all?

b) How difficult is it for you to make this complaint (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult
☐   ☐   ☐

c) How would you complain if you were going to explain the situation to your *father?*

d) How difficult would it be for you to make this complaint to your *father* (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult
☐   ☐   ☐
****

20. The summer holiday is approaching and your parents inform you that relatives from out of town are going to be spending two whole weeks at your house! You overlook to ask your parents where your relatives will be sleeping. The day before their arrival your parents inform you that you'll have to give up your bedroom for the guests. There are four bedrooms in your apartment and you cannot understand why you have to sacrifice your room. The last time visitors stayed it was the same arrangement. You spend some time

thinking this over and decide to take the bull by the horns. Surely someone else in the household can give up their room. You decide it is time for your parents to show some consideration for your feelings.

a) What would you say to your *mother*, if anything at all?

b) How difficult is it for you to make this complaint (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

c) Suppose you were to make this complaint to your *father*, what would you say if anything at all?

d) How difficult is it for you to make this complaint to your *father* (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

****

	YOUR ROLE	YOUR COUNTERPART'S (interlocutor's) ROLE
Questions 21- 24	Employee	Boss

21. You are a secretary working for a construction company and have been working there for the past three years. Your boss has overlooked to provide you with an engineer's address and fax details that you need and you have no access to this information. You know that the relevant file is in her/his office. She/he contacts you regarding some other matter and confirms that <u>she/he is on her/his way to your office</u>.

a) a) How will you say (if at all) to your boss to bring for you the contact information?

b) How difficult is it for you to make this request (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

c) What would you say (if anything) if your boss were of the opposite sex?

d) How difficult would it be for you to make this request if your boss were of the opposite sex (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

****

22. Your relatives inform you that they will be spending the week at a luxurious villa at a holiday resort. The villa is very spacious so they invite you and other members of your family to come along for the week. It is an opportunity of a lifetime. But you have a problem – you are working. Usually, two weeks' notice in writing has to be given to your employer before holidays can be granted at the company you work for. You do not want to miss this vacation. The only chance of taking this holiday is, if your boss bends the rules on this occasion.

a) What would you say to your boss if anything at all?

b) How difficult is it for you to make this request (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

c) What would you say (if anything) if your boss were of the opposite sex?

d) How difficult would it be for you to say it if your boss were of the opposite sex (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

****

23. You work in the administration department of a large company. Other members of the staff regularly frequent your office to collect their mail and files. Occasionally they need to refer to reference books that are also kept on a shelf in your office. Apart from the distraction caused by numerous co-workers moving about your office you have recently noticed that people are not respecting your work area. Either, they remove reference books from the shelf and leave them on your desk or open their mail and discard the empty envelopes in your office. You like to work in a tidy environment so you automatically clear up after your co-workers. Your boss enters your office and sees you on the floor collecting empty envelopes. She/he doesn't say anything to you but she/he has a bewildered look on her/his face.

a) How would you complain about this problem to your boss if at all?

b) How difficult is it for you to complain about it to your boss (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

c) What would you say in this regard (if anything) if your boss were of the opposite sex?

d) How difficult would it be for you to say it if your boss were of the opposite sex (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

****

24. You have been working for a large trading company for the past 10 years and have recently been promoted. However, because of the economic recession, the employees of your company have been warned that some jobs are going to be axed. You're one of those unfortunate ones to receive a redundancy letter. Apart from being upset, you realize that a noticeable number of newly recruited staff have not been made redundant. You expected your job to be secure and that redundancies would have been handed to those that had not been in long term service. You are devastated by this news and you cannot accept this decision.

a) What would you say to your boss if anything at all?

b) How difficult is it for you to say it (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

c) What would you say in this regard (if anything) if your boss were of the opposite sex?

d) How difficult would it be for you to say it if your boss were of the opposite sex (please check only one box)?

Not difficult   Moderately difficult   Very difficult

☐   ☐   ☐

APPENDIX E

The Turkish Version of WDCT

Değerli Katılımcı,

KTÜ Batı Dilleri ve Edebiyatı Bölümü Uygulamalı Dil Bilimi programında yüksek lisans yapmaktayım. Çalışmamın konusu " kültürler arası konuşma dilinde nezaket kurallarıdır". Yaptığım çalışmada bilgi toplama aracı olarak anket kullanıyorum. Gerekli bilgiyi toplamak için bir anket hazırladım. Çalışmamın genel kitlesi, akademisyenlerdir. Bu nedenle size bu anketi veriyorum. Bu ankette sorulan sorulara vereceğiniz cevaplar benim için ve çalışmam için son derece önemlidir. Lütfen vereceğiniz cevaplarda son derece tabii olunuz. Bu anketi cevaplamak için 10–15 günlük bir cevaplama süreniz vardır. Anketi bir defada tamamlamanız gerekmez. Bu ankete katılanlar ve ankete verilen cevaplar sadece çalışma amaçlı kullanılacaktır. Çalışmaya katılanların isimleri ve verdikleri cevaplar kesinlikle gizli tutulacaktır ve hiç bir şekilde açıklanmayacaktır. Yardımlarınız için şimdiden çok teşekkür ederim.

Saye ZİBANDE

(Aşağıdaki bilgileri eksiksiz olarak cevaplanmanız önemle rica olunur!)

Yaş   :
Cinsiyet   :

Anadili   :
Evde konuşulan dil veya diller   :

Şu anda çalıştığınız kurum   :
Alınmış yâda alınacak diplomalar:

Önemli Açıklama: Lütfen her durumu dikkatlice okuyun ve kendinizi o durumda hayal edin. Sonra tam olarak karşınızdaki kişiye *ne söyleyeceğinizi* yazın. Unutmayın ki (a) şıkkında karşınızdaki şahıs *aynı cinsiyetten* olacak (yani siz bir erkeksiniz, karşınızdaki kişiyi de erkek olarak düşünün ya da tersi). (c) şıkkında karşınızdaki şahıs *karşı cinsiyetten* olacak (yani siz bir erkekseniz, karşınızdaki kişiyi kadın olarak düşünmeniz gerekiyor ya da tersi).

NOT: EĞER BİR DURUMDA KARŞIDAKİ KİŞİYE BİR ŞEY SÖYLEMEMEYİ TERCİH EDERSENİZ, LÜTFEN NEDENİNİ BELİRTİNİZ.

	Siz	Karşınızdaki kişi
1 – 4. sorular	Öğrenci	Öğrenci

1. Bir Tarih dersinin sonlarındasın ve bir öğrenci arkadaşının yanında oturuyorsun. Geçen hafta derse katılamadın ve şimdi o öğrencinin notlarını ödünç almak istiyorsun. Onunla bir senedir aynı dersleri alıyorsun fakat ders dışında onunla sadece ayda bir kere bir grupta görüşüyorsun. Gelecekte de beraber geçireceğiniz dersler olacak. O çok iyi not alıyor ve sınıfın en iyi öğrencilerindendir. Onun notlarını almaya karar veriyorsun.

a) Ona ne söylerdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zordur?(Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor

□   □   □

c) Eğer öğrenci karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu ricayı nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

d) Eğer öğrenci karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor

□   □   □

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2. Sen bir öğrencisin, dönemin sonu geliyor ve sınavlar yaklaşıyor. Sana göre çok zor olan matematik dersini almıştın. Fakat sen daha fazla ders alma ihtiyacını hissediyorsun yoksa bu dersten kalacaksın. Matematiği iyi olan ama çok da samimi olmadığın sınıf arkadaşlarından birisinden yardım almayı düşünüyorsun.

a) O arkadaşına ne söylerdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor

□   □   □

c) Eğer öğrenci karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu ricayı nasıl dile getirirdin(eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

d) Eğer öğrenci karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor

☐   ☐   ☐

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3. Bir öğrencisin ve öğle yemeğini her gün kampus deki yemekhanede yiyorsun. Yemekler hiç iyi çıkmıyor ve sana göre yemekler ucuz olmasına rağmen ödediğin paraya hiç değmiyor. Şu anda yemekhanede yemek yiyorsun ve karşında tanımadığın bir öğrenci oturmuş seni izliyor.

a) Ona bu şikâyetini nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor

☐   ☐   ☐

c) Eğer öğrenci karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu şikâyeti nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

d) Eğer öğrenci karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor

☐   ☐   ☐

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4. Geçen hafta seninle aynı bölümden olan ama samimi olmadığın bir öğrenci, matematik sınavı için profesyonel hesap makineni senden ödünç aldı. Geri getirdiği zaman, hesap makinenin artık çalışmadığını öğreniyorsun. Bu hesap makinesinin pahalı olmasından başka, bir de büyük manevi değeri var, çünkü onu annen ve baban doğum gününde sana hediye etmişlerdi. Araştırdın ve onun tamir olamayacağını ve değiştirilmeyecek bir model olduğunu öğrendin.

a) Hesap makineni bozan öğrenciye bu şikâyetini nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor

☐   ☐   ☐

c) Eğer öğrenci karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu şikâyeti nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

d) Eğer öğrenci karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor

☐   ☐   ☐

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	Siz	Karşınızdaki Kişi
5 – 8. Sorular	Arkadaş	Arkadaş

5. Soğuk bir kış gecesinde, saat 01.00 de arabanla evine doğru gidiyorsun. Birden bire araban bozuluyor. Arabanı kenara çekiyorsun. Ne yapacağını düşünürken, arkadaşının evinin tam caddenin köşesinde olduğunu fark ediyorsun. Gidip onun kapısını çalmaya ve tamirci çağırmak için telefonunu kullanmaya karar veriyorsun.

a) Arkadaşına ne söylerdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor

☐   ☐   ☐

c) Eğer arkadaşın karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu ricayı nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

d) Eğer arkadaşın karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor

☐   ☐   ☐

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6. Sen ve ailen bir parti vermeye karar verdiniz ve sen bunun için üç günden beri hazırlık yapıyorsun. Birkaç çeşit yemek yaptın ama annen keki mahvetmiş. Misafirlerin gelmesine 3 saat kalmış ve senin bir sürü işin var. O yüzden partiye davet ettiğin bir arkadaşına telefon açıp gelirken sana bir kek almasını söyleyeceksin.

a) Ona ne söylerdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor

□   □   □

c) Eğer arkadaşın karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu ricayı nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

d) Eğer arkadaşın karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor
□   □   □

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7. Birkaç günün içinde hocana bir proje teslim edeceksin. Bu proje için 1 ay çalıştın ve şimdi onu bilgisayarda yazıyorsun. Ne yazık ki, birden bere elektrik kesiliyor ve sen yazdıklarını kaydetmediğin için hepsi siliniyor. Çok sinirleniyorsun ve TEDAŞ'ı bundan sorumlu tutuyorsun. Sana bu projede yardımcı olan arkadaşın sana bakıyor.

a) Ona bu şikâyetini nasıl dile getirirdin(eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor
□   □   □

c) Eğer arkadaşın karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu şikâyeti nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?
d) Eğer arkadaşın karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor
□   □   □

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8. Bir arkadaşın sevdiğin romanlarından bir tanesini senden ödünç aldı ve 10 gün sonra getireceğine söz verdi. Ama yaklaşık 4 ay sonra kitabı getirdi. Tabii sen bu gecikmeden dolayı çok sinirlendin. Ama bununla bitmedi. Çünkü kitabı sana verdiği zaman onun çok kötü durumda olduğunu fark ediyorsun: tükenmez kalemle bazı satırların altı çizilmiş, bazı sayfalar buruşturulmuş hatta yırtılmış.

a) Ona bu şikâyetini nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor

□   □   □

c) Eğer arkadaşın karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu şikâyeti nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

d) Eğer arkadaşın karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor

□   □   □

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	Siz	Karşınızdaki Kişi
9 – 12 Sorular	İş-arkadaşı	İş-arkadaşı

9. Saat 7.30 den beri ofistesin. Şimdi saat 11 ve zor bir gün geçiriyorsun. Masanın üstü firmanın çeşitli bölümlerine gidecek kısa notlarla dolu. Bir taraftan da canın çay içmek istiyor. Sen notları dağıtırken, arkadaşından sana çay yapmasını isteyeceksin.

a) Ona ne söylerdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor

□   □   □

c) Eğer arkadaşın karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu ricayı nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

d) Eğer arkadaşın karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor

□   □   □

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10. Yıllardır tanıdığın iş arkadaşlarından birisi tatil için başka bir şehre gidiyor. Tesadüfen senin kız kardeşinin yaşadığı şehre gidiyor. Kız kardeşine göndermek istediğin bir paket var. İş arkadaşından paketi, kız kardeşine götürmesini istiyorsun.

a) Ona ne söylerdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

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b) Senin için bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor
☐   ☐   ☐

c) Eğer arkadaşın karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu ricayı nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

d) Eğer arkadaşın karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor
☐   ☐   ☐

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11. Sabah saat 7.30 da iş yerine varıyorsun ve ısıtma sisteminin hafta sonu çalışmadığını fark ediyorsun. Sorunun ne olduğunu öğrenmek için teknik bakım bölümünü arıyorsun. Onlar da bu hafta boyunca ısıtma sisteminin çalışmayacağını söylüyorlar. Ofiste eldivenler ile ve boynunda kaşkol ile donuyorsun. Aşırı soğuktan dolayı çalışamıyorsun.

a) Ofisteki arkadaşına bu şikâyetini nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor
☐   ☐   ☐

c) Eğer arkadaşın karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu şikâyeti nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

d) Eğer arkadaşın karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu?
(Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor
☐   ☐   ☐

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12. Saat 18.30 olmasına rağmen ofiste hala yapılacak iş var. Bu işin de bugün bitirilmesi gerekiyor. Sen bu işi yapmak için elinden gelenin en iyisini yapmana rağmen, belli ki ofisteki iş arkadaşın görevlerini yerine getirmiyor. Eğer senin iş arkadaşın gün boyunca daha verimli çalışsaydı, şimdi olduğun durumda olmazdın. Onun, işin çokluğundan haberi

varken en az bir saat ofis dışında başka çalışanlarla şakalaştığını öğreniyorsun. İyice düşündükten sonra ona şikâyet etmeyi karar veriyorsun.

a) Ona bu şikâyetini nasıl söylerdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor
☐   ☐   ☐

c) Eğer arkadaşın karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu şikâyeti nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

d) Eğer arkadaşın karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor
☐   ☐   ☐

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	Siz	Karşınızdaki Kişi
13 – 16. Sorular	Öğrenci	Öğretim görevlisi

13. Az önce kütüphaneden bir sürü kitap ödünç aldın ve şimdi asansörü çağırmak istiyorsun, ama taşıdığın kitaplar yüzünden düğmeye basamıyorsun. Tam o sırada hocalarından birisinin oradan geçtiğini görüyorsun. Ondan senin için asansörün düğmesine basmasını isteyeceksin.

a) Ona ne söylerdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor
☐   ☐   ☐

c) Eğer hocan karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu ricayı nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

d) Eğer hocan karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor
☐   ☐   ☐

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14. Bir öğrencisin ve bir ödev için saatlerdir kütüphanede çalışıyorsun. Çözemediğin bir problem ile karşılaşıyorsun ve hocanın yardımına ihtiyacın var. Ama hocanın gelecek 3 gün boyunca şehir dışında olacağını biliyorsun ve sen ödevini o hemen döndükten sonra teslim etmek zorundasın. Dersinden A ile geçtiğin ama o zamandan bu yana görüşmediğin başka bir hocanın sana yardımcı olmakta istekli olabileceğini düşündün.

a) Ona ne söylerdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor
☐   ☐   ☐

c) Eğer hocan karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu ricayı nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

d) Eğer hocan karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor
☐   ☐   ☐

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15. Bir doktora öğrencisisin ve 2 ay önce, tez çalışmalarına daha çok odaklanmak için parttaym işini bırakmak istedin. Ama masraflarla biriktirdiğin parayı karşılaştırdığın zaman, tez çalışmanın bitmesine kadar biriktirdiğin parayla geçinemeyeceğini fark ediyorsun. Bu yüzden geçen hafta tekrar çalışmaya başladın ve bu senin moralini bozmuş ve tedirgin etmiş. Şimdi tez danışmanının ofisinde onunla randevun var.

a) Ona bu şikâyetini nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor
☐   ☐   ☐

c) Eğer hocanın karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu şikâyeti nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

d) Eğer hocanın karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor
☐   ☐   ☐

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16. Öğrencilere grup halinde ödev vermeyi seven ve her öğrencinin görev dağıtımını kendisi yapan bir hocadan üçüncü kez ders alıyorsun. Görevler belirlendiği zaman sen en zor olan görevin üçüncü kez olarak sana verildiğini fark ediyorsun. Aynı hocayla aldığın diğer derslerde sen her birisinden AA aldın ve sınıfın en iyilerindendin. Ama artık bunun haksızlık olduğunu düşünüyorsun ve artık hocanın ödevleri adil bir şekilde dağıtması gerektiğini düşünüyorsun.

a) Ona bu şikâyetini nasıl dile getirirdin(eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   çok zor
☐   ☐   ☐

c) Eğer hocan karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu şikâyeti nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

d) Eğer hocan karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor
☐   ☐   ☐

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	Siz	Karşınızdaki Kişi
17 – 20. Sorular	Çocuk	Veli

17. Az önce kahvaltını bitirdin ve üniversiteye gideceksin. Dün kuru temizlemeden takım elbiseni alacaktın. Kuru temizleme akşam saat 7 civarında kapatıyor ve ona yetişemeyeceğini biliyorsun. Annen de oturmuş babanla bugünkü planlarını yapıyor. Onun kuru temizlemeci civarında alış veriş yapacağını duyuyorsun. Bu yüzden ondan takım elbiseni almasını isteyeceksin.

a) *Annene* bu durumda ne söylerdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor
☐   ☐   ☐

c) Eğer *babandan* bunu isteseydin (eğer isteseydin) ona bunu nasıl söylerdin?

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d) Babandan bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor

☐   ☐   ☐

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18. Arkadaşların ve sen hep birlikte kayak merkezine gideceksiniz. Sen bütün rezervasyonları yaptırdın ve herkesin biletleri sende. Salı sabah 6 da havaalanında arkadaşlarınla buluşmaya karar verdiniz. Maalesef o gün saatin bozulmuş ve sen uyuya kalıyorsun. Eşyalarını çabucak topluyorsun ve taksi çağırıyorsun. Ama taksi durağı, senin evinin civarında taksi olmadığını söylüyor. Bir taraftan da arkadaşlarının biletlerinin sende olduğunu hatırlıyorsun ve bu biletler olmadan onlar bir yere gidemezler. Annen ve baban uyuyorlar, ama öyle görünüyor ki sadece onlardan birisi seni alana götürürse ancak zamanında yetişebilirsin.

a) *Annene* bu durumda ne söylerdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor

☐   ☐   ☐

c) Eğer *babandan* bunu isteseydin (eğer isteseydin) bunu nasıl dile getirirdin?

d) Babandan bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor

☐   ☐   ☐

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19. Kardeşin ve sen aynı odayı paylaşıyorsun. Duvardaki resimlerle ilgili bir anlaşmazlık var. Sen kendi tarafına manzara resimlerinin ve kardeşinin tarafına da sanatçıların resimlerinin asılmasını istiyorsun. Fakat kardeşin odanın dört duvarına da sanatçıların resimlerini asmak istiyor. Her sabah kendi tarafına manzara resimlerini asıyorsun ve okuldan dönünce onların değiştiğini görüyorsun. Bugün beşinci gün ve durum yine aynı. O yüzden annene gidip durumu söyleyeceksin.

a) *Annene* bu durumda ne söylerdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor

☐   ☐   ☐

c) Eğer *babana* bu şikâyeti etseydin (eğer yapsaydın) nasıl dile getirirdin?

d) *Babana* bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor
☐   ☐   ☐

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20. Yaz tatili yaklaşıyor ve annen baban şehir dışından akrabalarınızın iki haftalığına size kalmaya geleceklerini söylüyorlar. Sen bu arada onların nerede yatacağını sormaya unutuyorsun. Tam misafirlerin gelmesine bir gün kala annen baban odanı misafirler için boşaltman gerektiğini söylüyorlar. Evinizde dört yatak odası var ve odanı niçin vermek zorunda olduğunu bilmiyorsun. Son kez misafiriniz olduğu zaman durum yine aynıydı. Bunu düşünüp her şeyi göze alarak bir şeyler yapmanın zamanının gelmiş olduğunu düşünüyorsun. Kesinlikle bu evde başkaları da odasını misafirlere bırakabilir. Sana göre artık annen ve babanın senin duygularına özen göstermenin zamanı gelmiştir.

a) *Annene* bu durumda ne söylerdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor
☐   ☐   ☐

c) Eğer *babana* bu şikâyeti etseydin (eğer etseydin) bunu nasıl dile getirirdin?

d) Babana bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil   Biraz zor   Çok zor
☐   ☐   ☐

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	Siz	Karşınızdaki Kişi
21 – 24. sorular	Çalışan	Patron

21. Bir inşaat şirketinde üç yıldır sekreter olarak çalışıyorsun. Şirketteki bir mühendisin adres ve faks ayrıntıları sana lazım. Ama bu ayrıntılar patrondan başka kimsede yok. Patron başka bir iş için seni arıyor ve senin ofisine geleceğini söylüyor. Sen patronundan bilgileri sana getirmesini isteyeceksin.

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a) Ona ne söylerdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil	Biraz zor	Çok zor
☐	☐	☐

c) Eğer patronun karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu ricayı nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

d) Eğer patronun karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil	Biraz zor	Çok zor
☐	☐	☐

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22. Akrabaların sana, haftayı bir tatil köyünün çok lüks bir villasında geçireceklerini söylüyorlar. Onlar da villa geniş olduğu için seni ve aileni oraya davet ettiler. Bu fırsatı ömrün boyunca bir daha yakalayamayabilirsin. Ama bir problemin var - sen çalışıyorsun. Genelde, senin çalıştığın firmada iki hafta öncesinden yazılı olarak patrona verilen izin dilekçeleri göz önünde bulunduruluyor. Ama sende bu tatili kaçırmak istemiyorsun. Bu tatili yapmak için tek şansın, patronun bir defa için kuralları çiğnemesidir.

a) Ona ne söylerdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil	Biraz zor	Çok zor
☐	☐	☐

c) Eğer patronun karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu ricayı nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

d) Eğer patronun karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu ricada bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil	Biraz zor	Çok zor
☐	☐	☐

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23. Bir büyük firmanın yönetim bölümünde çalışıyorsun. Diğer çalışanlar mektup veya dosyalarını almak için sık sık senin ofisine gelip gidiyorlar. Arada sırada senin ofisinde bulunan referans kitaplarına da ihtiyaçları oluyor. Onların senin odana gelip gitmesinin senin dikkatini dağılmasından başka, bir de senin çalıştığın ortama saygı duymadıklarını fark ediyorsun. Ya kullandıkları referans kitaplarını senin masanın üstüne bırakıyorlar ya

da mektuplarını senin odada açıp zarflarını etrafa atıyorlar. Sen düzenli bir ortamda çalışmayı seviyorsun, o yüzden de onlar gittikten sonra odanı temizliyorsun. Tam bu sırada patronun odaya giriyor ve seni yerden boş zarfları toplarken buluyor. Sana bir şey söylemiyor ama yüzünde şaşkın bir ifade var.

a) Ona ne söylerdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil	Biraz zor	Çok zor
☐	☐	☐

c) Eğer patronun karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu şikâyeti nasıl dile getirirdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

d) Eğer patronun karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil	Biraz zor	Çok zor
☐	☐	☐

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24. Büyük bir ticari firma için on yıldır çalışıyorsun ve son günlerde terfi aldın. Ama ekonomik durgunluktan dolayı, firmaya bazı çalışanların görevlerinden alınmaları söylenmiştir. Sen de işten çıkarılma mektubunu alan şansızlardan birisisin. Üzgün olman bir yana, bir de önemli sayıda yeni işe başlayan kişinin işten çıkarılma mektubunu almadıklarını fark ediyorsun. Sen mesleğinin güvenli olduğunu düşünüyordun ve işten çıkarmaların yeni çalışanlara hitap edeceğini sanıyordun. Bu haberlerle yıkılmışsın ve bu kararı kabul edemezsin.

a) Patronuna ne söylerdin (eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

b) Senin için bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zordur? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil	Biraz zor	Çok zor
☐	☐	☐

c) Eğer patronun karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu şikâyeti nasıl dile getirirdin(eğer bir şey söyleseydin)?

d) Eğer patronun karşı cinsiyetten olsaydı bu şikâyette bulunmak ne kadar zor olurdu? (Lütfen sadece bir kutu işaretleyiniz!)

Zor değil	Biraz zor	Çok zor
☐	☐	☐

CURRICULUM VITAE

Saye ZİBANDE was born in Iran in 1973. After finishing the Enghelab-e- Eslami High School, she attended the English Language Teaching Department of Azad University in Tabriz. During her third year of education, she was employed by an international company as a translator and worked there for a year and a half. Then in 1996, she graduated as the second in the department. In 2002, she started the MA program in applied linguistics in the English department of Karadeniz Technical University. She is a native speaker of Persian and speaks native-like Turkish. She is married and has a daughter.