İNGİLİZCEYİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENEN TÜRK ÖĞRENCİLERİN SÖZ EYLEM KULLANIMLARI : ÖZÜR DİLEME VE TEŞEKKÜR ETME ÜZERİNE BİR ÇALIŞMA

SPEECH ACT REALIZATIONS OF
TURKISH EFL LEARNERS : A STUDY
ON APOLOGIZING AND THANKING

Rıdvan TUNÇEL
(Doktora Tezi)
Eskişehir, 1999

SPEECH ACT REALIZATIONS OF EFL LEARNERS : A STUDY ON APOLOGIZING AND THANKING

By

Rıdvan TUNÇEL

Thesis Submitted for the Doctor of

Philosophy English Language Teaching

Department

Advisor: Assoc. Prof.Dr. İlknur KEÇİK

Eskişehir

Anadolu University

The Institude of Social Sciences

June, 1999

DOKTORA TEZ ÖZÜ

İNGİLİZCEYİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENEN TÜRK ÖĞRENCİLERİN SÖZ EYLEM KULLANIMLARI : ÖZÜR DİLEME VE TEŞEKKÜR ETME ÜZERİNE BİR ÇALIŞMA

Rıdvan TUNÇEL

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı

Anadolu Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, 1999

Danışman : Doç. Dr. İlknur KEÇİK

Oldukça karmaşık söz eylemler olarak bilinen özür dileme ve teşekkür etme kültürler arası farklılıklar göstermektedir, bu yüzden, dillere özgü anlamsal biçimler diller arası iletişimde yanlış anlaşılmalara yol açabilirler. Yabancı dil öğrencileri sıklıkla ana dillerinin etkisi altında kaldıkları için veya ikinci dile özgü anlamsal biçimleri yeterince edinemediklerinden ikinci dilde iletişimde sıkıntıya düşmektedirler. Bazı durumlarda öğrenciler ana dillerinin etkisi ile yabancı dile kendi sosyokültürel ölçütlerini olumsuz olarak aktarabilmektedirler. Bu nedenle, bu çalışma yabancı dil öğrenen Türk öğrencilerin İngilicedeki anlamsal kalıpları ne kadar edindiklerini özür dileme ve teşekkür etme durumları dikkate alınarak incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır.

Veriler, 28 durum içeren bir söylem tamamlama testi aracılığı ile, 68 hazırlık okulu öğrencisi, 61 son sınıf öğrencisi, 50 ana dili olarak İngilizce konuşan, ve ana dili Türkçe olan 44 denekten toplanmıştır. Araştırma, öğrencilerin (Hazırlık Okulu ve Eğitim Fakültesi son sınıf) söz eylem kullanımları ile ana dili İngilizce olanların söz eylem kullanımları karşılaştırılarak yürütülmüştür.

Çalışmanın bulguları, öğrencilerin, aradil gelişim süreci içinde, zaman zaman ana dilden olumsuz aktarma yaptıklarını göstermiştir. Hem hazırlık hem de son sınıf öğrencilerinin tercihleri Türk sosyokültürel ölçütleri aktardıklarını ortaya koymuştur, ancak, son sınıf öğrencilerinin bazı durumlarda, hazırlık öğrencilerinden daha fazla aktarma yaptıkları gözlenmiştir. İçinde bulunulan durum ne kadar formal ve az karşılaşılan olursa, öğrencilerin ana dilden aktarma yapma olasılıklarının o denli arttığı gözlenmiştir. Öğrencilerin, genellikle basit özür dileme ve teşekkür anlamsal biçimleri kullanmalarının yanısıra, İngilizce ve Türkçeyi ana dili olarak konuşanlar tarafından kullanılmayan bazı anlamsal biçimleri yeğledikleri de görülmüştür. Bir başka deyişle, hem ana dilde hem de öğrenilen dilde sosyokültürel ölçütler aynı olsa bile, öğrencilerin geliştirdikleri aradil dizgesinin onların farklı anlamsal biçimleri yeğlemelerine yol açtığı belirlenmiştir.

ABSTRACT

Apologizing and thanking are considered to be highly complex speech acts as they differ cross-culturally, thus, these language specific semantic formulas are prone to misunderstandings. Since foreign language learners are under the influence of their mother tongue or have not been able to acquire semantic formulas specific to second/foreign language (L2) adequately, they face troubles when communicating in L2. Because of the influence of the mother tongue, in some situations, learners are liable to transfer their Turkish sociocultural norms negatively to L2. This study aims at investigating to what extent language learners have acquired semantic formulas in English, specifically the apologizing and thanking situations.

Data was collected from 50 native speakers of English, 68 Prep-school learners, 61 Fourth-year learners and 44 native speakers of Turkish through discourse completion test including 28 situations.The study was carried out by comparing the speech act realizations of (Prep-school and Fourth-year) learners with speech act realizations of native speakers of English

Findings of the study showed that learners, in their development of interlanguage continuum, negatively transferred from their mother tongue in certain situations. Both Prep-learners' and fourth year learners' performance reflected that they transferred Turkish sociopragmatic norms, but Fourth-year learners at times transferred Turkish norms in more situations than Prep learners did. It was observed that the more formal and infrequent the situation is, the higher the possibility of negative transfer occurence was. Learners, in general, preferred simple semantic formulas of apologizing and thanking. Furthermore, learners realized some semantic formulas which were not used either by native speakers of English or native speakers of Turkish. In other words, it was discovered that the interlanguage system of learners led them to prefer different semantic formulas although the mother tongue and target language sociopragmatic norms were similar.

JÜRİ VE ENSTİTÜ ONAYI

Rıdvan TUNÇEL'in "Speech Act Realizations of Turkish EFL Learners: A Study on Apologizing and Thanking" başlıklı tezi 21 Temmuz 1999 tarihinde, aşağıdaki jüri tarafından Lisansüstü Eğitim Öğretim ve Sınav Yönetmeliğinin ilgili maddeleri uyarınca, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalında Doktora tezi olarak değerlendirilerek kabul edilmiştir.

İmza

Üye (Tez Danışmanı)   :   Doç.Dr.İlknur KEÇİK

Üye   :   Prof.Dr.Zülal BALPINAR

Üye   :   Prof.Dr.Güray KÖNİG

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Chapter III METHODOLOGY

Chapter IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

CHAPTER V. CONCLUSIONS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Major breakthroughs have been made in the field of sociolinguistics, conversational analysis, and the ethnography of communication since 1960s. Before the emergence of communicative competence, Chomsky (1957) defined linguistic competence in terms of the grammatical knowledge of speakers.To Chomsky, (in Stern 1983:140-7) competence was the internalized knowledge of the system of syntactic and phonological rules of the language that the ideal speaker-hearer possesses in the mother tongue, and the performance was language in use by the individual. However, in 1960s linguists, sociolinguists and applied linguists became interested in different notions of competence. Dell Hymes was one of the important figures who initiated and opened new visions to the first language acquisition.

1.1.Background to the Study

Communicative competence (CC), introduced by Dell Hymes in the mid 1960s, still has impact on learning and teaching languages. Hymes (1972:277) states that a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences, not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate. He maintains that he or she acquires competence as to when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner.Thus, a child becomes able to accomplish a repertoire of speech acts, to take part in speech events, and to evaluate their accomplishment by others. Competence, in Hymes' terms, is integral with attitudes, values, and motivations concerning language, its features and uses. Hymes believes that the acquisition of such competency is fed by social experience, needs and motives. Hymes also claims that the acquisition of competence for use can be stated in the same terms as acquisition of competence for grammar. That is to say, a child who acquires the rules of his/her native language, at the same time acquires knowledge of set of rules in which the sentences are used. In his own words, Hymes asserts that from a finite experience of speech acts and their

interdependence with sociocultural features, children develop a general theory of an appropriate speech in their community when conducting and interpreting social life. Hymes stresses upon the importance of CC in language development as follows:

> The importance of concern with the child is partly that it offers a favorable vantage point for discovering the adult system, and that it poses neatly one way in which the ethnography of communication is a distinctive enterprise, i.e., an enterprise concerned with the abilities the child must acquire beyond those of producing and interpreting grammatical sentences, in order to be a competent member of its community, not only what may possibly be said, but also what should and should not be said. (Hymes 1972:26)

In order to exemplify how children acquire both linguistic knowledge and appropriate use of rules, Hymes gives the following examples from various cultures. Among Araucanianns of Chile, repeating a question is considered an insult. Among the Tzeltal of Chiapas, Mexico, a direct question which is not asked properly is answered with "nothing". Among the Cahiahua of Brasil, a direct answer to a first question implies that the answerer has no time to talk, but a vague answer to the question indicates that talk can continue (Hymes 1972:279).

Supporting Hymes' view, Taylor and Taylor (1990:29) state that a competent speaker chooses the right expression for a right situation among many expressions available to convey essentially the same message. Another support to Hymes CC was asserted by Stern (1983:229) and Stern states that, Hymes' CC focuses on intuitive grasp or acquisition of social and cultural rules and meanings that are acceptable in L1.

In 1980s CC has been viewed in broader terms than its early descriptions involving grammatical competence, discourse competence, strategic competence and sociolinguistic competence. Canale (in Richards and Schmidth eds. 1983:6) defines these competence areas from pedagogical point of view. In Canale's term, grammatical competence is considered to be the mastery of the language code which includes the rules and features of vocabulary, word/sentence formation, pronunciation, spelling and linguistic semantics. Discourse competence concerns the mastery of combining grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken and written text in different text types. Strategic competence is the mastery of verbal and nonverbal

communication strategies in which compensation of communication breakdown and enhancement for a more effective communication. Sociolinguistic competence,which is considered the most significant of all, includes both sociocultural rules and rules of discourse (Canale 1983:7). For this reason, sociolinguistic competence addresses the extent to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different contexts depending on contextual factors such as status of participants, purposes of interaction and norms or conventions of interaction. (See 1.1.2)

Wolfson (1989:44) interprets CC by drawing a parallelism between first language (L1) acquisition and second/foreign language (L2) learning. Wolfson states that whether the language learner is a small child acquiring his/her first language or anyone learning a new language, the fact remains that language acquisition involves not only linguistic competence alone but also what Hymes called CC.

Although the concept of communication may be analyzed in a multitude of ways, as Canale (in Richards and Smidth 1983:2) puts it, seven basic assumptions about the nature of verbal communication are of particular interest when considering L2 learners and what they must do to communicate. These communication characteristics are: it (1) is a form of social interaction ; (2) involves a high degree of unpredictability and creativity in form and message ; (3) takes place in discourse and sociocultural contexts which provide constraints on appropriate language use and also clues as to correct interpretations of utterances ; (4) is carried out under limiting psychological and other conditions such as memory constraints, fatigue and distractions ; (5) always has a purpose (for example, to establish social relations, to persuade, or to promise) ; (6) involves authentic, as opposed to textbook contrived language ; and (7) is judged as successful or not on the basis of actual outcomes (for example, communication could be judged successful when a non-native English speaker trying to find the train station in Toronto, asked "How to go train"). These assumptions, except the second one, all of them include the sociolinguistic and pragmatic aspects of communication. In other words, language learners must be aware of social and pragmatic varieties in order to achieve true communication.Otherwise, as Hymes calls it "cultural interference" in

second language acqusition, which he defines as falling back on one's native culture when communicating in another, will be inevitable:

> ...communities differ significantly in ways of speaking, in patterns of repertoire and switching, in the roles and meanings of speech. They indicate differences with regard to beliefs, values, reference groups, norms and the like, as these enter into the ongoing system of language use and its acquisition by children.(Hymes in Pugh&Swann 1980:89.)

In 1960s and 1970s, while Hymes was enlarging linguistic competence to communicative competence, Austin and Searle (1970) investigated speech acts focusing on identification and analyzing the functions of speech acts.Wolfson (1989) was among the first to encourage investigations of the ways in which second language learners acquire the rules and norms governing the appropriate use of speech acts. As Wolfson pointed out:

> ...a speech act or act sequence, whether it be apologizing, thanking, scolding, complimenting, inviting, greeting or parting, or even telling of a performed story, has important cultural information embedded in it. Sociolinguistic data, collected systematically and analyzed objectively, can yield information as to what specific formulas and routines are in use in a particular speech community, as well as their patterns of frequency and appropriateness in different speech situations (Wolfson 1989:110).

Though, her point of view seems to be different from that of Canale and Wolfson, Harlow (1990:328) claims that communication is subject to social appropriateness and the forms of utterances take into account factors such as age, sex, the relationship between the speaker and the hearer, the setting and circumstances in which the communication takes place. According to Harlow, speech acts, which are highly complex situations of communicative intent, requires linguistic, social and pragmatic knowledge that must be activated and work together in harmony for a speech act to be successful. Thus, it might be said that, sociopragmatic competence (SC), in language comprises more than linguistic or lexical knowledge. SC implies that the speaker knows how to vary speech act strategies according to the situational or social variables present in the act of communication.

The starting point of the exploration of foreign language (FL) learning or second language acquisition (SLA) has often been the study of learner language which is now

often called interlanguage a term coined by Selinker (1983:173) (see 1.6.3.). It has been claimed that interlanguage is the central to second language learning for it provides the data for constructing and testing theories of SL acquisition in understanding and describing the characteristics of learner language. Ellis (1994:17) states that four aspects of learner language have received attention : (1) errors, (2) acquisition orders and developmental sequences, (3) variability and (4) pragmatic features relating to the way language is used in context for communicative purposes. Thus, the purpose of SLA research is to describe learner language and show how it works as a system.

Almost in the last two decades, sociopragmatic studies have sprung up in the need of describing the interdependence that exists between the linguistic forms and sociocultural context. In their attempt to describe interlanguage development of learners, most researchers focused their attention on speech act strategies and realizations of these by language learners. As Koike (1989:274) states, recent second language research on speech acts represents a focus on pragmatics, based on the theories of speech acts proposed by Austin and Searle (1970). Beebe (1989:58) considered speech act studies to have a primary attention for research. Wolfson (1981:117), referring to Hymes' views that languages differ greatly in patterns and norms, asserts that there has been very little systematic comparison of languages from the point of view of speech acts, and rules of speaking, and as a result, very little attention has been paid to describing the sorts of communicative interference when people learn second languages. Similarly, Rivers (1983:25) proposes that students need to understand how language is used in relation to the structure of society and its patterns of inner and outer relationships, if they are to avoid clashes, misunderstandings, and hurt. Supporting Rivers' views, Tarone and Yule (1989:93) ask "If we are to analyze the sociolinguistic competence of second language learners, we must step back from a narrow focus on the linguistic forms used in speech acts and ask, what happens to people's language when they interact socially?".

Takahashi (1996:189) argues that one of the general assumptions in

interlanguage pragmatics is that intercultural miscommunication is often caused by learners' falling back on their native language sociocultural norms and conventions in realizing speech acts in a target language.

Number of studies on sociopragmatic transfer have demonstrated that (see Chapter 2) native language influence, namely, interference is one of the central aspects in studying learner language. Studying interference, called sociopragmatic failure or sociolinguistic interference, through speech act realizations of non natives would provide evidence for understanding the interlanguage development of learners. Selinker (1983:174-77) proposes that there are five principal processes operated in interlanguage ; language transfer, transfer of training, strategies of second language learning, strategies of second language communication, and, overgeneralization of TL linguistic material. Selinker also asserts that: " the only observable data to which we can relate theoretical predictions is the utterances which are produced when the learner attempts to say sentences of a TL".

Despite the difficulties involved in describing sociolinguistic behavior, many language teaching specialists, linguists, and sociolinguists whose views are given above all agree that the aim of second language learning should be to facilitate learners' acquisition of CC. One of the most important contributions of CC theory to language learning is, then, knowing what to say, to whom, in what circumstances, and how to say it is as much as needed the grammatical rules of the target language. Otherwise, cultural interference may lead to misunderstandings cross-culturally.

Thus, considering the importance of sociopragmatic development of language learners, it is believed that the description of Turkish language learners' current state of sociopragmatic knowledge of target language will be beneficial. It has long been claimed that communicative language teaching is widely accepted throughout the world including Turkey. However, much of the information on sociopragmatic studies and other related fields has often been reported from certain countries of Western cultures. Although foreign language learning received a great importance in Turkey in the past two decades, research on language teaching has been mostly limited to teaching techniques used in different language areas and skills. The sociocultural aspect of

language learning has not received much attention.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

One of the most important aspects of sociolinguistic research is the descriptive investigation of the traditions, patterns, and constraints which comprise native speakers' knowledge of acceptable linguistic behaviour in the speech community. The rules for appropriate conduct of speech vary cross culturally, so, it is considerably essential to recognize true communication rules for those who learn or teach a language. Language learners who naturally have the ability of communicative competence in their mother tongue might not transfer this ability effectively in any contact with members of target language community.

Blum-Kulka (in Wolfson and Judd 1983:47) asserts that second language learners seem to develop an interlanguage of speech acts which differs from both first and second language native usage in terms of (1) usages similar to those of native speakers in all ways, (2) usages that differ from those of native speakers scale of directness that violates social appropriateness norms, and (3) usages that differ from those of natives in linguistic realization.

One of the reasons for investigating thanking and apologizing speech acts is that studies in this field (see 2.9.) have been carried out in Western cultures cross-culturally. Kasper and Blum-kulka (1993:7) in their review of sociopragmatic studies state that there is only a handful of studies investigating different languages such as Hebrew (Blum-Kulka,1982, Olshtain 1983, Olshtain and Cohen 1989) German (Faerch and Kasper, 1989) Norwegian (Svanes, 1989), Spanish (Koike, 1989), and Japanese (Sawyer, 1992). In addition, there have not been sociopragmatic studies where English is learned as a foreign language until recently, and only a limited number of studies have appeared recently. For instance, in Turkey, a few research and M.A. theses have been conducted in the last decade (Erçetin 1995, Mızıkacı 1991, Kamışlı and Aktuna 1996, İrman 1996, İstifçi 1998). Thus, a need has arisen to study sociopragmatic development of Turkish language learners, for sociopragmatic studies has been

increasingly recognized as a critical one for researchers into second language acquisition in the past several years.

In the light of above views, in this study, the following questions will be investigated in order to shed light on theoretically postulated views of interlanguage, interference, and speech acts.The purpose of this study is ,then, to put forward the possible sources of sociopragmatic failures of learners which are often considered as interference and describe the sociopragmatic development of two groups of language learners in Turkey.

1.3. Statement of Research Questions

This study aims at answering the following questions:

1. What kind of speech act realizations do non-native speakers of Turkish language learners use in expressing themselves in apologizing and thanking situations?

1.a. What kind of speech act realizations do Prep-school learners of Anadolu University Foreign Languages Department at Anadolu university use in expressing themselves in apologizing and thanking situations?

1.b. What kind of speech act realizations do Fourth-year learners of Anadolu University Education Faculty ELT Department use in expressing themselves in apologizing and thanking situations?

The following two questions will establish the baseline data, which would enable the comparison of the results obtained from the first question.

2. What kind of speech act realizations do native speakers of English prefer in expressing themselves in various apologizing and thanking situations?

3. What kind of speech act realizations do native speakers of Turkish people use in expressing themselves in various apologizing and thanking situations in L1?

1.4 . Limitations

(1) TO answer the above questions, (that is, to put forward the current situation of EFL learners in terms of expressing themselves through speech acts in various

situations) this study aims at reaching mainly two groups of learners: (a) those who are Prep-School students of Foreign Languages Department at Anadolu University, and (b) those who are fourth-year students of Education Faculty ELT Department at Anadolu University.

To collect baseline data many of the early studies (see 3.2.) used varying number of native subjects. For this study, the accessible population of 50 native speakers of English is considered acceptable. Another source of subjects to gather the baseline data are native speakers of Turkish, who belong to different layers of the society, and their population is 44.

(2) This study investigates two types of post-event speech acts of thanking and apologizing through 28 situations. Although there are many speech acts that would be studied, thanking and apologizing seemed to be most relevant to the study aims. Reasons for studying thanking and apologizing speech acts are; (1) both of them are post-event speech acts, (2) there are few studies on apologizing in Turkey (Mızıkacı 1991), (Erçetin 1995) and (Kamışlı and Aktuna 1996), (3) no studies has appeared on thanking in the literature in Turkey. Additionally, studies carried out throughout the world and in Turkey revealed that it is impossible to study more than two different speech acts in a study.

The Background Questionnaires (see 3.3.1.2 and App. C) administered to all study subjects were designed to reveal the subjects' social, educational, and other backgrounds of age, gender, native language, and so on. Collecting such information enabled the researcher exclude some of the subjects from the study who had advantages or disadvantages over others in terms of past foreign language education, being bilingual, contact with native speakers, being abroad and the like. For this reason, many different information collected from study subjects were not gathered in establishing the variables of the study, but all these backgrounds were gathered to select appropriate subjects for the study.

1.5. Definitions of Terms Used in the Study

1.5.1. Sociopragmatic Competence

The term sociolinguistic competence has been often used in place of sociopragmatic competence. Canale and Swain (in Wolfson 1989:47) explain that sociopragmatic competence comprises of two sets of rules of sociocultural rules of use and rules of discourse. Therefore, it would be possible to say that sociopragmatics is the outcome of the combination of sociocultural rules of use and the rules of discourse. In their original terms they explain this distinction as follows :

> Sociocultural rules of use will specify the ways in which utterances are produced
> and understood appropriately with respect to communicative events outlined by
> Hymes. The primary focus of these rules is on the extend to which certain
> propositions and communicative functions are appropriate within a given
> sociocultural context. A secondary concern of such rules is the extend to which
> appropriate attitude and register or style are conveyed by a particular
> grammatical form within a given sociocultural context. The rules of discourse
> in our framework is a combination of utterances and communication functions
> and not the grammatical well-formedness of a single utterance nor the
> sociocultural appropriateness of a set of propositions and communicative
> functions in a given context. (Canale and Swain in Wolfson 1989:47)

SC has been classified having two components by Canale and Swain, however, most sociolinguists such as Harlow (1990:328), Wolfson (1989:140) and Beebe (1988:56), view SC as a broad term covering sociopragmatic competence as a result of sociocultural variability that would be found in the norms and behaviors of speakers.

Thus, the term sociopragmatic competence treated as the way non-native speakers produce utterances/sentences which are considered appropriate in various contexts in their attempt to communicate in L2.

1.5.2. Speech Acts

Speech acts, which would associate different meanings to different people, can be viewed from two perspectives. From philosophic and sociolinguistic point of views , speech acts play different roles according to philosophers and sociolinguists.

Language philosophers or discourse analysts such as Austin and Searle (in Coulthard 1979:11) state that when somebody say something, probably they do something. In certain situations people tend to utter or produce certain phrases which are called "Speech acts". For example, when a sentence "I name this ship the Queen Elizabeth" uttered while smashing the bottle against the stern, the speaker is not describing what he is doing, nor stating that he is doing it, but actually performing the action of naming the ship. Thus, Austin (1970) and others believe that certain forms are often related to certain functions. In other words, there should be a clear distinction between linguistic forms and linguistic functions. According to the speech act philosophers of Austin and Searle (in Wardough 1976:96) there are three kinds of speech acts: "locutionary", "illocutionary" and "perlocutionary" acts. A locutionary act is an utterance with a certain sense and reference, that is, any properly formed meaningful utterance is a locutionary act. An illocutionary act may do one of a number of things: announce, assert, admit, warn, request, apologize, criticize, thank, promise, regret etc.. . A "perlocutionary act", on the other hand is, it brings about or achieves some other condition or effect by its utterance. For example, an act which convinces, amuses, deceives, encourages, persuades, deters, surprises someone is a perlocutionary act. The three kinds of speech acts can be illustrated by the following utterance "Stop that !". This utterance is a locutionary act because the utterance is well formed. It may be an illocutionary act in the right circumstances, if said by one person to another when something is being done that should not be done and the utterer has the right to insist it not be done and the person of whom the request is made is in a position to desist. If the illocutionary act is successful in bringing about an end to the activity then that act plus its consequences constitute a perlocutionary act.

While linguistic philosophers have tried to describe the force of utterances-that somebody does something by uttering some certain chain of words. Speech act theorists tried to classify speech acts such as warning, deterring, promising and so on. They also emphasize that a speech act does not occur in isolation but within a series of acts chained together.On the other hand, sociolinguists have tried to analyze the function of utterances-that in certain situations specific speech act structures play their

roles. Sociolinguists have tried to put forward situations in which and so on, they also put stress upon that all situations- where two or more people gather to make a verbal discourse- require

Thus, speech acts are highly complex structures that require the consideration of the context - interlocutors, circumstances, code, channel, receiver, sender etc..- that people are in. From sociolinguistic point of view, speech acts of complaining, thanking, refusing, apologizing, correcting and many others are highly patterned structures that require appropriate use of L2 in different contexts.to establish meaningful exchanges.

1.5.3. Interlanguage

Although the term "interlanguage" (IL) was first coined by Selinker in 1972, some people in the field, before and after Selinker , used different terminology referring to the same phenomenon. For instance, while Corder (1978) used "learner language" , Nemser (1971) called IL as "approximative system" for IL.Despite the differences in the terminology, they all have common properties in describing the language learners' strategies. Corder (1978:74) in his article "Language-Learner Language" , comments on Selinker's term interlanguage, "Selinker had in mind that the interlanguage system was in a sense intermediate between the first and the second language". Corder also discusses Nemser's approximative system and states that it is noncommittal as to the nature of the continuum, "Nemser merely envisages learning as a movement through a series of stages in the direction of the target language". Corder in the same article, makes a comparison between first language acquisition and second/ foreign language learning. He points out that the utterances made by a child, while having certain characteristics of adult language, are manifested differently, in systematic and predictable ways. He states that this is also true of learner language and supports his claim by quoting Selinker's view; "since utterances of the learner and those that would have been produced by a native speaker of the target language, had he attempted to express the same meaning as the learner, are not identical, we would be

justified in hypothesizing the existence of a separate linguistic system-this system we will call " interlanguage".

The term interlanguage, thus, a grammar system that is specific to language learners which is different from both the native language and the foreign language of language learners. Thus, interlanguage development of language learners can only be observed in their attempt to communicate in L2 in various contexts.

1.5.4. Interlanguage Pragmatics

Within the pragmatic point of view, Kasper & Blum-Kulka (1993:3) define interlanguage pragmatics as "the study of people's comprehension and production of linguistic action in context", "people" here refers to language learners, for the term interlanguage itself associates non-natives of the language being learned. Kasper & Blum-Kulka (1993:4) also state that interlanguage pragmatics has been defined as the study of non-native speakers' use and acquisition of linguistic action patterns in a second language.

According to Koike (1989:280), interlanguage is the term given to an interim series of stages of language learning between the first and second language grammars through which all second language learners must pass on their way to attaining fluency in the target language. Thomas (in Harlow 1990:329) states that pragmatic failure - communication breakdown due to the listener's inability to understand a speaker's intention has even more serious consequences for the second language learner. While grammatical error may suggest that the speaker is a less proficient language user, pragmatic failure may reflect badly on him/her as a person. In Harlow's (1990:330) view, if a non-native speaker appears to speak fluently (that is seems grammatically competent), a native speaker is likely to attribute apparent impoliteness or unfriendliness to bad manners or bad temperament. In Thomas's opinion, this type of misunderstanding is the cause of national stereotyping, such as the abrasive German, the obsequious Japanese and the insincere American.

Thus, interlanguage pragmatics can be defined as the study of non-native

speakers' use and acquisition of linguistic action patterns when learners experience on their way to attaining appropriate use of language in foreign language.

1.5.5. Sociopragmatic and Pragmalinguistic Failure

Sociopragmatic failure stems from cross-culturally different perceptions of what constitutes appropriate linguistic behavior. Leech (in Thomas 1983:99) defines sociopragmatic failure as " social conditions placed on language in use". In other words, as Thomas mentioned on her diagram (see page 8) pragmatics, language in use, is the place where a speaker's knowledge of grammar comes into contact with his/her knowledge of the world. Since "the world" is a social behavior it would require more sensitivity for learners in their production of speech acts in certain circumstances. Similarly, Olshtain and Cohen (1989:54) propose that rules of appropriateness vary cross-culturally, thus, for learners to become truly effective communicators in a second language, they need to acquire these rules of appropriateness besides linguistic competence. According to Takahashi (1996:189), sociolinguistic failure is a kind of intercultural miscommunication caused by learners' falling back on their L1 sociocultural norms and conventions in realizing speech acts in the target language.

Pragmalinguistic failure, according to Thomas (1983:99), occurs when the pragmatic force of a linguistic structure is different from that normally assigned to it by a native speaker. A chief source of this type of error is pragmalinguistic transfer, where speech act strategies are inappropriately transferred from first language to the second. For example, the highly conventionalized utterance, "Would you like to read?" is an appropriate polite request in a British or American classroom, with an expected response : "Of course" ; "Sure". In a Russian classroom, however, a native Russian student might politely respond to the above English request with "No, I would not", because in Russian such a question could be interpreted as a question for a preference rather than a polite request to do something. To an English speaker observer, the linguistic behavior of the Russian student seem impolite, or worse, uncooperative.

Rules of appropriate use require the consideration and sensitivity of sociopragmatic norms of and knowledge of linguistic system of the target language.

Thus, inappropriate use of L2 sociocultural norms and failure in perceiving different language system would create misunderstandings cross culturally.

CHAPTER II.
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

In course of time the definition of communicative competence has undergone some other modifications. Lyle Bachman (in H. Douglas Brown 1994:229) schematize language competence into two basic competence areas of organizational competence and pragmatic competence. Below is the (Fig.2.1.) Bachman's Organizational competence includes grammatical competence (GC) and Textual competence , while the former covers, vocabulary, morphology, syntax and phonological aspects of language are all rules and systems through which people can compose sentences, the latter one textual competence -in Bachman's schematization appears instead of Discourse competence- includes cohesion and rhetorical organization. As it was described earlier, discourse competence which is the complement of grammatical competence is the ability to connect sentences in stretches of discourse and to form a meaningful whole out of a series of utterances. In other words, discourse competence may range from simple spoken conversations to lengthy written texts. It must be for this reason that Bachman included "cohesion" and " rhetorical organization" in the Textual competence which is not far from Canale's (in Richards and Schmidt 1983:8) definitions of discourse competence. In this article Canale simply shares Bachman's above view that discourse competence concerns mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken and written text. Canale also stresses upon the significance of cohesion and coherence that the unity is achieved in form and in meaning.Pragmatic competence in Bachman' s terms has two different categories, the first one, illocutionary competence, represents the functional aspects of language of ideational, manipulatic heuristic and imaginative properties that achieve sending and receiving intended meanings. Sociolinguistic competence, according to Bachman, is the sensitivity to dialect or variety, register, naturalness and cultural references and figures of speech which are all deal with considerations of register, formality, metaphor, politeness and culturally related aspects of language.

Bachman, different from earlier definitions of CC considers strategic competence

as an entirely separate element of communicative language ability. In the figure 2.1 below strategic competence in Brown's (1994:229) terms serves an "executive" function of making the final decision, among many possible options, on wording, phrasing and other productive and receptive means for negotiating meaning.
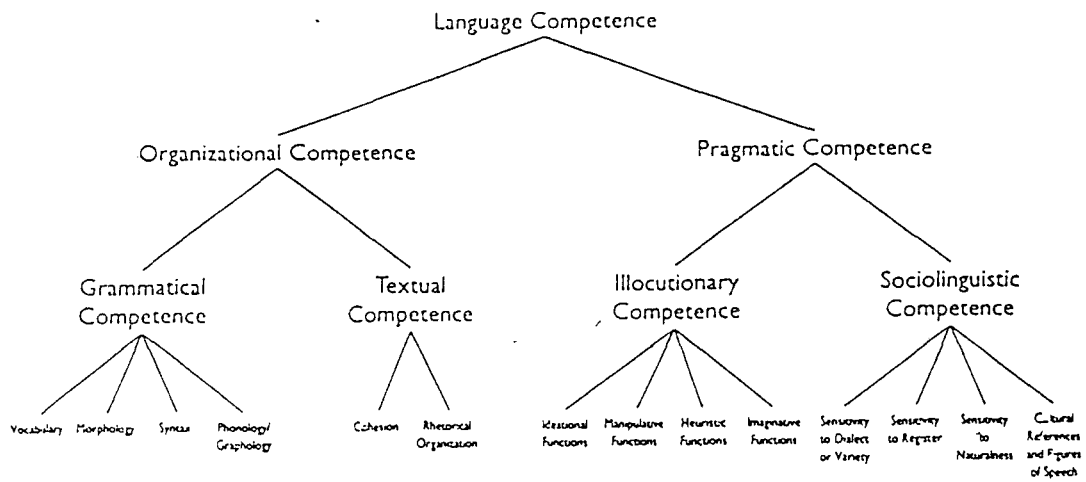
Figure 2.1. Components of Language Competence (Bachman 1990:87)

Taylor and Taylor (1990:29) give an example of how a variety of expressions available to convey essentially the same message.

Get lost!

Please leave.

Would you mind leaving?

I'm sorry but I'm tired and sleepy.

Of course, a component speaker chooses the right expression for a right situation. Bachman's strategic competence, thus, can be exemplified through above expressions that the final decision among many structurally different options the most functional one is chosen according to the situation the people in. Kasper and Blum-

Kulka (1993:4) views Bachman's model of strategic competence in its entirety and including strategic solutions to comprehension or production problems.

2.2. Grammatical competence

The ability to formulate many different messages properly mostly depends on the ability of the speakers knowledge of language in terms of morphology, syntax, vocabulary and phonology. Canale (in Richards and Schmidt 1983:7) explains that grammatical competence remains concerned with mastery of the language code itself. According to Canale, language codes are vocabulary, word formation, sentence formation, pronunciation, spelling and linguistic semantics that are features and rules of the language. Above language properties focuses directly on the knowledge and skill required to understand and express accurately the literal meaning of utterances. Savignon (1983:37) simply reviews that grammatical competence is a mastery of what Canale says above and adds that it is not linked to any single theory of grammar nor does it assume the ability to make explicit the rules of usage, a person demonstrates grammatical competence by using a rule, not by stating a rule.

2.3. Sociolinguistic Competence

Sociolinguistics is the study of the interplay of linguistic, social and cultural factors in human communication. Sociolinguistic competence, thus, covers more than grammatical competence, while the latter is system of sounds, syntax, meaning units the former involves intercultural communication which concerns cultural values, social rules, the roles of participants, the information they share and the function of the interaction. Savignon (1983:37) states that "Sociolinguistic Competence requires an understanding of the social context ... and... only in a full context of thus kind can judgements be made on the appropriateness of a particular utterance." In Savignon's terms, judgements of appropriateness involve more than knowing what to say in a situation and how to say it. They also involve knowing when to remain silent.

Similarly, Canale (1983:7) defines sociolinguistic competence as sociocultural rules of use and rules of discourse. According to him, sociolinguistic competence addresses the extend to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in

different social contexts depending on contextual factors such as status of participants, purposes of interaction, and norms or conventions of interaction. In his terms appropriateness of utterances refers to both appropriateness of meaning and appropriateness of form, and appropriateness of meaning concerns the extent to which particular communicative functions, attitudes and ideas are judged to be proper in a given situation. As for the appropriateness of form Canale states that it concerns the extent to which a given meaning, including communicative functions, attitudes and ideas, is represented in a verbal or nonverbal form that is proper in a given sociolinguistic context. Wolfson (1989:37) states that rules of speaking and norms of interaction are both culture-specific and largely unconscious. Wolfson claims that native speakers are very well able to judge the correctness and appropriateness of the speech behaviour of those with whom they interact, so that when a rule is broken, when someone not fully socialized into the culture in question says something which is incorrect or inappropriate, the native speaker recognizes the deviation and responds to it in whatever way seems most reasonable under the circumstances. While above fact on sociolinguistic competence is simply a fact those who live in their linguistic environment, language learners who are not very much aware of the social norms cultural values and appropriateness of their verbal behaviour in their attempt to communicate through second language would face serious misunderstandings. Richards (in Wolfson and Judd eds. 1983:247) states that mastery of a foreign language requires more than the use of utterances which express propositional meanings and are conventional forms of expression. The forms of utterances must also take into account the relationship between speaker and hearer and the constraints imposed by the setting and circumstances in which the act of communication taking place. What is your name? is a conventional utterance for example, but it is not an appropriate way of asking the identity of a telephone caller, for which purpose May I know who is calling? is considered a more appropriate way of requesting. Referring to Hymes, Richards goes on explaining that communicative competence includes knowledge of different types of communicative strategies or communicative styles according to the situation, the task, and the roles of the participants. For example, if a speaker wanted to get a match from another person to light a cigarette, he or she might

make use of one of the following utterances, according to the speaker's judgement of its appropriateness:

1. Make a statement about a need. "I need a match."

2. Use an imperative: "Give me a match."

3. Use an embedded imperative: " Could you give me a match."

4. Use a permission directive: "May I have a match?"

5. Use a question directive: "Do you have a match?"

6. Make a hint: "The matches are all gone I see." (Richards in Wolfson&Judd 1983:247)

When Wolfson's claim, above remembered, it can be said that from different points of views both Wolfson and Richards support Hymes' view and appropriateness.Richards concludes that young children learning their mother tongue soon become skilled at using communicative strategies which they judge to be appropriate to different types of situations. Thus a child who wants something done for her may bargain, beg, name call, or threaten violence in talking to children, reason, beg, or make promises in requesting to parents, or repeat the request several times or beg in talking to grandparents. Segalowitz and Gatbonton (in Wolfson and Judd 1983:249) support Richards view that language learners who have only mastered basic vocabulary and syntax in their new language but have not developed stills in the domain of linguistic variability may find social interaction with native speakers in their new language to be a relatively negative experience and may become discouraged from pursuing language practice with native speakers. Thus, from above point of view one may have right to assert that in language teaching and learning the recognition of rules for the appropriate conduct of speech differ considerably from one society to another. For this reason, learners' sociolinguistic or sociopragmatic competence in their native language might not assure appropriate and successful interactions with native speakers of the target language community.

Olshtein (in Gass and Selinker 1983:232) explains the significance of sociolinguistic competence through an example. Olshtein claims that adult second language learners who seem to have almost perfect mastery of the grammatical system of the target language and who have gained narrative fluency, are often very surprised to find that they have difficulty at the interpersonal level when interacting with native speakers. According to Olshtein, a foreigner who happens to visit United States often

complains that "Americans don't mean what they say."Olshtein interprets such complaints as a misunderstanding or an unpleasant experience resulting from the visitor's literal interpretation of a culturally accepted statement. In Olshtein's example, a visitor accepting the statement, "You must come and visit as sometime" literally, might cause much embarrassment to his or her host when showing up at the doorstep. Olshtein believes that in such a case some violation of the sociocultural rules which take the speaker beyond basic linguistic competence.

2.4. Discourse Competence

As it is often defined discourse will be a very short conversation between two participants or a very thick written material such as a book or a chapter. Discourse competence focuses on intersentential relations, in other words, as Brown (1994:229) refines, this component of communication competence refers to the idea that "how we string sentences together.

According to Canale (in Richards and Schmith 1983:9) discourse competence concerns mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken and written text in different genres. As Canale puts it the term "genre" is used to identity the type of a text, and text types are: oral and written narrative, an argumentative essay, a scientific report, a business letter or a set of instructions etc..., each represent a different genre. Stern (1983:222) referring Hymes, defines genre as " socially recognized unit of speech activity-conversations, discussion,lecture, etc.- constitutes speech event, which occurs in a speech situation."However, Hymes in Stern's terms enlarges the concept genre including different speech events of poem, myth, tale, proverb, riddle, curse, prayer, oration, lecture, commercial, form, letter and editorial.

Similarly Savignon (1983:38) goes a pace forward and includes some other text types that discourse competence focuses on. Savignon, states that recognition of the theme or topic of a paragraph, chapter, or book, getting the gist of the telephone conversation, poem, television commercial, office memo, recipe or legal document requires discourse competence. What is confessed by many is that the organizational patterns of discourse differ, depending on the nature of the text and the context in

which it appears. Because of the connections of sentences require different organizational patterns when different types of texts are taken into account. Savignon (1983:38), again, mentions that "Discourse competence is concerned not with the interpretation of isolated sentences but with the connection of series of sentences of utterances to form a meaningful whole." The connection between sentences or utterances, however, requires the consideration of common terms "cohesion" and "coherence" Canale (1983:9) states that unity of a text is achieved through cohesion which deals with how utterances are linked structurally and facilitates interpretation of a text, and coherence which covers relationships among the different meanings in a text, those meanings which will be literal, communicative functions, and attitudes. In order to clarify what is meant by above terms Widdowson's (1978:29) example-a short dialogue below- would be helpful,

A: That's the telephone

B: I'm in bath.

A: O.K.

Widdowson clarifies that although there is no overt signal of cohesion among these utterances, they do form coherent discourse to the extent that A's first utterance functions as a request-in other situations it might count as an identification, a warning or an explanation. B's reply functions as an excuse for not complying with A's request and that A's final remark is an acceptance of B's excuse. Widdowson concludes that "once one establishes a relationship between the three utterances as illocutionary acts and thereby sees them as constituting a coherent discourse, one can then supply the missing propositional links and produce a version which is cohesive:

A: That's the telephone. (Can you answer it, please?)

B: (No, I can't answer it because) I'm in the bath.

A: O.K. (I'll answer it).

As Canale (1983:10) reviews such an integration of grammatical, sociolinguistic and discourse rules is suggestive of the complexity of communicative competence and is consistent among these three areas of competence. Finally, Savignon (1983:40) states that discourse competence is the ability to interpret a series of sentences or

utterances in order to form a meaningful whole and to achieve coherent texts that are relevant to a given context. Success in both cases is dependent on the knowledge shared by the writer/speaker and the reader/hearer- knowledge of the real world, knowledge of the linguistic code, knowledge of the discourse structure, and the knowledge of the social setting.

2.5. Strategic Competence

In describing the fourth category of competence, the strategic competence, Canale (1983:10) proposes that there are two main reasons on tee need of mastery of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies: (1) to compensate for breakdown in communication due to limiting conditions in actual communication (e.g. momentary inability to recall on idea or grammatical form) or to insufficient competence in one or more of the other areas of communication competence; and (2) to enhance the effectiveness of communication (e.g. deliberately slow and soft speech for rhetorical effect). In his own example, Canale states that, if a learner did not know the English term "train station", he or she might try a paraphrase such as "the place where trains go". Savignon (1983:228) paraphrases above fact as "the strategies that one uses to compensate for imperfect knowledge of rules-or limiting factors in their application such as fatigue, distraction, and inattention." Savignon's view can also be observed in the fig.2.2. on page 40 where knowledge of the world and knowledge of language come into contact, thus, strategic competence serves an executive function of making the final decision, among many possible options, or wording, phrasing, and other productive and receptive means for negotiating meaning. Brown and Yule (1988:233) clarifies the Bachman's view given in the figure 2.1. indirectly:

"We must say that the knowledge we possess as users of a language concerning social interaction via language is just one part of our general sociocultural knowledge. This general knowledge about the world underpins our interpretation not only of discourse, but of virtually every aspect of our experience. In her pedagogical point of view Oxford (1990:8) explains the strategic competence as compensation strategies, that is, guessing when the meaning is not known, or using synonyms or gestures to express meaning of an unknown word or expression that are the heart of strategic

competence.

2.6..Speech Acts

Speech acts, which would associate different meanings to different people, can be viewed from two different points of views: a philosophical. b-Sociolinguistic.

Kasper (in Gass 1989:39) claims that the notion of speech act is central to pragmatic theory. Similarly, Levinson (1987:226) stresses upon the widest interest on speech act theory ranging from anthropology, psychology to philosophers and literary critics. Trudgill (1992:61) defines "pragmatics" as a branch of linguistics which deals with the meaning of utterances as they occur in social contexts. Pragmatics is thus contrasted with semantics, which deals with purely linguistic meaning, and has connections with discourse analysis, social context, and the study of speech acts.

Although speech acts theory is of great importance to linguistic pragmatics, some others such as politeness, presupposition and Grice's cooperative principle also play an significant role in analyzing the meanings of utterances and sentences.

2.6.1 .Philosophical views on Speech Acts

Mentors of the speech act theory Austin and Searle claim that when somebody says something probably he or she does something. In Coulthard's (1977:11) terms "it is by saying the words that one performs the action". In their attempt to discuss how language functions in communication requires that there should be a clear distinction between form and function. Stubbs (1987:147) argues that " if speakers always said what they meant, then those would be few problems for speech act theory or for discourse analysis". Stubbs goes on explaining that speakers do not say what they mean directly, a central problem for analysis is therefore the depth of indirection involved in much discourse: the distance between what is said and what is meant, and the multiple layers of meaning between the literal propositional meaning of an utterance and the act which it performs in context.

Speech acts are one of the most significant functional classification of speech, however, there are still many different classifications on speech functions.

Basically linguistic form refers to the phonological, semantic and syntactic properties of language, however linguistic function, in Wardhaugh's (1976:94) term,

refers to the uses speakers make of linguistic form in communication. Wardhaugh gathered many examples to make clear the distinction between form and function. Here are some of them;for instance, a sign saying "Dangerous Dog" is a warning, not just some kind of statement. "I like that one", may be a request for someone to buy that object. "Your room is a mess!" said by a mother to a child is usually taken not as a simple statement about the condition of the room but as a command to tidy up the room. "I can't find my glasses" may be an indirect request for instance. A teacher's comment that "It's warm here!" may lead to a student opening a window.

All above various functions indicate that most utterances have a purpose, they are spoken with an intent to communicate something. As Wardhough suggests, intention is part of meaning and use. And speaking may be regarded as a series of acts rather than events, because people do not inquire about the intentions of the natural events. For instance, Austin's sentence "Snow is white" (in Hudson 1982:110) is a bald statement, thus, study of meaning should not concentrate on such statements. In contrast, if one says, "Simon is in the kitchen" she asserts to hearer that in the real world a situation exists in which a person named Simon is in a room identified by the referring expression "the kitchen". However, the speaker has one or two different purposes in mind when uttering it. It may be an invitation or warning or complaining. Hence, it can be said that assertive utterances-against bald ones -do not merely describe some state of affairs but also carry out acts. In linguistic philosophers term, assertive or declarative utterances are "performative" others "constative". In other words, a performative utterance is one that actually describes the act that it performs and simultaneously describes the act.

2.6 1.1 Functions of Speech

Hymes (in Wolfson 1989:6-9) puts forward that there are sets of categories and components for analyzing and describing the patterns of speaking and provides a comprehensive framework for the study of sociolinguistic rules. The following 16 items, set by Dell Hymes, can be labelled as the components of speech. According to Wolfson's revision:

1. Setting: This refers to the time, place, and physical circumstances in which

speech takes place.

2. Scene: Here Hymes refers to the psychological setting of speech or to what may be seen as the cultural definition of an occasion.

3. Speaker or sender of a message.

4. Addresser: Since in some societies, the speaker is not the same person who actually gives the message, this component is included.

5. Hearer or receiver or audience.

6. Addressee: In some instances the addressee is not a person. People in English-speaking societies speak to animals, for example, and may even address such inanimate objects as walls.

7. Purposes or outcomes.

8. Goals.

9. Message form: This component is fundamental to all rules of speaking since it involves the description of how something is said.

10. Message content : This refers to the topic or what is being talked about.

11. Keys : This has to do with manner or spirit in which something is said (e.g. serious, joking, sarcastic, playful)

12. Channels : This refers to the whether the medium of communication is spoken or written.

13. Forms of speech has to do with the language or codes, varieties, and registers which may be used.

14. Norms of interaction refers to the specific behaviors that are considered appropriate for different kinds of speaking in different societies.

15. Norm of interpretation involve the way different kinds of speech are regarded and understood by members of a given group and therefore involve what Hymes calls the belief system of a community. Where norms of interpretation are different, they often lead to miscommunication across cultures.

16. Genres : These refers to the categories of communication, such as poems, curses, prayers, jokes, proverbs, myths, commercials, or form letters, and often coincide with speech events. (Hymes in Wolfson 1989:9)

As Wardhough (1976:94) states linguistic forms refers to the phonological,

semantic, and syntactic properties of language: linguistic function refers to the user speakers make of linguistic form in communication. Wardhough argues that certain forms are often related to certain functions. For instance, forms like "Let's go" and "Please sit down" generally function as requests; forms like "What would you like?" and "Are you ready?" function as questions; and forms like "He scored a touchdown." and "He didn't come." function as statements. But as Wardhough claims in actual language use, linguistic forms do not correlate exactly with linguistic functions on every occasion. The following lines are Wardhough's examples on how linguistic forms function other than their literal meanings. A sign saying "Dangerous dog" is a warning, not just some kind of statement. "I like that one" may be a request for someone to buy the object that occasioned to remark. "I would like that dress" said to a sales clerk is a request to buy the dress. Said to a companion during window shopping it may be no more than a fanciful comment. "You've changed" said about someone changing clothes may be a request for a reason for an unexpected action. "Your room's a mess!" said by a mother to a child is usually taken not as a simple statement about the room's condition but as a command to tidy up the room. "I can't find my glasses" may well be an indirect request for assistance, just as a teacher's comment that "It's warm here!" may lead to a student opening a window. "Will you send me your trail offer?" in a letter to a mail-order house is a request though the form is that of a question. "Can you do it for me?" may get one of two answers: "Yes" or the doing of the action previously indicated. "Don't tell me she has done it!" will usually lead to an act of telling that he has indeed done it, in spite of the form of the command, an apparent prohibition of any such telling. The question "Are you going to let them do that to us?" can not appropriately be answered "Yes", so it is a rhetorical question rather than a genuine question requiring either "Yes" or "No" for an answer. A child who asks another "Why is a Volkswagen like an elephant?" expects not an answer to his question, but a reply such as " I don't know." Hudson (1982:109) asks the question "What part does speech play in social interaction?" However, he confessed that there is no simple answer, nor even a single complicated one, as speech plays many different roles on different occasions. As Wardhough above did, Hudson also classifies the functions through his own examples. A person who moves furniture hears from

people, "To you......now up a bit......" and so on, where the speech acts as a control on people's physical activity, in contrast to its function in a lecture where it is intended to influence the thoughts rather than the actions of the listeners. Referring Malinowski's "Phatic Communion" Hudson mentions that speech is used simply to establish or reinforce relations which is a kind of chit-chat that people engage in simply in order to show that they recognize each other's presence. The question "where is the tea-cosy?" is simply functions to obtain information. To express emotions, the exclamation form "What a lovely hat!" for only its own sake "She sells sea-shells by the sea-shore" kind of linguistic forms can be uttered.

In both Wardhough and Hudson's attempt to display the functions of speech, it is obvious that to reach the end is rather difficult. Additionally, both figures (Wardhough 1976:95, Hudson 1982:107) mention that they miss the fact that listeners know that they treat particular forms used in certain context in different ways from the same forms used in other contexts.

Similarly Fraser (in Richards and Schmith 1983:29) reviews the functions of speech by discussing some utterances: "How are you?" counts as a greeting, not a farewell. "Can you pass the salt?" is frequently used as a request, while "Are you able to pass the salt?" is not. "John is married to his work." involves a metaphor. "I'll be there" is used as a promise, a warning, a treat or a prediction, but not as a criticism or a request. "Well" at the beginning of an utterance may signal a sense of contemplation, annoyance or surprise. "Your breath smells so bad it would knock a buzzard off a manure wagon."will be heard as an insult. In Fraser's own understanding, each of these facts goes beyond what we would want to ascribe as knowledge a native speaker has about the grammar of English. Knowing a grammar is to know the rules for characterizing language form. Knowing facts of the sort presented above involves knowing rules for language use as well.

In the same vein, Richards (1991 : 82) proposes five assumptions in an attempt to put forward language learner's communicative needs and the nature of verbal communication, which are parallel to Canale's given earlier. According to Richards, communication is, (1) meaning based, (2) conventional, (3) appropriate, (4)

interactional and (5) structured. Communication is meaning based, so it is propositional whereby speakers exchange a set of meanings. It is conventional because each language has a set of strict constraints which limits how speakers can create and encode meanings. It is interactional that it is used to keep open the channels of communication between people. It is structured in that certain text types such as narrating, formal letter writing requires certain rhetorical organization. The third assumption "appropriate" has a central importance because in indefinite number of settings and circumstances L2 learner utterances should take into account factors given above. Hence, it can be said that, cross cultural sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic varieties necessitate the consideration of above factors.

2.6.1.2 Functional Classification of Speech Acts

One of the most influential classification of functions of speech was made by Austin. His theory is based on providing a formulation of different functions of speech.

Jannedy et. al.(1994:229) state that "Just as people can perform physical acts, such as hitting a baseball, they can also perform mental acts, such as imagining hitting a baseball. People can also perform another kind of act simply by using language; these are called speech acts. Language philosopher Austin (cited in Hudson 1982:110) there are three different kinds of speech acts: locutionary acts, illocutionary acts and perlocutionary acts. In his own terms (cited in Fasold 1991:147) "the uttering of the sentence is, or is part of, the doing of an action, which again would not normally be described as saying something." Hatch (1992:121) supports Austin's view saying, "The problem with assigning functions to sentences is that speaker intent and sentence meaning are not always the same. Speaker intent may be more or less, or actually the opposite of sentence meaning." However, as Austin and other above mention the classification of sentences or utterances may be possible in terms of the the consideration of utterance types such as locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts, and performatives and constatives. According to speech acts theory and as Wardhough (1976:96) explains "A locutionary act is an utterance with a certain sense and reference, that is, the utterance is meaningful, accordingly, all meaningful

utterances are locutionary act." At the same time "a speech act may also be an illocutionary act in that it may do one of a number of different things such as announce, state, assert, describe, admit, warn, command, congratulate, comment, request, reprove, apologize, criticize, approve, welcome, thank, promise, regret and so on." As for perlocutionary act, there should be an effect over someone by saying something that achieves an act of convincing, amusing, deceiving, boring, persuading and so on. To exemplify above acts, Hudson (1982:110) gives some examples which would be beneficial. Hudson argues that an utterance "He'll soon be leaving" can be classified as a promise if one believed that the speaker would be pleased with the news that "he" actually leaving soon. Thus the pleasing effect of the utterance is the perlocutionary act of the utterance while the illocutionary force of the utterance itself is a promise without having the perlocutionary act. In the same vein, Wardhough (1976:96) gives a two-word utterance example to make the distinction crystal clear: "Stop that!" is a properly formed utterance, so it is a locutionary act. "Stop that!", in a context when a person says to another that something is being done should not be done and the speaker has the right to say so and the hearer under obligation to desist, the illocutionary act occurs. As Wardhough explains; if the illocutionary act is successful in bringing about an end to the activity, then that act together its consequences constitute a perlocutionary act. In other words, the above utterance "Stop that!" includes a verb that state the speech act. Therefore, the usual name for such verbs is performative verbs, which may be defined as verbs that can be used to perform the acts they name. Another distinction on forms of speech acts within illocutionary force is made by Wardhough that while constative utterances are propositions stating "fact", sometimes the subject of agreement and other times the subject of the dispute, performatives are: verdictives, exercitives, commissives, behavities expositives. the following are the examples of constatives and performatives gathered by Wardhough respectively: "The sun will rise at seven tomorrow morning." is a fact, "I don't like cabbage." is the subject of agreement, and "John denied the story." is an example for subject of dispute. Referring Austin, Wardhough collected following utterances to explain performative verbs: a. verdictives , gives verdicts, findings or judgements: the umpire's "Out" or "Safe; the jury's "Guilty" or "Not guilty." Exertives, such as the

lawyer's "I advise you to say nothing." or the judge's "I sentence you to five years" or the policeman's "stop" show exercise of powers, rights, or influence. Commissives that indicate commitments or promises or taking on of an obligation or states an intention are formed through anyone's "I promise....", "I agree.....", "I swear......", "I plan........", "I bet....." and so on. Behavitives are formed through the expressions of attitudes and social behaviour verbs of congratulate, compliment, welcome and apologize and statements like "I'm sorry", expressions of approval like "Thank you". Finally, expositives provide a different type of classification to the ongoing discussion that verbs like in utterances "I assume.....", "I concede......." or " I hypothesize....." are considered within performatives.

Another important point on constatives and performatives that should be mentioned here is that, "while the subject "I" and subject "you" is often present they do not have to be" Wardhough (1976:97). As Wardhough puts it, ".... any performative can be recast to include "I" and "you" if one or both are absent. Likewise, the performative is in the present tense and the word "hereby" can be included: "(I hereby judge you) out"; "I (hereby) bet you five dollars"; or "(I hereby say to you) I'm sorry". Of course, the performative utterance must occur in suitable circumstances." This final fact on performatives can be exemplified through Jannedy's (1994:231) example: "Suppose that two drunks in a bar decide to get married and go up to the bartender and ask him to marry them. Suppose that the bartender used to be a court clerk and remembered exactly what must be said and done to marry people. Suppose finally that they go through the whole ceremony in front of witnesses, and that the bartender concludes by saying, "I hereby pronounce you husband and wife." Saying this, in this context, would not effect a marrying of these two people, and not necessarily because they drunk or they are in bar, but simply because the bartender does not have the official, social and legal status required to marry people. The marriage pronouncement is therefore situationally inappropriate, and we say in such cases that the speech act in question is infelicitious-has gone awry." As it is obvious from above context, performatives utterances require appropriate circumstances which is often called felicity conditions. Austin (cited in Fasold 1991:149) proposes six general felicity conditions which must be met if the speech act is not to go wrong:

1. There has to be such a speech act recognized by the society.

2. It has to be performed by the right person under the right circumstances.

3. It has to be performed correctly.

4. It has to be performed completely.

5. The person or persons involved in the performing the speech act has to have the thoughts and feelings connected with that speech act, if any.

6. The person or persons have to conduct themselves subsequently as if they had the right thoughts and feeling.

2.6.1.3. Indirect Speech Acts

As it is mentioned by Courthard (1977:21-27) Searle has carried out speech act philosophy and made a significant contribution especially to the indirect speech acts. Searle, after the death of Austin, has tried interpreting performatives from a different point of view and gives following description of his six categories through examples:

1. Sentence concerning hearer's ability; "Can you pass the salt?"

2. Sentence concerning hearer's future action;

" Will you / are you going to pass the salt?"

3. Sentence concerning speaker's wish or want; "I would like (you to   pass) the salt."

4. Sentence concerning hearer's desire or willingness; "Would you mind passing the salt?"

5. Sentence concerning reasons for action; "It might help if you passed the salt.", "I don't think you salted the potatoes."

6. Sentences embedding either one of the above or an explicit performative; (therefore, not really a separate class). "Can I ask you to pass the salt?"

According to Coulthard (1977:26) Searle proposes that the first three types refer to the three felicity conditions on directive illocutionary acts that are, (1) preparatory, concerned with the listener's ability; propositional content, concerned with the futurity of the action; and sincerity, concerned with the speaker's wanting the listener to perform the action. Searle's above six categories of possible indirect speech acts are his own descriptions. To make the case more clear and to make the intention made by

Searle explicit Jannedy's (1994:232) descriptions and examples may be beneficial. What Jannedy states is that speech acts commonly performed by people are often realized indirectly. To remember and differentiate indirect speech acts from directs, it would be said that there are two ways of making direct speech acts: (1) by making a direct, literal utterance, or (2) by using a performative verb that names the speech act. What is prerequisite for direct speech acts to be achieved is that the felicity conditions. Here are some Jannedy's direct-indirect comparisons:

A. Questions

1. Direct

a. Did John marry Helen?

b. I ask you whether or not John married Helen.

2. Indirect

a. I don't know if John married Helen. (Speaker doesn't know the truth about the state of affair)

b. I would like to know if John married Helen. (Speaker wants to know the truth about the state of affair)

c. Do you know if John married Helen? (Speaker believes that the hearer may be able to supply the information about the state of affair that speaker wants.)

B. Requests

1. Direct

a. Please take out the garbage.

b. I request that you take out the garbage.

2. Indirect

a. The garbage isn't out. (Speaker believes that the action has not yet been done.)

b. Could you take out the garbage? (Speaker believes that the hearer is able to do the action.)

c. Would you mind taking out the garbage? (Speaker believes that the hearer is willing to do action-type things for the speaker.)

d. I would like for you to take out the garbage. (Speaker wants action to be done.)

In her own review, Jannedy believes that there is something up front about the A.1 questions and the B.1 requests. Sentence A.1.a taken literally is a request for information about John's marrying Helen. The same is true of A.1.b. However, that A.2.a taken literally is not a question at all. It is an assertion about the speaker's knowledge. A.2.b is also an assertion. A.2.c, in contrast, is a question that literally asks whether the hearer knows something. As mentioned in parenthesis with the sentences A.2 and B.2 suggest, indirect speech acts involving felicity conditions. That means, in order to perform a certain speech act indirectly, the formulation of question, assertion, request or order that evokes a felicity condition on that speech act is needed. Meanwhile, to understand, detect or determine if an utterance is an indirect speech act, checking the utterance in terms of verb type would reveal its type. That is to say, if an utterance involves a performative verb, it must be a direct speech act, for indirect speech acts are not formed through performatives. For example A.1.b and B.1.b above include performatives of " ask" and " request" verbs. However, in sentences A.2. a,b,c,d performative verbs are not uttered.

Another approach to describe indirect speech acts is postulated by Fasold (1991:153). Fasold claims that apologies are better example, among many, in illustrating indirect speech acts. Apart from Searle's (see page 28) categories, Fasold views indirect speech act realizations as in the following conditions Which have felitious apologies:

1. The speaker is responsible for the act for which he or she is apologizing;

2. The speaker regrets the act;

3. The act is detrimental to the hearer.

Fasold believes that all above options can be used to convey apology. The second one, however, differs from the first and the third in that it involves the speaker's thoughts and feelings. Fasold, in his own terms, explains that " when an apology is called for, the speaker would be disinclined to try to use 3, which focuses on the offense to the hearer. This becomes especially clear when we recognize that the most common response to an apology is not either to accept it or reject it, but to deflect it. Since deflection is the hearer's role, it is best to leave the third condition open so that the hearer can use it to deflect the apology by saying, " It was nothing", or "That's

allright". In other words to ritually deny condition 3. The first one is not usually open as a means for giving an indirect apology because it is usually obvious that the speaker is responsible. If you were to run into a woman shopping at a grocery store and make her spill her groceries, she would not be much mollified if you said, " Oh dear, I made you spill your groceries". Fasold's experience on indirect apology is the occupation of someone's seat in a lecture when the original owner of the seat left for a moment returned and sit another seat, because it was occupied by Fasold. An apology was required in such a situation so, Fasold, at the end of the lecture turned to her and said "I took your seat." She responded "That's O.K." As he explains, the person took the utterance "I took your seat" as an apology. Fraser states that;

> "....performance of indirect speech acts-those illocutionary acts which are not directly performed in the sense in which we have used the term, but which are intended to be inferred by the speaker on the basis of what has been said, the way in which it was said, and the context of speaking." (Fraser 1983:46)

Thus, Fasold's above example tells us that the indirect speech act of apology through uttering "I took your seat" reveals only an intention of apology of the speaker with such a context. Fraser (1983:50) explains that, " in some cases, the path between the direct act (e.g., a claim as in, "I must apologize for doing that.") and the indirect act, an apology, will seem to be quite straight forward; in other cases such as " That was dumb of me" which is a very different claim,an apology may also be intended." So it can be said that not only will an account take into consideration the conditions defining the intended indirect act, what the speaker has directly done, the manner of speaking, and the context of speaking, but also a set of mutually shared beliefs.

2.7. Sociolinguistic Views on Speech Acts

Hudson (1982:1) defines sociolinguistics as "the study of language in relation to society".From this simple definition one might have a right to say that in any society language, society and culture in human communication play a fundamentally important role. Edward Sapir (in Brooks 1964:86) states that "language is an essentially perfect means of expression and communication among every known people. Of all aspects of culture, it is fair guess that language was the first to receive a highly developed form and its essential perfection is a prerequisite to the development of culture as a whole."

Sapir (in Robinet 1980:147) this time says that "language does not exist apart from culture, that is from the socially inherited assemblage of practices and beliefs that determines the texture of our lives." Thus, it may be inferred from above Sapir's views that language which is the most important component of culture play a significant role in making people live together as a society. Considering Hudson's above short definition on sociolinguistics, thereby, it may be true to say that not only is language studied in relation to society but the culture is under investigation as well.

In second or foreign language learning the emphasis on communicative competence has been obvious in terms of learning sociocultural rules of appropriacy. Knowing grammatical rules may not assure true communication, thus, lack of sociocultural competence would result miscommunication or communication failure between language users who belong to different cultures. Tannen (1984:189) argues that there are at least eight aspects to be considered as different cross-culturally. Tannen described eight levels of differences on which cross-cultural communication can falter, namely, when to talk, what to say, pacing and pausing,listenership, intonation and prosody, formulacity, indirectness, and cohesion and coherence. In Tannen's description of above eight differences the second one which is "What to say" emphasized largely for it may be the central idea in considering cross-cultural communication. In Tanner's own experience in Greece reveals the significance of knowing what to say when cross-cultural interaction is called for. In Greece Tannen was invited to join a dinner party at the home of a man who was an excellent cook. He had prepared an elaborate dinner, including many small individually-prepared delicacies. During dinner, Tannen complimented the food: "These are delicious." Her host agreed: "Yes they are delicious." She praised: "It must have taken hours to prepare." "Oh, yes", he agreed. "Those take many hours to prepare." Tannen understood that a host should not compliment his or her own cooking and should minimize his or her effort, she decided that this host was egotistical. When leaving the dinnerparty, she said, "Thank you for the wonderful meal". And the host reported, "What those little nothings?" with a dismissing move of his hand in the direction of the table and a self-depreciating grimace on his face. She was surprised, and even felt hurt, as if he were implying she had been making too big a deal about the effort

involved in preparing the meal. She expected him to accept the compliment this time, saying something like, The pleasure was mine, come again." So, Tannen realized that people who have different cultural background differ in accepting and deflecting compliments. As she mentions, personality characteristics was a cultural convention and all other Greek speakers accepting and turning aside compliments in similar ways Tannen (1984:189).

Similarly, Hudson (1982:107) states that there are many constraints, which may differ from society and society. In his own example, Hudson claims that "in Britain, we are required to respond when someone else greets us; when we refer to someone, we are required to take account of what the addressee already knows about him; when we address a person, we must choose our words carefully, to show our social relation to him; when someone else is talking we are required to keep more or less silent." Thus, Hudson's above social conventions on interaction rules, support Tannen's "what to say" and "when to talk" aspects of human communication. What Canale (1983:7) states that "Sociolinguistic competence thus addresses the extend to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different sociolinguistic contexts depending on contextual factors such as status of participants, purposes of interaction, and norms or conventions of interaction." Brown (1994:231) states that "Learning the organizational rules of a second language are almost simple when compared to the complexity of catching on to a seemingly never-ending list of pragmatic constraints." Brown also argues that learning a language becomes an exceedingly difficult task when sociopragmatic constraints are brought to bear. Here are two examples to demonstrate above view:

(1) American: "What an unusual necklace. It's beautiful."

Samoan Recipient: " Please take it."

(2) American teacher : "Would you like to read?"

Russian student: "No I wouldn't" (cited in Brown 1994:231)

According to Brown in both cases non-native English speakers misunderstood the illocutionary force (intended meaning) of the utterance within the context.

Similarly, Kasper (in Gass 1989:39) states that pragmatic knowledge is distinct from other types of knowledges, such as discourse, semantic, grammatical,

phonological and world knowledge. However, pragmatic knowledge interacts with above knowledge types, and the language user's task in performing verbal action is to select and combine elements from these areas in accordance with his/her illocutionary, propositional and modal goals. Kasper maintains that the notion of speech act is central to pragmatic theory. In her review, Kasper gives examples of speech acts representing how speaker meaning often cannot be unambiguously identified. The following four example distinguishes four types of multiple illocutionary force realized by speakers:

(A) Ambiguity, where speaker A intends force X, while the addressee B computes force Y,

A: You're drinking a beer there.

B: Yes.

A: Erm er well er I might er if you were kind enough to offer me one I probably wouldn't say no.

as it is obvious from A's final utterance, the illocutionary goal of his first utterance was a request, whereas B construed it as a statement.

(B) Ambivalence, where the illocutionary force is deliberately indeterminate, namely, it is up to the addressee to pick and choose the illocution she likes. Thus the utterance

A: "I'm sorry but I'm afraid you're in my seat." is ambivalent between a reproach and a request.

(C) Bivalence or plurivalence, where two or more non-related forces are co-present, all of which have to be decoded. Thomas' example is the back-hand compliment, as in

A: Your hair looks so nice when you wash it.

Where the overt compliment carries a covert insult.

(D) Multivalence, where the utterance has two or more different receivers, for instance a direct addressee and another receiver, a different illocutionary force being addressed to each of them through the same utterance. Thus a showmaster's utterance

A: And now, ladies and gentlemen: Mr Bruce Springsteen.

has the force of an announcement for the (directly addressed) audience, while at the

same time functioning as a cue (a specific form of instruction) to the artist to appear on stage.

Kasper argues that above instances are both problems for pragmatic theory and likely sources of misunderstanding in cross-cultural communication. Therefore, they deserve closer study through speech act theory.

2.8. Interlanguage pragmatics

Hymes, in his article "On Communicative Competence" (in Pugh et. al 1980 : 98-99) explains the term interference in terms of sociolinguistic interference - with what Thomas (1983:103) means sociolinguistic failure - Hymes puts the matter in these words :

> When a child from one developmental matrix enters a situation in which the communicative expectations are defined in terms of another, misperception and misanalysis may occur at every level. As is well known, words may be misunderstood because of differences in phonological systems; sentences may be misunderstood because of difference in grammatical systems; intends, too, and innate abilities, may be misevaluated because of difference of systems for the use of language and for the import of its use. (Hymes: in Pugh et.al. 1980:98-99)

The term interference or negative transfer, within the frame of sociolinguistic or pragmatic transfer was well described by Wolfson (1989:141). Wolfson puts it; "the use of rules of speaking from one's own native speech community when interacting with members of the host community or simply when speaking or writing in a second language is known as sociolinguistic or pragmatic transfer. Blum Kulka (in Koike 1989:279) states that learners seem to develop an interlanguage of speech acts performance which can differ from both first and second language usage in linguistic form and/or procedure or strategy. Similarly, Beebe, Takahaski and Uliss-Weltz in their study Pragmatic Transfer in ESL Refusals (in Scarcella et al 1990:55) propose that: "there exist a large body of research that claims that interference plays an important role in shaping interlanguage."

Interlanguage pragmatics, differing from interlanguage phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics, places on emphasis on the pragmatic study that focuses on people's comprehension and production of linguistic action in context. As proposed by Thomas, there are two types of pragmatic failure : (1) pragmalinguistic failure occurs

when speech act strategies are inappropriately transferred from L1 to L2 ; and (2) sociopragmatic failure which stems from cross-culturally different perception of what constitutes appropriate linguistic behavior (see Figure 2.2.). In an attempt to distinguish pragmalinguistic failure from sociopragmatic, Thomas (1983:100) tries to put forward possible causes of communication breakdown through a diagram .

'GRAMMAR'

Grammatical Error
(caused by overt or
covert grammatical
error, slips, etc.)

Knowledge of 'grammar'

Beliefs about Grammar

Pragmalinguistic Failure
(caused by mistaken
beliefs about pragmatic
force of utterance)

Pragmatic
Failure

Sociopragmatic Failure
(caused by different
beliefs about rights,
'mentionables', etc.)

**LANGUAGE
IN
USE**

Social Error
(caused by ignorance
of 'world')

Beliefs about World

Knowledge of 'world'

'WORLD'

Figure 2.2. Possible Causes of Communication Breakdown (Thomas 1983)

In her diagram Thomas places "language in use", namely, pragmatics in the

middle where "grammar" and "world" interact in any communication attempt. In her terms, pragmatics is the place where a speaker's knowledge of grammar comes into contact with his/her knowledge of the world. But both systems of knowledge are filtered through systems of beliefs- beliefs about language and about the world. Thomas believes that the interpretation of an utterance in the way in which the speaker intended, the hearer must take into account both contextual and linguistic cues. Thomas strongly states that misunderstandings can arise not only from language limitations (pragmalinguistic failure) but also from inadequate utilization of social conventions and values in the target culture (sociopragmatic failure).

While Corder (in Ellis 1982:7) proposes that the linguistic system of the learner's mother tongue acts as the starting point of the learning process, Selinker theorizes that the majority of L2 learners make use of a "latent psychological structure". Selinker in his article "interlanguage" (1983:174-5) first discusses Weinreich's "interlingual identifications" which describes grammatical relationship in two languages. Selinker believes that when the Weinreich's "interlingual identifications", such as one above, assumed there would be a psychological structure and that is latent in the brain, and activated when one attempts to learn a second language. Selinker's above view associates Chomsky's Language Acquisition Device (LAD). Ellis (1982:7) asserts that as in Chomsky's LAD model, L2 learning occurs through the operation of psycholinguistic learning processes which are triggered by exposure to relevant data. Meanwhile, Selinker also relates his theory with Lenneberg's "Latent Language Structure" which Lenneberg claimed that the child utilizes in first language acquisition and appears to refer to mental schemata which govern the acquisition of new knowledge in general. Although Ellis maintains that Selinker's "latent psychological structure" and Lenneberg's "latent language structure" contrast with each other, Selinker claims that there is a closeness between the two theories. Selinker summarizes that there exists in the brain an already formulated arrangement which for most people is different from and exists in addition to Lenneberg's latent language structure which consists of (a) an already formulated arrangement in the brain, (b) biological counterpart to universal grammar and (c) transformed by the infant into the realized structure with certain maturational stages. Thus, it can be said that both Selinker and

Lenneberg theorize the language acquisition process (so the language learning process) in almost the same way. Furthermore, Selinker claims that (1983:175) adults who succeed in learning a second language achieve native speaker competence by reactivating the latent language structure. In describing the "interlanguage"-earlier than the latent psychological/language structure- Selinker proposes that the only observable data to which we can relate theoretical predictions is the "utterances" which are produced when the learner attempts to say sentences of a TL. Selinker states that this set of utterances for most SL learners is not identical to the hypothesized corresponding set of utterances produced by NSs of the TL had be attempted to express the same meaning as the learner. Since we can observe that these two sets of utterances are not identical, then in the making of constructs relevant to a theory of SL learning we can hypothesize the existence of a separate linguistic system based on the observable output which result from a learner's attempted production of a TL norm. Selinker calls this linguistic system as Interlanguage.

Language-Learner language, latent language structure, approximative system and finally interlanguage, whatever the phenomenon is labelled, as Selinker put forward, the main focus should be the predictions of behavioral events of language learners which is latent in the linguistic shapes of their utterances.

Selinker (1983:177) points out that successful predictions of behavioral events in meaningful performance situations will add credence to the theoretical constructs related to the latent psychological structure. In describing the observable data, Selinker that the only observable data from meaningful performance situations we can establish as relevant to interlingual identifications are: (1) utterances in the learner's native language produced by the learner; (2) IL utterances produced by the learner; and (3) TL utterances produced by native speakers of that TL. These three sets of utterances are psychologically relevant data of second language learning and theoretical predictions in a relevant psychology of SL learning will be the surface structures of IL sentences. Selinker claims that by setting up these three sets of utterances the investigator can begin to study the psycholinguistic processes which establish the knowledge which underlies IL behavior. He also suggests that there are five central processes in SL learning (1) language transfer; (2) transfer of training; (3) strategies of SL learning; (4)

strategies of SL communication; and (5) overgeneralization.

2.9. Review of Sociopragmatic Studies

In language learning, two basic proponents of perfect mastery of grammatical system and sociolinguistic competence come into being. Through gaining above two components learners would be able to communicate effectively in their both spoken and written communication attempts.

Evelyn Hatch (1992:136) suggests that the study of speech acts within a higher level of communication and/or within a larger discourse structure is called the "speech event analysis". Among them, requests, compliments, complaints, gratitudes, refusals, apologies, greetings often labelled as speech act. From Wolfson's (1989:110) point of view speech acts of complimenting, inviting, thanking etc.., have rules in terms both of where and when they may occur and of what their specific features are. She also widely stresses upon the importance of the cultural information that is embedded in speech acts. Based on their research, Wolfson, Manes and Wolfson (1989:111) states that in American English, compliments are so highly patterned that they may be regarded as formulas. That is, in a particular speech community and in different speech situations certain formulas or routines of speech act structures are required. Wolfson (1989:102) described a situation to show how native speaker Americans use speech act structures differently. Meanwhile, the functions of utterances differ considerably when compared to other cultural settings. In order to express gratitude Americans first often expressed surprise at the offering and then followed their statements with actual thanking formulas of "Thanks" , " Thank you so much". After the actual formulaic expression, it is typical to find another statement, this time expressing pleasure "That's great!" . An additional speech act, that of complimenting the giver "You're wonderful" is also frequently employed as part of the sequence of thanking, and, finally, it is common for the recipient to employ a further strategy, that of expressing a desire to continue the relationship or to repay the favor. Literature on sociopragmatics, such as given above, is full of such findings on speech acts.

In 1981 Cohen and Olshtain carried out a study to investigate how and to what extend first language norms interfere with second language learners' ability to the

norms of the target language community. In this study, they compared native and non-native responses in Hebrew and English to a variety of situations through Discourse Completion Test (DCT). Subjects of 44 college students were asked to read and then roleplay or write their reactions to "eight apology" situations.

Cohen and Olshtain (1993:33-50) reported that (1) native speakers' choices of apology forms are highly patterned. (2) Non-native speakers were found to deviate from native speaker norms not only as a result of transfer but also because of their inadequate proficiency in their second language made them produce inappropriate degree of regret. They also state that the contrasts in findings has to do with the extreme differences between the learner and the target language population in terms of sociocultural background. Although there are certain differences in sociolinguistic behaviors among them, there can be little argument that Americans and Israelis share many more characteristics than do Americans and other cultures such as Turkish or Japanese.

Olshtain in 1983 studied apology speech act by utilizing the same elicitation procedure, DCT, to collect data. The total number of subjects was 63. In his study he tried to find out how the subjects perceived the universality of the need to apologize in given situations.

Olshtain aimed at describing the semantic formulas which make up the apology speech act: "An expression of an apology", "An explanation of an account","An acknowledgement of responsibility", "An offer of repair", and "A promise of forbearance". Olshtain not only tabulated the results to the elicitation response but also interviewed each student asking two questions: "Do you think that speakers of Hebrew apologize more or less than speakers of your native language?" and "Do you feel that a native speaker of Hebrew might apologize differently from a speaker of your language for any of the eight situations?" Above question were asked to 12 Russian and 13 English who had been learning Hebrew in Israel.

Olshtain discovered that English speakers perceive less need to apologize in Hebrew than in English and Russian speakers. He also claimed that apologizes have to do with feeling responsibility for a violation and this motivation should remain unchanged no matter what language one happened to be speaking.

As Olshtain claimed, English speaking group apologized considerably more than native speakers of Hebrew did in the same situations and therefore can be said to have exhibited transfer. Olshtain also added that the tendency to transfer feature from L1 to L2 may depend on the learners' perception with regard to the assignment of language specifity or language universality to the speech act under consideration.

Although Fraser (1981:263) gives quite a long list of formulas, in his own terms, strategies for apologizing, nine of his strategies are reduced to five in recent studies (Cohen and Olshtein 1981, Olshtein 1983 and Cohen 1996).

Fraser's list consists of the following 9 strategies and first 4 of them would be labelled as direct what Austin (1972) called performative from his philosophical understanding (see 2.6.1.2.):

Strategy 1. Announcing that you are apologizing

"I (hereby) apologize for..."

Strategy 2. Stating one's obligation to apologize

"I must apologize for..."

Strategy 3. Offering to apologize

"I (hereby) offer my apology for..."

"I would like to offer my apology to you for..."

Strategy 4. Requesting the hearer to accept an apology

"Please accept my apology for..."

"Let me apologize for..."

"I would appreciate it if you would accept my apology for... "

Among above Fraser's formulas, while the first one is performative rest of the three strategies are both direct and expressing the obligation to apologize.

Five out of nine are the following indirect formulas which have first been introduced by Fraser and widely used by people in the field.

Strategy 5. Expressing regret for the offense

"I'm (truly/very/so/terribly) sorry for..."

"I(truly/very much/so...) regret that I..."

Strategy 6. Requesting forgiveness for the offense

"Please excuse me for ..."

"Pardon me for..."

"I beg your pardon for..."

"Forgive me for..."

Strategy 7. Acknowledging responsibility for the offending act

"That was my fault."

"Doing that was a dumb thing to do."

Strategy 8. Promising forbearance from a similar offending act

"I promise you that that will never happen again."

Strategy 9. Offering redress

"Please let me pay for the damage I've done."

Almost all of the above semantic formulas introduced by Fraser were adopted by Cohen & Olshtain mentioned initially, however, some of them were modified as subformulas of a formula in their studies. For instance, Fraser's sixth strategy of "Requesting forgiveness for the offense" was included in the category of "An expression of apology" as one of the subcategories among many. Cohen and Olshtein (1981:119) reformulated Fraser's formulas as in the following :

1. An expression of apology Illocutionary force indicating device(IFID)

a. An expression of regret (e.g. "I'm sorry") (IFID)

b. An offer of apology ("I apologize") (IFID)

c. A request for forgiveness (e.g."Excuse me" or "Forgive me") (IFID)

2. An expression of an excuse (not an overt apology but an excuse which serves as an apology) (e.g. "I missed the bus")

3. An acknowledgement of responsibility (e.g."It's my fault")

4. An offer of repair ("I'll give it back you soon")

5. A promise of forbearance (i.e., "it won't happen again")

Another significant contribution, introduced by Cohen and Olshtein, was their second formula of "An expression of an excuse." This category was not mentioned among Fraser's apology formulas and included in by Cohen and Olshtein. Their view on including the category depended entirely on cultural matters, thereby, Cohen and Olshtein mentioned that in Israel the excuse itself can be considered an appropriate way of apologizing. Thus, "An expression of an excuse" for example, in a situation where

somebody was late for a meeting might say "I missed the bus." without using any illocutionary force indicating device IFID, such as "I'm sorry.".

Speech act studies in refusals was reported by Beebe et al (in Scarcella et al. 1990:55-58) which was a systematic study and investigated the evidence for sociolinguistic/pragmatic transfer in English of native speakers of Japanese. Researchers collected data from 60 subjects who had different language background. Namely, there were native speakers of Japanese (JJs), native speakers of American speaking in English (AEs) and native speakers of Japanese speaking in English (JEs). The purpose of the study was to discover whether the refusals given by the third group (JEs) corresponded more closely with those of the JJs or with the speakers of the target language, the AEs. The design of the study used both ethnographic data that requires observation of subjects and responses to a discourse completion test (DCT) consisting of 12 situations.

As they mentioned, in three areas there was a clear indication of transfer; (1) the order in which semantic formulas-such as apologies, regrets, excuses, direct "no"s, suggestions-for refusing were used.With respect to sociolinguistic rules, one of the most critical findings is the Japanese speaking in English "omitted apology/regret when they were higher status than the requester." Thus, in terms of order of formulas, the influence of status is strong in the speech of Japanese whether speaking English or their native language. (2) Beebe et al found out that JEs apologized twice as often as Americans. So, it can be said that, concerning transfer in refusals to requests, the frequency of semantic formulas display parallelism, that is, transfer of L1 to L2. (3)In their analysis of the content of the semantic formulas used by three groups, they found that "there is a pragmatic transfer in the content of several formulas, the most interesting being excuses, statements of principle, and statements of philosophy." As they point out, refusals, like other speech acts, reflect fundamental cultural values, and for this reason non-native speakers are likely to engage in sociocultural transfer in just those speech acts, like refusals, that involve delicate interpersonal negotiation.

Takahashi and Beebe, in 1987, carried out another study hypothesizing that at the pragmatic level transfer increases rather than decreases with proficiency. With respect to their hypothesis, Takahashi and Beebe found evidence of pragmatic transfer

among both EFL and ESL students. They used the same DCT which contained 12 situations. They had 80 subjects half of them Japanese responding in Japanese and the rest Americans responding in English.

They found that transfer from Japanese rules of speaking was more common in the EFL group than it was among ESL students. Although their hypothesis was not supported by their data, it seems clear that pragmatic transfer exists both among students of English studying in the host speech community and among those for whom it is a foreign language being learned in their own country.

Blum-Kulka (in Wolfson 1989:150) in 1982 carried out a study in Canada to examine and find evidence of transfer in requests. She also used DCT as her elicitation instrument for Hebrew learners.

The most important finding of her study was certain forms were translated word for word from one language to the other. In other word Blum-Kulka found examples where learners made direct translations from their native language and thus ended by using forms for requests that either were ambiguous or simply did not carry meaning of a request in the target language-which was Hebrew for Canadian English speakers. Blum-Kulka also draws a conclusion that, the performance of SL learners comes closest to native speaker usage when the rules are shared across the two cultures. When the rules are language-specific, the most deviation from native speaker usage occurs.

Another noticeable finding of Kulka's study is that the learners of Hebrew who were first language speakers of Canadian English often failed to convey their intended meanings because they chose forms which were too indirect to be interpreted by Hebrew speakers requests.

Olshtain and Blum-Kulka (in Gass et al. 1985 :303-325) carried out another study to demonstrate "how to native speech act behavior by nonnatives may serve as a useful indication of their degree of acculturation to the target speech community". Researchers administered their DCT-like Judgement Test - comprised of 4 request situations and 4 apology situations ,in which each situation includes six different choices- to 172 natives and 124 nonnatives. While they have considered three basic

categories of "direct"- linguistically marked ways of making requests (such as imperatives and performatives), "indirect" -conventionally used for requesting (such as Could/Would you..... ."), and (3) "open-ended"-set of indirect hints (such as "It's cold in here") they followed Brown and Levinson's politeness strategies, trying to distinguish four major categories of (1) positive politeness strategy, (2) negative politeness strategy , (3) distractors, and (4) direct-bald on record (see Data Collection).

Olshtein and Blum-kulka's study concentrated on the development of communicative competence learning English in the natural setting and with regard to speech acts. They found out that there seems to be an increasing similarity between native and nonnative judgements as a function of the nonnatives' length of stay in the target speech community. Their findings indicate that, (1) the response patterns of second language speakers to the judgement test change over time as a function of the speakers' length of stay in the target language community, (2) changes over time of nonnatives' response patterns reflect a process of approximation of target language norms: on the one hand they develop tolerance for new interactional styles, and on the other hand they maintain features shared by the two cultures.

Erçetin (1995) studied pragmatic transfer in the realization of apologies among Turkish EFL learners and compared their performance with native speakers of English. Erçetin carried out her study through 26 native speakers of English, 88 EFL learners and 45 native speakers of Turkish. Among her findings, learners interlanguage development of learners, and pragmatic transfer from Turkish to English at all levels of linguistic proficiency were significant. Additionally, Erçetin added her list of semantic formulas the "Denial " of fault for an offense in analyzing the data though she based her study on early studies of Olshtein (1983) and Cohen and Olshtein's (1993).

Studies on the speech act of gratitudes reported by Eisenstein and Bodman (1986) and Wolfson (1981).

In their study, Eisenstein and Bodman (1986:168-185), as a beginning to their collection of baseline data, gathered spontaneous data in which native speakers of English used formulaic expressions containing such semantic items as "appreciate" and "thank". Then, they carefully selected those examples which had functions other than the expression of gratitudes. Utilizing the data the investigators prepared a

questionnaire, informal interviews were held with both native and nonnative subjects. Researchers gave their questionnaire-which was similar to DCT mentioned earlier-to 67 nonnative speaking subjects and 56 native speakers of English. To make precise comparison of the thanking responses, gathered by DCT, they developed a rating scale to code nonnative utterances. Their scale includes semantic formulas of : "not acceptable", "problematic", " acceptable", "native-like perfect", "not comprehensible" ,and "resistant".

They found that in spite of some individual differences, the native speakers produced highly formulaic responses. As they put it (in Wolfson 1989:154) "Another item of interest in the native data was the abundant appearance of routines and the almost ritualistic inclusion of certain semantic information. The nonnative speakers of English performed very differently. That is their production of expressions of gratitude were highly dissimilar from the routine used by the English-speaking Americans. According to Eisenstein and Bodman, the nonnative responses were similar to nativelike behavior only 30 percent of the time; the other 70 % showed difficulties not only with syntax and lexicon but with the very formulas or conventionalized routines and expressions which were typical of the data collect from native speakers. What they found is that in American English, thanking is a mutually developed or negotiated speech act in which the addressee is as active as the person expressing gratitude. With respect to transfer they found that advanced-level learners have considerable difficulty in attempting to perform formulaic speech routines. Finally, Eisenstein and Bodman's study, proposes that ritualized expressions are uninterpretable cross-culturally because of the variability of values and attitudes.

Linda L. Harlow (1990:328) carried out another sociopragmatic study at Ohio State University. She aimed at showing what constitutes sociopragmatic competence. In other words, her main focus was stressing upon the claim that " sociopragmatic competence in a language comprises more than linguistic and lexical knowledge". Harlow proposed that speakers know how to vary speech act strategies according to the situational and social variables present in the act of communication.

In Harlow's study the data collection was carried out through a questionnaire format role-playing situations with photographs. Subjects were 28 French speakers at

Ohio State University. Harlow investigated the variation in requesting, thanking and apologizing behaviors of both natives and French learners. In terms of the social variables of sex, age and familiarity on these behaviors.

Harlow found out that familiarity between speakers seems to effect the length of the statement made to requests a service. Apparently when one approaches someone unfamiliar to request a favor, one attempts to minimize the effects of the imposition made by lengthening the requests structure. The same structure was also observed in thanking speech act realizations, namely, older addressees and strangers seem to invite longer formulas of thanking than youngers. As for pedagogical implications, the study indicates that the relationship between familiarity and length of utterance used to request a favor, which implies the use of syntactic and lexical downgraders, should be delineated. Thus, it can be said that both teachers and textbooks need to emphasize to the learner that language is composed of not just linguistic and lexical elements; rather, language reflects also the social context, taking into account situational and social factors present in the act of communication.

CHAPTER III.
METHODOLOGY

3.1.Introduction

In order to investigate sociocultural competence, it would be necessary to assess a variety of speech acts. Many studies, however, often focus on one or two of the speech acts.The reason on focusing one or two speech acts would be that while some speech acts are post event, such as thanking and apologizing, some are pre-event speech acts such as requesting. (Cohen 1981, Olshtain and Blum-Kulka 1985, Olshtain 1983, Eisenstein and Bodman 1986,Takahashi 1996, Holmes 1989, Blum-Kulka and Olshtain 1984, Fukushima 1990, Gibbs 1986, Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz 1985, Harlow 1990, Cohen and Olshtain 1993, Bergman and Kasper 1993, Olshtain and Weinbach 1993,Weizman 1993,Takahashi and Beebe 1993)

Based on the studies reviewed in Chapter 2 and mentioned above, it was felt that thanking and apologizing speech acts might exhibit cultural and linguistic differences across languages. Thus, investigation sociopragmatic development of two groups of language learners would be beneficial.

Apologies, by definition, are generally post-event acts that take place as a remedial work, action taken to change what might be seen as an offensive act into an acceptable one. During the course of everyday affairs one may offend another. An offense of this sort would be the violation of social norms, such as belching at the dinner table, arriving late for an appointment at a doctor's office, or telephoning an acquaintance late at night (Fraser 1981:259). As it is the case for almost all speech acts, apologizing requires the consideration of a number of different factors such as distance, power, age, setting, the degree of offense. Thus, can be said that they are highly complex forms of expressions to be dealt with (Fraser 1981, Blum-Kulka 1984, Beebe and Takahashi 1989, Wolfson 1989).

As for thanking, it is simply a language function that has an important social value and used in a considerable range of interpersonal relationships. The successful performance of thanking may engender feelings of warmth and solidarity. In contrast, failure in expressing gratitude may have negative social consequences which can not be

easily compensated.

One of the most significant social values of thanking is that thanking calls for both a thanker and a giver, and they interact together to create a mutually satisfactory speech event. After a service or favor, doer expects some sort of gratitude from the hearer, otherwise, breaking the social rules, miscommunication or some kind of negative thoughts may arise in minds.

There has been considerable evidence that non-native speakers of English often face difficulty in acquiring the appropriate ways to communicate functions (Beebe 1985, Cohen and Olshtein 1981). What has been additionally noted that speech acts differ cross-culturally in their distribution, function and frequency of occurrence (Schmith and Richards 1980). For instance, in a given language community, thanking, might be used in place of other functions of language, such as complimenting and conclusion of a conversation (Manes and Wolfson 1981).

Views on native speaker sociopragmatic norms on thanking and apologizing provide a useful point of departure. However, to evaluate English learners' abilities comprehensively when apologizing and thanking in the target language, it was necessary for this study to explore how these speech acts are realized by native speakers in a range of situations. The study goals, then, first to collect baseline data from native English speakers to determine how they express apologizing and thanking; secondly, to collect data from non-native speakers of two different language learners to determine how they express thanking and apologizing in the same situations.

3.2. Subjects
3.2.1. Native Speakers of English

To determine the speech act preferences of native English speakers in a given situation, 50 American and British English speakers served as subjects. They were all university graduates living and working in Turkey. Among English speakers, the selection of subjects was based on the following criteria;

(1) length of residence in Turkey; (2) having a Turkish spouse; (3) failed or didn't return the discourse completion test on time before statistical analysis, and (4)

nationality.

Those who have been residing more than two years in Turkey, has Turkish wife or husband and has origin other than American and British were excluded from the study.

The table below shows some facts about native English speakers(NES);

Table 3.1. Characteristics of NES

Country		USA	U.K.
Number of Subjects		21	29
Mean Age		36.8	
Sex	Male	23	
	Female	27	
Education		All University Graduates	
Mean length of residence in Turkey		23 months	

3.2.2. Learners of English

Learners of English fall into two distinct groups; (1) Pre-academic School Turkish EFL learners at Anadolu University Prep-School; (2)fourth-year learners at the Education Faculty of Anadolu University, Eskisehir, Turkey.

3.2.2.1. Prep-School Students

Among five hundred Prep-School learners sixty eight of them were selected randomly as the subjects of this study. All 68 students would continue their education in Education Faculty, ELT department at Anadolu University in the following year were selected as study subjects. Seventeen male and fifty one female prep-school learners had a mean age of 18 and came from many different parts of Turkey. Prep-school learners' mean score from English Proficiency Test was 67.75.

3.2.2.2. Fourth year Students

The second group of non-native subjects were 61 fourth year students of Education Faculty, ELT Department at Anadolu University. There were 46 female and

15 male fourth year subjects and the mean age for them was 22.5. Although the number of fourth-year subjects were 81 at the beginning of the study, twenty of them were excluded from the study due to high missing values in their discourse completion tests. Seniors' mean score from the English Proficiency Test was 76.16. When compared with prep-school learners' 67.75, there is a 8.41 point difference between the two groups. Prep school and fourth year learners who scored under 46 were excluded from the study, thus, proficiency level of learners was one of the criteria in selecting learner subjects for the study.

3.2.3. Native Speakers of Turkish

Fourtyfour Turkish native speakers, all university graduates, were included in the study. Native Turkish Subjects' age ranged from twentyfive to sixty, and they represented a variety of socioeconomic backgrounds. They were born and raised in different parts of Turkey, and engaged in different occupations in Eskisehir. While some of them have their own businesses others work for private and state sectors. Twenty-two of these 44 subjects had been abroad between two months to two years, but none of them had been in an English speaking country.

In summary, a total of 223 subjects participated in the study. The distribution of the subjects is summarized in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2. Characteristics of All Subjects

Subjects	n	USA	UK	Age mean	Sex M	Sex F	Proficiency Level	Residence in Turkey	Education
Native English	50	21	29	36.8	23	27	–	23 months	University Graduates
Prep-learners	68	–	–	18.7	17	51	67.75	–	–
Seniors	61	–	–	22.5	15	46	76.16	–	–
Natives Turkish	44	–	–	27.6	22	22	–	–	University Graduates

3.3. Materials

Materials used in this study includes an English placement test (Michigan Placement), Discourse Completion Test (DCT), and Background Questionnaire which assess subjects individual characteristics.

3.3.1. Placement Test

The Michigan Placement (MP), a standard placement test, was administered to determine the language levels of the subjects. The MP test has been administered at Anadolu University Education Faculty and The School of Civil Aviation successfully for years, and MP has been used for placement by many of the researchers in above institutions (Cantürk 1998; İpek 1998 and Baysal 1998). In determining the levels, the evaluation scale suggested by Faculty of Education, ELT department was used.The subjects were given two hours to finish the test which consisted of:

20 Listening comprehension items,

30 Grammar and Structure items,

30 Vocabulary items, and

20 Reading Comprehension items.

The reason for using MP, in this study was to determine whether the prep-learners and fourth year students were at an intermediate and/or above this level. Thus, the MP enabled the researcher to select study subjects.

The evaluation scale suggested by Education Faculty ELT department is shown in table 3.3.

Table 3.3.Evaluation Scale for the MP Test

| 76-100 Advanced |
| 61-75 Upper-Intermediate |
| 46-60 Intermediate |
| 31-45 Lower-Intermediate |
| 16-30 Elementary |
| 0-15 Beginner |

According to above scale, the distribution of the scores obtained by the prep and fourth year learners is given in table 3.4

Table 3.4. The Distribution of MP Test Results.

Scores	Levels	Prep-learners	Fourth Years
		n	n
76-100	Advanced	17	37
61-75	Upper-Intermediate	37	22
46-60	Intermediate	14	2
		Total 68	Total 61

Students who scored below 46 from this test were excluded because it was assumed that those students may not understand the Discourse Completion Test contexts.

3.3.2. Discourse Completion Test (DCT)

The DCT, a controlled elicitation instrument in which subjects are asked to read and then write their reactions to situations, has been widely used in sociopragmatic studies.

The DCT used for this study consisted of fourteen thanking and fourteen apologizing situations, which were adapted from the ones used in other DCTs (Cohen and Olshtein 1981, Eisenstein and Bodman 1986 , Tillett and Bruder 1985 and Bergman and Kasper 1993).

Two types of DCT elicitation procedures have been used in earlier studies. In studies only descriptions of situations are given to subjects (Cohen and Olshtein 1981, Eisenstein and Bodman 1986). In some other studies, situations follow a mini dialogue (Leslie M. Beebe et. al. 1990). In both types of DCTs, subjects are asked to write their speech act realizations (see 2.9.Review of Sociopragmatic Studies).

Johnston et al. (1998) criticized early DCT instruments on the bases that lengthy and boring descriptions deteriorate the situations to be responded, instead, he argues, dialogue supported situations produce more talk and increase the naturalness of subjects' reactions.Therefore, two versions of DCTs -pure descriptive and dialogue supported-were tested via pilot studies.

In the first pilot study 8 native English speakers and 21 non-native English

speakers of EFL learners were given the DCT which consisted only of descriptive situations. Native English speakers were also asked to comment on the situations in terms of grammatical, contextual accuracy and appropriateness of situations.

The items which were not responded by the subjects and detected to be lengthy, boring and not clear were taken out and changed into a dialogue form with an introductory description. Other dialogue supported situations were added and the new version of the DCT was formed.

This version of DCT was administered to 18 native speakers of English and 36 non-native English speakers of EFL first year learners attending Education Faculty ELT department. In the second piloting of the DCT those items which were unclear for both native speakers and English learners were excluded.

In the final DCT there were a total of 36 situations, 18 for thanking and 18 for apologizing. After the administration of the final DCT there were some items which were still considered to be problematic by both native speakers and non-native subjects. Thus, 8 situations -4 from thanking and 4 from apologizing- were extracted from the DCT, resulting in a total of 28 situations. The last version of the DCT was tested for reliability. To calculate the reliability, the final version of the DCT was repeated at certain intervals and the accepted level of 75% was reached (Davies's 1990).

Examples from dialogue supported and pure descriptive thanking situations are given below;

Situation 5 (A dialog supported thanking situation)

5. It's Friday and you need some money for the weekend. You look in your wallet and notice that you only have 50.000 TL. Your good friend notices this and gives you some money

You   : "Dam, I'll have to go to the bank."

Friend : "Do you need money ?"

You   : "I forgot to go to the bank."

Friend : "I have plenty. How much do you need?"

You   : "Could you lend me 5 million TL? I'll pay you back on Monday."

Friend : "Sure. Are you sure you don't need more than that? "

You   : "No I don't."

Friend : (Gives you 5 million TL)

You   :

Situation 7 (A pure descriptive thanking situation)

7. You have been invited to the home of a rather new friend. You have dinner with him and his wife and a few other friends of theirs. The food was great and you really enjoyed the evening. As you leave, your hosts accompany you to the door.

You :

The dialogues were introduced by a brief description which gave the context the dialogue was supposed to occur and specified the conditioning factors considered most relevant. Apology situations contained an offense which was graded in terms of severity of the violation and the relative social status of the participants. In other words, while some situations required a short expression of apology, others necessitated an elaborate, extensive expression of apology. As for thanking situations, each of them called for a gratitude in varying degrees. The fourteen situations represented a range of formality that required either no expression of gratitude, a short expression of gratitude, or an elaborate, extended expression of gratitude. The description of the roles and the relationships of the interlocutors, together with the setting and the events made the DCT situations open-ended so that the subjects could react in any way that they wished.

The Turkish version of the same DCT was given to adult native speakers of Turkish (see Appendix B). To obtain the Turkish version the following steps were taken. First, three instructors at Education Faculty ELT department translated the English version of the DCT into Turkish. Then, the translated versions were compared with the researcher's translation. Third, the translated Turkish versions were back-translated into English by a different group of instructors at the same faculty. This process was done to ensure that both the English and the Turkish versions associate equal meanings to Turkish natives and English natives.The following are two of the translated DCT items:

Situation 5. (A dialogue supported thanking situation)

5. Günlerden cuma ve hafta sonu için bir miktar paraya ihtiyacınız var. Cüzdanınıza baktığınızda sadece 50.000 liranız olduğunu görüyorsunuz. Bunu samimi bir arkadaşınız fark edip size bir miktar para veriyor.

Siz: "Bankaya gitmem gerekiyor."

Arkadaş: "Paraya mı ihtiyacın var?"

Siz: "Evet, bankaya gitmeyi unutmuşum."

Arkadaş: "Bende var. Sana ne kadar lazım?"

Siz: "5 milyon verebilir misin? Pazartesi geri veririm."

Arkadaş: "Tabi. Daha fazlasına ihtiyacın olmadığına emin misin?"

Siz: "Evet, tamam."

Arkadaş: (Size 5 milyonu verir)

Siz:

Situation 7. (A pure descriptive thanking situation)

7. Yeni tanıştığınız bir arkadaşınız sizi evine davet ediyor. Davette arkadaşınız, eşi ve onların birkaç arkadaşı ile güzel bir akşam yemeği yiyor ve iyi vakit geçiriyorsunuz. Evden ayrılırken ev sahipleri kapıya kadar gelip sizi uğurluyorlar.

Siz:

3.3.3. Background Questionnaire

Each subject was given a background questionnaire (BQ). The BQ was designed to reveal the subjects' social and educational background, and other personal information such as age and gender. The BQ of English natives includes information on nationality, age, gender, native language and length of residence in Turkey (see Appendix A). This was done to exclude subjects who stayed in Turkey more than two years, and/or had Turkish spouses and/or those who are not originally from USA and UK.

As for prep-learners, the BQ covered questions of high school type (state or Anadolu/Private high school), parents' nationality, contact degree with foreigners before university, whether they have been abroad, gender, age and parents' education

level. These questions aimed at selecting subjects who had similar characteristics and enabled the researcher exclude subjects who have been abroad, grown up as bilingual and have English speaker parents. The BQ for fourth years comprises of the same questions given to prep-students with an additional item questioning whether they attended prep-school or not (see Appendix C). These questions aimed at selecting subjects who had similar backgrounds and enabled the researcher to exclude subjects who have been abroad, grown up as bilingual, have English speaker parents and attended English prep-school.

The BQ for Turkish native subjects covered questions of subjects' mother tongue, knowledge of foreign language, whether they have been abroad, origin of parents and spouse, gender, age, and the name of their highest education institution. Thus, subjects who have been abroad for more than several months were excluded from the study (see Appendix C).

3.4. Data Collection Procedures

In order to select learner subjects for this study, the Michigan Placement Test was administered to prep-school and fourth year students. Those scoring below 46 out of 100 were excluded from the study (see 3.3.1. Placement Test).

A few weeks later, the DCT was administered at a single session to EFL students. Instructors who have been teaching at Prep-school administered the DCT after class.

An instructor at Anadolu University Education Faculty ELT Department administered and collected the DCT given to fourth-years. Both prep-school learners and senior were informed that this data was being collected for a study and had no effect on their grades. They were also told that they need not write their actual names provided that they use a code name consistent with the ones they used in placement and BQ.

Native speakers of English 50 subjects who all reside in Ankara were requested to participate in the study. They were instructed to respond to role-play situations as they were real situations. After each situation they were asked to write their reactions in the blank "you". Native speakers were requested to write the first thing that came to

their mind, considering the person whom they were speaking.

The completed DCTs were either collected by the researcher or received by mail.

As for the adult native Turkish speakers, they were asked to fill out the Turkish version of the DCT. Because 44 adult native Turkish speakers were selected from different layers of the community, DCTs were handed in and collected one by one by the researcher. They were told to respond role-play situations as they were in a real situation. After each situation they were asked to write their reactions in the blank "you". They were requested to have written the first thing that came to their mind, considering the person whom they were speaking.

Background questionnaires, which were attached to DCTs and designed differently for each group of subjects, were administered to all subjects (see Appendix C).

3.5. Analytical Procedures

Having collected speech act realizations of four separate groups through DCT, firstly the responses given by native speakers of English and native speakers of Turkish were analyzed to form the baseline data. For the analysis of responses given by native speakers of English, Eisenstein and Bodman's (1986) thanking speech act set and Cohen and Olshtein's (1981) apologizing speech act set were used.

3.5.1. Thanking Speech Act Set

Eisenstein and Bodman (1986) carried out a comprehensive study on thanking. They found that to express thanking adequately, native speakers of English made use of formulas which involved two to five different functions of speech. To exemplify these formulas identified by Eisenstein & Bodman, one of the situations used in this study is given below;

Situation 10. It's your birthday, and you are having a few people over for dinner. A friend brings you a present. You unwrap it and find a blue sweater.

You:...................

In such a situation native speakers of English use formulas such as

"Oh" to express surprise,

"that's so sweat" to compliment the person/action,

"You didn't have to do that."to express lack of necessity, and

"Thank you very much." to thank successively.

As it was also mentioned by Eisenstein and Bodman, many different formulas in combination can be used for a given situation. For instance, in the same situation (Situation 10) a native speaker of English might add to the above set

"Just what I needed." or

"And blue is my favorite color." expressions are categorized under the semantic formula of "reassuring" (REASS).

Thanking speech act set developed by Eisenstein and Bodman (1986) can be listed as follows: for instance, in a given situation, the thanker may use the following formulas :

"(1) Oh! (2) Thank you very much. (3) It's kind of you. (4) You shouldn't have." (5) "Blue is my favorite color." (6) "I'll give it back soon."

1. Expressing surprise (EXL!) (including Wow! and Gee!)

2. Thanking.(THANK)

3. Complimenting the person (or the object) (COMP)

4. Lack of necessity (or obligation).(LACK)

(5)"Blue is my favorite color"

5. Reassuring (REASS)

(6)"I'll pay it back soon."

6. Promise to repay (REPAY)

However, another semantic formula was also observed which cannot be classified in the above set. So, discussing with the native and non-native colleagues these responses were classified under a different heading "Appreciate" (APP). This can be exemplified using situation 5 (money from friend).

"I appreciate this."

APP [(APPRECIATE) coded as express appreciation]

Thus, in this study, responses which included *appreciation*, were considered different from simple thanking and treated as a separate semantic formula.

3.5.2 Apology Speech Act Set

There is a growing source of data describing apology speech acts in terms of semantic formulas that comprise them (Bergman and Kasper 1993, Cohen and Olshtain 1993, Olshtain and Kulka 1985). In this study, an apology speech act set established by Cohen and Olshtain (1981), was used to describe responses of all groups of subjects.

Apology speech act established by Cohen & Olshtain (1981) is as follows:

1.An expression of apology, which is called illocutionary force indicating device (IFID) of

a. An expression of regret An Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID)

"I'm sorry"

b. An offer of apology (IFID)

"I apologize"

c. A request for forgiveness (IFID)

"Excuse me" or "Forgive me"

2. An offer of repair/redress (REPR)

"I'll pay for the damage"

3. An explanation of an account (EXPL)

"I've had a lot on my mind at the office recently"

4 Acknowledging responsibility for the offense (RESP)

"It's completely my fault."

5. A promise of forbearance

It will never happen again" (FORB)

Semantic formulas of native speakers of English determined by Cohen & Olshtain were considered as the basis of the speech act set for this study. However, the

list given above didn't cover all the responses of the study subjects. Therefore, some additions were made to Cohen & Olshtains's list.

The additional semantic formulas were classified under the following headings:

In situation 1 (insult somebody at meeting)

DENY (coded as denial of fault or offense)

"No, I didn't mean you."

In situation 2 (car accident)

BLAME (coded as put blame on the hearer)

"Weren't you travelling a little fast?"

In situation 9 (bump lady)

HEALTH (coded as asking the state of health)

"Are you okay?"

In situation 20 (forget tickets)

EXL! (coded as expressing surprise)

"Oh!", "Wow!", "Gee!", "Oops!"

In situation 21 (change order at restaurant)

REQUEST (coded as polite request)

"Could it possible to change the order?"

3.5.3. Scoring

Having determined the semantic formulas for both thanking and apologizing, the realizations of each of the 223 subjects for 28 situations were counted and tabulated.

A coding table was developed for each situation and the responses given by each subject were classified under the suitable categories.(see table 5.3)

Table 3.5 Sample Coding Table

Situation 1 (Personal Insult) Native Speakers of English	1. IFIDs (I'm sorry I apologize Pardon me Excuse me Forgive me)	2 REPR	3 EXPL	4 RESP	5 FORB	6 EMPTY	7 DENY FAULT	8 Exl!	9 Health	77 Wear it
1	/						/			
2	/								ʼ	
3	/						/			

For example, the following speech act realizations were studied in the table under semantic formulas which were coded via abbreviations of IFID, REPR, EXPL etc..(see Appendix D Coding Schema).

"I'm sorry. or Forgive me." coded under IFID

"I'll give it soon., or I'll pay you back" coded under REPR"If shoe fits wear it." coded under WEAR IT.

The frequency counts of each semantic formula and combination of semantic formulas were taken. Then, the Chi-square was applied to the results to find out whether there was a significant statistical differences between native speakers of English and non-native speakers of prep learners , and native speakers of English and native speakers of fourth year students. When two, three or more semantic formulas were realized by subjects, the frequency counts and Chi-square calculations were done for combinations.

CHAPTER IV.
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

In this study, the aim was to put forward the possible sources of sociolinguistic failures of language learners when they express themselves in English in various situations. To establish baseline data for comparisons both native speakers of English and adult native speakers of Turkish speech acts realizations were investigated.

Taking into account the problem given initially, the following questions were investigated to shed light on theoretically postulated views of interference and interlanguage through investigating the speech act realizations of learner subjects.

1. What kind of speech act realizations do non-native speakers of Turkish language learners prefer in expressing themselves in apologizing and thanking situations?

1.a. What kind of speech act realizations do Prep-school learners who have been attending Prep-school of Anadolu University Foreign Languages Department prefer in expressing themselves in apologizing and thanking situations?

1.b. What kind of speech act realizations do Fourth-year learners of Anadolu University Education Faculty ELT Department prefer in expressing themselves in apologizing and thanking situations?

The following two questions will establish the baseline data, which would enable the comparison of the results obtained from first question.

2. What kind of speech act realizations do native speakers of English prefer in expressing themselves in apologizing and thanking situations?

3. What kind of speech act realizations do native speakers of Turkish people , who are given the Turkish version of the same DCT, prefer in expressing themselves in apologizing and thanking situations in L1?

Native speaker of English (NES) and native speaker of Turkish (NTS) speech act realizations were used as baseline data. For this reason, in presenting the results situation by situation, NES tendencies were handled first and the learners responses

were compared to NES preferences.Whenever necessary for further explanations, NTS tendencies were also included.

4.2. Analysis of Apology situations

The analysis of 14 Apology situations were presented below including frequency of use of semantic formulas and chi-square values. The apology situations in the DCT were (1,2,3,4,8,9,17,18,19,20,21,22,27 and 28).

Table 4.1 below displays data derived from the situation 1 where a person said something and another person at the meeting took what was said as a personal insult towards him.

Table 4.1

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 1

Insult somebody at meeting	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
IFID	2	4.0	3	4.4	2	3.3	1	2.3
REPR	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
DENY	29	58.0	37	54.4	30	49.2	26	59.1
BLAME	0	0	4	5.9	0	0	0	0
IFID+RESP	0	0	2	2.9	0	0	0	0
DENY+WEARIT	0	0	2	2.9	0	0	2	4.5
RESP+BLAME	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
IFID+RESP+FORB	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
WEARIT	0	0	3	4.4	1	1.6	9	20.5
IFID+DENY	19	38.0	8	11.8	15	24.6	4	9.1
EMPTY	0	0	6	8.8	13	21.3	2	4.5
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs. NNPS) X^2=.02060   p< .05   (NES vs. NNFS) X^2=.48174   p>.05

NES=native speakers of English subjects, NNPS = Prep-School subjects

NNFS=Fourth-year subjects, NTS = native speakers of Turkish subjects

In this situation, baseline data, obtained from NES responses, revealed that

denial of fault/offense (DENY) (58.0%) and Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID)+DENY (38.0%) semantic formulas were widely preferred. Some DENY, IFID and IFID+DENY responses given by NES participants were as follows:

"It wasn't meant to be personal" (DENY) Subject (S) 1

"I was not referring to anyone in particular." (DENY) S 9

"Oh come on Bob, don't be silly. It's not about you at all.(DENY) S 35

"It wasn't directed at you at all."(DENY) S 44

"I'm sorry if you understand it in that way.I didn't mean to be personal." (IFID+DENY) S 19

"I'm sorry you feel that way, I didn't mean to hurt your feelings" (IFID+DENY) S 20

"I'm very sorry I didn't mean it as a personal insult" (IFID+DENY) S 23

"I'm sorry you feel that way." (IFID) S 30 (see App D Coding Schema of Apologizing and Thanking Semantic Formulas)

On the other hand, semantic formulas of REPR, BLAME, IFID+RESP, DENY+WEAR IT, RESP+BLAME, IFID+RESP+FORB and WEAR IT were not detected among NES realizations. Only 2 of NES (4.0%) preferred IFID by itself.

As for the student preferences, the IFID+DENY, consisting of an apologizing expressions+denying the fault or offense was realized by 11.8% of NNPS and 24.6% of NNFS. Such a percentage ranging, especially when higher percentages of NES 38.0% and NNFS 24.6%.and lower percentages of NNPS 11.8 % NTS % 9.1 were compared, seniors behaved NES-like (X^2 .48174 p>.05) for no significance was found out between NES and NNFS groups. In other words, most of the preps (NNPS) students did not show the similar preferences to the native English tendencies. When NNPS group is compared to NES, the chi-square result was found to be .02060 at p<05 significance level, thus the relationship between percentages of these groups was found to be significant..Since the X^2 result between NES and NNPS was statistically significant (X^2 .02060, p<.05), it can be said that NNPS probably reacted along with the Turkish norms.

Since the use of DENY was preferred having close percentages by 29 NES (58.0%), 37 NNPS (54.4%), 30 NNFS (49.2% and 26 NTS (59.1%), it might be accepted as a common way of reaction among English and Turkish cultural settings.

The semantic formula "WEAR IT" which is the code of "If the shoe fits, wear it" and has the Turkish equivalence of "Yarası olan gocunur", was realized by NTS (20.5%) slightly (4.4%) by NNPS and (1.6%) by NNFS. Since none of the NES used such an indirect blame strategy, it cannot be accepted as a semantic formula for English. Yet, in smaller percentages, NNPS and NNFS made such a preference which can be explained as having effect of Turkish preferences.

Semantic formulas of REPR (1.5%), BLAME (5.9%), IFID+RESP (2.9%), RESP+BLAME (1.5%),and IFID+RESP+FORB (1,5%) were only used by NNPS, revealing their interlanguage. The comparison of percentages between NES vs. NNPS through chi-square (X2= .02060 p<.05) was statistically significant, supporting this fact as well.

EMPTY category which indicates no answer, some unrelated answers produced just for fun includes only Turkish subjects of 6 NNPS (8.8%), 13 NNFS (21.3%) and 2 NTS (4.5%).

Table 4.2 below demonstrates the statistical data derived from the situation 2 in which a staff forgot a crucial meeting at the office with his boss.

Table 4.2

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas for Situation 2

Forget Meeting Boss	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
IFID	5	10.0	2	2.9	2	3.3	5	11.4
REPR	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	1	2.3
EXPL	6	12.0	11	16.2	10	16.4	5	11.4
RESP	3	6.0	9	13.2	6	9.8	7	15.3
FORB	2	4.0	1	1.5	1	1.6	1	2.3
IFID+EXPL	9	18.0	14	20.6	11	18.0	6	13.6
IFID+EXPL+RESP	7	14.0	6	8.8	10	16.4	1	2.3
IFID+EXPL+RESP+FORB	2	4.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXPL+RESP	3	6.0	9	13.2	2	3.3	0	0
IFID+FORB	1	2.0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
IFID+RESP	3	6.0	6	8.8	9	14.8	10	22.7
IFID+RESP+FORB	1	2.0	1	1.5	2	3.3	0	0
EXPL+RESP+FORB	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IFID+REPR+EXPL	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
IFID+REPR+RESP	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	1	2.3
REPR+EXPL	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2.3
REPR+EXPL+RESP	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
RESP+FORB	0	0	1.	1.5	1.	1.6	0	0
RESP+BLAME	1	2.0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
REPR+FORB	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
EMPTY	6	12.0	3	4.4	5	8.2	6	13.6
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) X^2= .36852 p>.05   (NES vs.NNFS) X^2= .49503   p>.05

As it is indicated in table 4.2, the baseline data revealed that NES primarily

reserved their preferences to the use of apologizing, (e.g. I'm terribly sorry) IFID (10%) and explanation of an account (e.g. I got tied up with a client. Are you free now?) EXPL (12%) and, especially, its combinations of IFID+EXPL (18%), IFID+EXPL+RESP (14.0%) (e.g. I'm so sorry. I failed to make a note in my folder and completely forgot it.). When the IFID+other semantic formulas (58%) is considered, the native English reaction to such a situation requires an IFID or IFID+another formula.

In terms of the single IFID usage, NTS (11.4%) preferences were quite closer to NES (10.0%), however, other NES choices were rather random ranging from 2% to 6%. For example, as it is seen on the table NES preferred 6.0% RESP, 4.0% of NES FORB, 2.0% of NES IFID+RESP+FORB, and 2.0% NES RESP+BLAME. Complex combinations of IFID+EXPL+RESP+FORB (4.0%) and EXPL+RESP+FORB (2.0%) were chosen by only 3 NES, but none of the learners preferred them. Since none of the native Turkish participants did not use such combinations, it can be said that the learners could not develop such elaborate uses yet because they do not have such usages in their native language. Yet, a simple combination like EXPL+RESP was preferred by 3 NES (6.0%), 9 NNPS (13.2%) and 2 NNFS (3.3%) though it was not a NTS preference.

When NES'(10%) use of IFID is compared with NNPS' (2.9%) and NNFS' (3.3%), the low preference of IFID by learners revealed an interlanguage development for both ELT groups.Additionally, above percentages of use of semantic formulas in this situation revealed that NES and NTS reacted close to each other, thus, single IFID usage was preferable in such an instance. As oppose to NES and NTS, only small number of learners displayed identical behaviors of lower usages of IFIDs revealing their interlanguage.

Explanation of an account (EXPL), as similar to above fact, displayed a parallel realizations, namely, NES and NTS obtained 12.0% and 11.4% respectively, but NNPS and NNFS obtained slightly higher percentages of 16.2% and 16.4%. Thus, higher percentages revealed that ELT subjects deviated from baseline data subjects which would again be attributed to their interlanguage development.

Taking responsibility (RESP) was observed 13.2% for NNPS and 15.3% for

NTS which were higher than NES (6.0%) and NNFS (9.8%). This would display that seniors reacted NES-like while prep-learners preferred NTS-like strategies.

As for the forbearance (e.g. It won't happen again) (FORB), totally 5 of the subjects out of 223 used this formula, namely, 2 NES (4.0%), 1 NNPS (1.5%), 1 NNFS (1.6%) and 1 NTS (2.3%) minimally used it.

The IFID+EXPL combination was preferred by subjects of NES (18.0%), NNPS (20.6%), NNFS (18.0%) and NSTs (18.0%) and (13.6%). In this situation, IFID+EXPL combination reserved the highest percentage of total 70.2% among other other formulas, thus, revealed that such a combination of formulas is acceptable cross-culturally.

Another combination was IFID+EXPL+RESP which was preferred by NES (14.0%), NNPS (8.8%) and NNFS (16.4%).Thus, the acceptability of this formula among fourth years is noticeable, so seniors are closer to the NES in their usage. Whereas, the lower percentage of preps could indicate that most of them haven't got closer to NES. Thus it can be said that NNFS' sociopragmatic development in L2 is quite higher than prep learners. Similarly, EXPL+RESP formulas were again observed among NES (6.0%), NNPS (13.2%) and NNFS (3.3%), though, no NTS preferred this combination. IFID+RESP, was highly preferred by NTS (22.7%), but NES (6.0%), NNPS (8.8%) and NNFS (14.8%) remained in lower usages. Since NNPS' reaction was closer to NES', NNPS behaved more NES-like in preferring IFID+RESP.

Chi-square values of NES vs. NNPS and NES vs. NNFS indicated no significance between group comparisons[(NES vs.NNPS) $X^2 = .36852$ p>.05 (NES vs.NNFS) $X^2 = .49503$ p>.05]. This would mean that the semantic formula preferences of NNPS and NNFS were not very much different than those of NES.

Table 4.3 below shows the statistical values of the data derived from the situation 3 where a friend forgets meeting with a friend.

TABLE 4.3.

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas for Situation 3

Forget Meeting Friend	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
IFID	2	4.0	3	4.4	4	6.6	4	9.1
REPR	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2.3
EXPL	2	4.0	8	11.8	8	13.1	6	13.6
RESP	5	10.0	9	13.2	3	4.9	6	13.6
IFID+EXPL	10	20.8	6	8.8	11	18.0	4	9.1
IFID+EXPL+RESP	4	8.0	8	11.8	8	13.1	2	4.5
EXPL+RESP	1	2.0	12	17.6	0	0	1	2.3
IFID+FORB	0	0	1	1.5	1	1.6	0	0
IFID+RESP	8	16.0	12	17.6	20	32.8	12	27.3
IFID+RESP+FORB	2	4.0	0	0	0	0	1	2.3
IFID+REPR+EXPL	2	4.0	0	0	1	1.6	1	2.3
IFID+REPR+EXPL+RESP	2	4.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IFID+REPR	4	8.0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
IFID+REPR+RESP	3	6.0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
REPR+RESP	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
REPR+EXPL	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
RESP+FORB	0	0	1	1.5	2	3.3	0	0
RESP+BLAME	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
EMPTY	5	10.0	3	4.4	3	4.9	6	13.6
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) X^2=.27026 p>.05   (NES vs.NNFS) X^2=.39371   p>.05

In forgetting a get-together with a friend situation, NES preferences mostly accumulated on semantic formulas of RESP (10%) IFID+EXPL (20.8%) IFID+EXPL+RESP (8.0%), IFID+RESP (16.0%) and IFID+REPR (8.0%). Yet, some other formulas such as IFID (4.0%), EXPL (4.0%), IFID+RESP+FORB

(4.0%), IFID+REPR+EXPL (4.0%), IFID+REPR+EXPL+RESP (4.0%) and IFID+REPR+RESP (6.0%) preferences were lower in use.

With respect to RESP, NES (10.0 %), NNPS (13.2 %) and NTS (13.6 %), however, NNFS obtained the lowest percentage of 4.9%. Such a low preference of RESP revealed NNFS deviation from both NES and NTS, thus indicated their lack of L2 sociopragmatic knowledge. NNFS again displayed a different behavior in the use of IFID+RESP formula, that is, NNFS group got the highest percentage of 32.0% which was closer to NTS (27.3%) revealing their L1 influence. In the same case (IFID+RESP), however, Prep learners' (17.6%) realization was NES-like (16.0%).

As for the IFID+EXPL, NNFS (18.0%) realization, this time indicated NES-like (20.0%)behavior, but NNPS (8.8%) preferred NTS-like (9.1%) behavior.

The IFID+EXPL+RESP combination displayed a slight interlanguage fact for both NNPS (11.8%) and NNFS (13.1%) for learners obtained higher percentages than NES (8.0%) and NTS (4.5%). Another interlanguage development was observed among NNPS in using EXPL+RESP combination. That is, NES (2.0%), NNFS (0.0%) and NTS (2.3%) were rather rare in their preferences,however, NNPS obtained the highest percentage of 17.6% which could clearly be attributed to their interlanguage grammar.The X^2 calculations of NES vs. NNPS and NES vs. NNFS were found to be insignificant in this situation [(NES vs.NNPS) X^2=.27026 p>.05 (NES vs.NNFS) X^2=.39371 p>.05]. This would mean that the semantic formula preferences of NNPS and NNFS were not very much different than those of NES.

Table 4.4 below presents the statistical scores of the data derived from the situation 4 where a driver run into the side of another car.

Table 4.4.

Frequency of use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 4

Car Accident	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	n %
IFID	4	8.0	2	2.9	7	11.5	1	2.3
REPR	6	12.0	10	14.7	4	6.6	6	13.6
EXPL	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
RESP	3	6.0	3	4.4	6	9.8	6	13.6
BLAME	1	2.0	6	8.8	4	6.6	4	9.1
IFID+EXPL	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
IFID+EXPL+RESP	1	2.0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
EXPL+RESP	0	0	2	2.9	0	0	0	0
IFID+RESP	7	14.0	11	16.2	11	18.0	7	15.9
IFID+REPR+EXPL	1	2	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
IFID+REPR	9	18.0	11	16.2	9	14.8	9	20.5
IFID+RESP+REPR	10	20.0	4	5.9	8	13.1	4	9.1
REPR+RESP	5	10.0	13	19.1	5	8.2	4	9.1
REPR+EXPL	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
EMPTY	3	6.0	4	5.9	4	6.6	3	6.8
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) X^2= .15431 p>.05   (NES vs.NNFS) X^2= .81405   p>.05

In this situation the accumulation of NES responses was observed in the use of single formulas IFID (8.0%), REPR (12.0%), and RESP (6.0%) , but combinations of IFID+RESP (14.0%), IFID+REPR (18.0%), IFID+RESP+REPR (20.0%) and REPR+RESP (10.0%) were far more preferable than single ones, That is, totally 62% was reserved to IFID+combinations by NES.

When NNPS were compared with NES, NNPS deviated from NES in 3 cases, namely, NNPS' IFID (2.9%), IFID+RESP+REPR (5.9%) realizations were highly low ,however, NNPS 19.1% of REPR+RESP realization was higher than NES (10.0%). This revealed that NNPS behaved NTS-like in the first two cases for NNPS

and NTS statistical values were quite identical , but in the last one (REPR+RESP) behaved neither NTS-like (9.1%) nor NES-like (10.0%). As for NNFS, their IFID (11.0%) , IFID+RESP+REPR (13.1%) and REPR+RESP (8.2%) preferences were quite close to NES.

Turkish subjects made use of another strategy which was coded as "BLAME". Instead of apologizing, NNPS (8.8%) NNFS (6.6%) and NTS (9.1%) put blame on the other driver who was innocent and expected an apology from the driver who run into his car accidentally (e.g.. You shouldn't park like that. It is not my fault). Only one of the NES subjects (2.0%) preferred the formula of blaming out of 50 (e.g. Weren't you travelling a little fast ?). Thus, higher preferences of BLAME among NNPS and NNFS revealed the influence of L1. REPR was consistently realized by NES (12.0%), NNPS (14.7%),and NTS (13.6%), but NNFS (6.6%) low preference deviated them from others. Finally, there were some individual preferences made by NNPS and NNFS, that is, 1 NNFS preferred EXPL, IFID+EXPL and REPR+EXPL, and 1 NNPS preferred IFID+EXPL where no NES realizations were observed.

Chi-square values [(NES vs.NNPS) X^2= .15431   p>.05   (NES vs.NNFS) X^2= .81405   p>.05] were not found to be significant in this situation. This would mean that the semantic formula preferences of NNPS and NNFS were not very much different than those of NES.

Table 4.5 below demonstrates semantic formula choices of subjects in situation 8 where a friend promised to return a textbook to his classmate within a day or two, but held onto it two weeks.

Table 4.5

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 8

Failed to Return Book	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
IFID	5	10.0	4	5.9	11	18.0	9	20.5
REPR	0	0	2	2.9	1	1.6	0	0
EXPL	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	1	2.3
RESP	0	0	4	5.9	4	6.6	2	4.5
FORB	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2.3
DENY.	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
BLAME	4	8.0	8	11.8	2	3.3	1	2.3
IFID+EXPL	4	8.0	3	4.4	4	6.6	2	4.5
IFID+EXPL+RESP	2	4.0	8	11.8	0	0	2	4.5
EXPL+RESP	1	2.0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
IFID+FORB	0	0	1	1.5	1	1.6	0	0
IFID+RESP	9	18.0	12	17.6	20	32.8	20	45.5
EXPL+RESP+FORB	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
REPR+EXPL	1	2.0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
IFID+REPR	2	4.0	2	2.9	3	4.9	0	0
IFID+REPR+RESP	2	4.0	5	7.4	1	1.6	0	0
REPR+RESP	1	2.0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
EXL!+IFID+RESP	2	4.0	3	4.4	3	4.9	0	0
IFID+EXL!	3	6.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IFID+EXPL+EXL!	2	4.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IFID+EXPL+BLAME	3	6.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IFID+BLAME	3	6.0	0	0	1	1.6	3	6.8
IFID+RESP+BLAME	1	2.0	4	5.9	1	1.6	0	0
IFID+EXL!+BLAME	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IFID+RESP+EXL!+BLAME	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IFID+EXPL+RESP+	1	2.0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0

Table continued from page 78

IFID+REPR+EXL!	0	0	2	2.9	0	0	0	0
RESP+EXL!	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
RESP+FORB	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2.3
RESP+BLAME	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
EMPTY	1	2.0	0	0	3	4.9	0	0
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) X^2= .68652   p>.05   (NES vs.NNFS) X^2= .32052   p>.05

In this situation, NES preferences revealed that IFID and IFID+ combinations were acceptable, because NES' total IFID and IFID+(a/an semantic formula) usage reached to 82.0%. However, NES preferred the IFID+RESP (18.0%) which was the highest preference among other combinations.

Above percentages indicated that NNPS behaved NES-like in preferring IFID (5.9%), BLAME (11.8%) and IFID+RESP (17.6%) which were all closer percentages to NES. However, NNFS reacted NTS-like (20.5%) in their IFID (18.0%) and in IFID+RESP preferences in which NNFS obtained 32.8% and NTS 45.5%.

RESP was not used by NES, but NNPS(5.9%) and NNFS (6.6%) used this formula as observed in NTS (4.5%) preferences.

BLAME was effectively used, especially by NES (8.0%) and NNPS (11.8%). That is to say, instead of apologizing, NNPS used semantic formulas of "Why don't you remind me?", "Why didn't you buy another", "But you are stupid. Couldn't you find a book from your other friend." and so on.

Additionally, IFID+EXPL combination was consistently preferred by subjects of 4 NES (8.0%), 3 NNPS (4.4%), 4 NNFS (6.6%) and 2 NTS (2.3%). However, NNPS' IFID+EXPL+RESP (11.8%) usage indicated their interlanguage development for it was quite low in NES (4.0%) and NTS (4.5%).

IFID+REPR preferences of NNPS (2.9%), NNFS (4.9%) and IFID+REPR+RESP preferences of NNPS (7.4%), NNFS (1.6%) ,similarly, IFID+RESP+BLAME realizations of NNPS (5.9%), NNFS (1.6%) indicated learners NES-like behavior, for these formulas were not preferred by NTS.

The chi-square result indicated no significance [(NES vs.NNPS) X^2= .68652 p>.05   (NES vs.NNFS) X^2= .32052   p>.05] in this situation.

Table 4.6 below displays statistical data derived from situation 12 in which somebody bumps into a well-dressed elderly lady at an elegant department store, causing her to spill her packages all over the floor and hurting her leg.

Table 4.6

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 9

Bump Lady	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
IFID	3	6.0	8	11.8	13	21.3	9	20.5
REPR	2	4.0	1	1.5	0	0	1	2.3
EXPL	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
RESP	0	0	2	2.9	2	3.3	3	6.8
HEALTH	1	2.0	0	0	2	3.3	0	0
BLAME	0	0	2	2.9	0	0	0	0
IFID+EXPL	0	0	1	1.5	1	1.6	0	0
IFID+EXPL+RESP	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	1	2.3
IFID+RESP	1	2.0	13	19.1	15	24.6	5	11.4
IFID+REPR	11	22.0	13	19.1	11	18.0	15	34.1
IFID+REPR+RESP	3	6.0	10	14.7	7	11.5	4	9.1
REPR+RESP	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
IFID+EXL!	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
EXL!+IFID+REPR+HEALTH	4	8.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXL+IFID+RPR+RESP+HEAL	3	6.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
RESP+EXPL+HEALTH	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IFID+REPR+EXL!	3	6.0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
IFID+REPR+HEALTH	11	22.0	4	5.9	2	3.3	1	2.3
IFID+HEALTH	2	4.0	2	2.9	4	6.6	2	4.5
IFID+EXL!+HEALTH	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IFID+REPR+RESP+EXL!	2	4.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
REPR+HEALTH	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	1	2.3
IFID+RESP+HEALTH	0	0	2	2.9	1	1.6	0	0
IFID+REPR+RESP+HEALTH	0	0	3	4.4	0	0	0	0
IFID+BLAME	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
EMPTY	2	4.0	1	1.5	2	3.3	2	4.6
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs. NNPS) X^2=.06521 p ≥ .05 (NES vs. NNFS) X^2=.00677   p<.05

Since NES preferred IFID 84% of the time and its various combinations, IFID

combinations clearly were in order in such a situation. That is, the IFID+REPR (22.0%) and IFID+REPR+HEALTH (22.0%) NES realizations indicated that IFID was not used alone, but required RESP or HEALTH like semantic formulas. Additionally, some of the NES included EXL! into 5 different formulas , on the other hand none of the NNPS, NNFS and NTS preferred EXL!. That is, EXL!+IFID+REPR+HEALTH (8.0%), EXL!+IFID+REPR+RESP+HEALTH (6.0%), EXL!+IFID+REPR (6.0%), EXL!+IFID+HEALTH (2.0%), and EXL!+IFID+REPR+RESP (4.0%) were only observed among NES. Only one of the NNFS (1.6%) did prefer EXL!+IFID+REPR among above NES preferences.

When NES (22.0%) compared to learner subjects it was obvious that NNPS (19.1%) and NNFS (18.0%) were only consistent in using IFID+REPR. However, IFID+RESP and IFID+REPR+HEALTH combinations clearly revealed NNPS and NNFS lack of sociopragmatic competence in learners part, but displayed transfer strategies. Namely, IFID+RESP was preferred by only 1 NES (2.0%), however, 13 NNPS (19.1%), 15 NNFS (24.6%) and 5 NTS (11.4%) preferred them. Similarly, as oppose to NES (22.0%) higher preference of IFID+REPR+HEALTH, NNPS (5.9%) and NNFS (3.3%) displayed a NTS-like (2.3%) behavior.The chi-square result was statistically significant between the NES vs. NNPS (X2=.06521 p>.05) and, it was found to be statistically significant for NES vs. NNFS (X2=.00677 p>.05) as well.

As for the IFID usage that 3 NES (6.0%) 8 NNPS (11.8%) closer to NES preferred this semantic formula, and 13 NNFS (21.3%) nearer in ratio to 9 NTS (20.5%), revealing NNPS sociopragmatic knowledge in L2 and NNFS L1 influence.

Additionally, transfer strategies were also observed in using RESP and IFID+REPR+RESP. For instance, while no NES (0%) preferred single usage of RESP, 2.9% of NNPS 3.3% of NNFS and 6.8% of NTS used it. Similarly, while only 3 of the NES (6.0%) preferred IFID+REPR+RESP, 10 NNPS (14.7%), 7 NNFS (11.5%) and 4 NTS (9.1%) realized this combination.

Table 4.7 below demonstrates the statistical findings derived from the situation 17 where somebody accidentally breaks an ornament at a friend's apartment.

Table 4.7

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 17

Break Ornament	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
IFID	9	18.0	9	13.2	21	34.4	11	25.0.
REPR	3	6.0	5	7.4	2	3.3	1	2.3
EXPL	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
RESP	1	2.0	2	2.9	0	0	1	2.3
BLAME	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
IFID+EXPL	5	10.0	1	1.5	4	6.6	1	2.3
IFID+EXPL+RESP	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IFID+RESP	6	12.0	10	14.7	5	8.2	10	22.7
IFID+REPR+EXPL	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
IFID+REPR	14	28.0	26	38.2	19	31.1	13	29.5
IFID+REPR+ RESP	6	12.0	9	13.2	1	1.6	3	6.8
REPR+RESP	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
EMPTY	5	10.0	4	5.9	7	11.5	4	9.0
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) X^2=.87639 p> .05   (NES vs.NNFS) X^2=.08045 p>.05

In this situation, almost all NES preferred IFID (18.0%), IFID+REPR (28.0%) IFID+RESP (12.0%) IFID+REPR+RESP (12,0%) combinations. Thus, the appropriate way of apologizing seemed to be using either an IFID or one of REPR or RESP combinations.

In IFID usage, NNPS (13.2%) was closer to NES (18.0%), however, NNFS (34.4%) preferred NTS-like (25.0%) reactions. Similarly, IFID+REPR+RESP combination was preferred by 9 NNPS (13.2%) revealed that NNPS reacted NES-like (12.0%), however, only 1 NNFS (1.6%) preferred it, thus signaled lack of their L2 sociopragmatic knowledge. Additionally, NNFS (1.6%) preferred IFID+REPR+RESP rather low when compared with NES (12.6%) and NNPS

(13.2%) high usages.

As it was obvious from the chi-square value (X2=.08045 p>.05) of NES vs. NNFS comparison, NNFS' percentage comparisons revealed that NNFS behaved significantly different from NES in this situation. The NES vs. NNPS X^2 value (x2=.87639 p>.05) was insignificant.

Table 4.8 below displays the data derived from the situation 18 in which a friend didn't attend a colleague's party because of a last minute family business.

Table 4.8

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 18

Didn't Attend Party	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
IFID	3	6.0	3	4.4	1	1.6	1	2.3
EXPL	5	10.0	6	8.8	8	13.1	7	15.9
RESP	0	0	1	1.5	1	1.6	0	0
IFID+EXPL	21	42.0	22	32.4	31	50.8	13	29.5
IFID+EXPL+RESP	14	28.0	14	20.6	11	18.0	7	15.9
EXPL+RESP	2	4.0	10	14.7	2	3.3	7	15.9
IFID+RESP	2	4.0	3	4.4	1	1.6	1	2.3
IFID+REPR+EXPL	1	2.0	1	1.5	0	0	2	4.5
IFID+REPR+EXPL+RESP	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
IFID+REPR	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	4.5
REPR+EXPL	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
REPR+EXPL+RESP	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
EMPTY	1	2.0	7	10.3	5	8.2	4	9.1
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) X^2=.34345 p> .05   (NES vs.NNFS) X^2=.38915   p>.05

In this situation, NES clearly displayed that IFID+EXPL (42.0%), IFID+EXPL+RESP (28.0%) and EXPL (10.0%) semantic formulas were highly appropriate.

As for NNPS and NNFS, their realizations seemed to be closer to NES, however in using two of the formulas NNPS behaved NTS-like. That is, IFID+EXPL realization of NNPS (32.4%) was closer to NTS (29.5%), while NNFS (50.8%)

obtained quite NES-like (42.2%) performance. Similarly, in preferring EXPL+RESP, NNPS (14.7%) and NTS (15.9%) were close to each other, but NNFS (3.3%) behaved NES-like (4.0%). Thus, NNFS' NES-like performance could be attributed to their higher L2 sociopragmatic knowledge than that of NNPS' lower NTS-like behavior seemed to reveal the influence of L1.

The use of IFID+EXPL+RESP by NNPS (20.6%) and NNFS (18.0%), slightly close to NTS (15.9%), when compared with NES (28.0%). The preferences of IFID and EXPL and IFID+RESP of NNPS and NNFS were not different than that of NES.

As given under the table, the chi-square values were not found significant in this situation NES vs. NNPS (X^2=.34345 p>.05) and NES vs.NNFS (X^2=.38915 p>.05).

Table 4.9 demonstrates the statistical values elicited from the situation 19 where a student bumps into one of his fellow students who is waiting on the corner at school.

Table 4.9

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 19

Bump Student	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
IFID	8	16.0	8	11.8	9	14.8	12	27.3 .
REPR	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
EXPL	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
HEALTH	1	2.0	0	0	2	3.3	0	0
EXL!	2	4.0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
BLAME	0	0	9	13.2	2	3.3	0	0
IFID+EXPL	9	18.0	11	16.2	14	23.0	13	29.5
IFID+EXPL+RESP	2	4.0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
IFID+RESP	2	4.0	21	30.9	1	1.6	1	2.3
IFID+REPR	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	4.5
IFID+REPR+RESP	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2.3
REPR+RESP	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
IFID+EXL!	6	12.0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
IFID+EXPL+EXL!	2	4.0	0	0	0	0	1	2.3
IFID+REPR+HEALTH	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	1	2.3
IFID+HEALTH	11	22.0	1	1.5	11	18.0	6	13.6
IFID+EXPL+HEALTH	3	6.0	1	1.5	1	1.6	1	2.3
IFID+HEALTH+EXL!	2	4.0	0	0	3	1.3	1	2.3
REPR+EXL!	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2.3
IFID+RESP+HEALTH	0	0	2	2.9	0	0	1	2.3
EMPTY	2	4.0	14	20.6	12	19.7	3	6.8
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	61	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) X^2=.00006 p<.05 (NES vs.NNFS) X^2=.75183 p>.05

In this situation, the baseline data revealed that, most of the NES preferred an IFID (16.0%), IFID+EXPL (18.0%), IFID+HEALTH (22.0%) or EXL!+IFID (120%) combinations.

Prep and Fourth year learners in reacting the situation displayed different

reactions than NES in their 3 preferences. That is, 9 NNPS (13.0%) and 2 NNFS (3.3:%) developed a BLAME strategy (e.g. Why are you waiting here. Are you crazy?) which was not used neither by NES nor NTS. Secondly, IFID+RESP was preferred heavily by NNPS (30.9%), while NES (4.0%), NNFS (1.6%) and NTS (2.3%). Similarly, IFID+Health preference of NNPS (1.5%) was rather low when compared with NES (22.0%), NNFS (18.0%) and NTS (13.6%).That NNPS differed from NES and NTS in their preferences given above obviously indicated their interlanguage development. The chi-square result of NES vs. NNPS also supported the NNPS' situation given above (X^2=.00006 p<.05) which was highly significant. The chi-square result for NES vs. NNFS (X^2=.75183 p>.05) was insignificant in terms of NES and the fourth year usage of semantic formulas.

The IFID preferences of both NNPS (11.8%) and NNFS (14.8%) were closer to NES (16.0%), thus indicated an acceptable reaction when higher realization of NTS (27.3%) was considered.As for the IFID+EXPL, NNPS (16.2%) was closer to NES (18.0%), but NNFS (23.0%) was as high as NTS (29.0%).

Table 4.10 below displays the statistical data derived from the situation 20 in which one of the friends forgot buying tickets for a concert.

Table 4.10

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 20

Forget Tickets	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
IFID	3	6.0	2	2.9	1	1.6	0	0
REPR	3	6.0	12	17.6	6	9.8	4	9.1
EXPL	0	0	2	2.9	0	0	1	2.3
RESP	6	12.0	6	8.8	12	19.7	11	25.0
FORB	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
EXL!	2	4.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IFID+EXPL	0	0	2	2.9	3	4.9	0	0
IFID+EXPL+RESP	0	0	1	1.5	1	1.6	0	0
EXPL+RESP	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
IFID+RESP	7	14.0	12	17.6	12	19.7	10	22.7
IFID+REPR	1	2.0	2	2.9	0	0	3	6.8
IFID+REPR+RESP	5	10.0	4	5.9	5	8.2	0	0
REPR+RESP	4	8.0	18	26.5	2	3.3	11	25.0
IFID+RESP+EXL!	4	8.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IFID+EXL!	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
REPR+RESP+EXL!	2	4.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IFID+REPR+EXPL+RESP+EXL!	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
RESP+EXL!	5	10.0	0	0	7	11.5	0	0
REPR+EXL!	2	4.0	0	0	1	1.6	1	2.3
REPR+RESP+FORB	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
EMPTY	4	8.0	6	9.8	9	14.8	3	6.8
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) $X^2 = .12833$ p> .05   (NES vs.NNFS) $X^2 = .59817$ p>.05

Although the NES preferred different semantic formulas of IFID (6.0%), REPR (6.0%), RESP (12.0%), IFID+RESP (14.0%), IFID+REPR+RESP (10.0%), RESP+REPR (8.0%), EXL!+IFID+RESP (8.0%) and EXL!+REPR (10.0%), IFID and RESP combinations seemed to be acceptable. However it was still obvious that

NES had no consistency in their preferences.

NNPS preferences revealed that they deviated from NES in their 3 usages. The first one was REPR in which NNPS (17.6%) NES (6.0%), NNFS (9.8%) and NTS (9.1%). Secondly, the REPR+RESP of NNPS (26.5%) was not NES-like (8.0%), but NTS-like (25.0%). Thirdly, NNPS had 0% in the use of RESP+EXL!, however, NES (10.0%),and NNFS (11.5%). Thus, NNPS' REPR realizations revealed their interlanguage,REPR+RESP their transfer strategies and the third indicated both transfer and lack of their L2 competence.

Meanwhile, learner subjects deviated from NES (0%) and NTS (0%) in using IFID+EXPL for NNPS (2.9%) and NNFS (4.9%) used this combination. Similarly, NNPS (1.5%) and NNFS (1.6%) preferences of IFID+EXPL+RESP realizations were another indication of their interlanguage grammar.

NNFS, meanwhile, deviated in preferring REPR+RESP that they obtained only (3.3%), while NES (8.0%), and NTS (25.0%) which revealed their insufficient sociopragmatic competence.

Another point to be dealt with was the only NES preferences of EXL! (4.0%), EXL!+IFID+RESP (8.0%), EXL!+IFID (2.0%), EXL!+REPR+RESP (4.0%),and EXL!+IFID+EXL+REPR+RESP (2.0%) where all other study subjects did not preferred above semantic formulas. One reason might be that the EXL! was not very much the way Turkish people express their reactions towards such situations. However, 8 NNFS and only 1 NTS preferred EXL! in two formulas which were other than above formulas. The first one was EXL!+RESP where NNPS obtained 11.5% and which was quite NES-like, the second one was EXL!+REPR where NNPS obtained 1.6% and NTS 2.3%.

The X^2 value was found insignificant for both NES vs. NNPS (X2=.12833 p>.05) and NES vs. NNFS (X2=.59817 p>.05) comparisons of percentages.

Table 4.11 below displays the statistical data derived from the situation 21 where a customer at a restaurant wanted to change the order.

Table 4.11

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 21

Change Order at Restaurant	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
IFID	0	0	0	0	5	8.2	1	2.3 .
REQUEST	31	62.2	50	73.5	36	59.0	30	68.2
IFID+REQUEST	18	36.2	10	14.7	13	21.3	9	20.5
EMPTY	1	2.0	8	11.8	7	11.5	4	9.1
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) X^2=01706 p<.05   (NES vs.NNFS) X^2=.27744 p>.05

In an apologizing situation NES 62.2%, NNPS 73.5%, NNFS 59.0% and NTS 68.2% realized polite requests instead of any IFIDs. Nevertheless, IFID+REQUEST was realized pervasively that both by NES, NTS and learner groups.

The IFID+REQUEST realization of NNPS (14.7%) was rather low when compared with NES (36.2%), chi-square result also indicated the difference (NES vs.NNPS X^2=01706 p<.05) thus revealed the lack of L2 sociopragmatic knowledge, and The NNFS (21.3%) realization was closer to NTS (20.5%) that revealed transfer strategies of NNFS.

While IFIDs were not realized by NES and NNPS, NNFS (8.2%) and NTS (2.3%) so, a slight transfer strategy was observed among NNFS.Additionally, empty preferences were too high among NNPS (11.8%), NNFS (11.5%) and NTS (9.1%) though only one NES (2.0%) did not say anything in this situation.

The X^2 result X^2= .01706 p<.05 for NES vs. NNPS comparison indicated that there was a significance between these two groups, but the difference between NES and NNFS was found significant (X^2=.27744 p>.05).

Table 4.12 below demonstrates the statistical data derived from the situation 22 in which a student forgot to return the book he borrowed from his professor.

Table 4.12

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 22

Forget Book of a Prof	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
IFID	2	4.0	2	2.9	4	6.6	2	4.5
REPR	4	8.0	6	8.8	8	13.1	10	22.7
EXPL	0	0	2	2.9	0	0	1	2.3
RESP	5	10.0	6	8.8	1	1.6	3	6.8
IFID+EXPL	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
IFID+EXPL+RESP	0	0	0	0	2	3.3	0	0
EXPL+RESP	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	1	2.3
IFID+RESP	2	4.0	6	8.8	10	16.4	5	11.4
IFID+RESP+FORB	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
REPR+EXPL	0	0	1	1.5	1	1.6	0	0
IFID+REPR+EXPL+RESP	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
IFID+REPR	5	10.6	10	14.7	7	11.5	5	11.4
IFID+REPR+RESP	12	24.0	17	25.0	9	14.8	4	9.1
REPR+RESP	7	14.0	10	14.7	2	3.3	8	18.2
IFID+REPR+RESP+EXL!	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
REPR+RESP+EXL!	2	4.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IFID+REPR+EXPL+RESP+EXL!	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
REPR+EXPL+RESP	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EMPTY	8	16.0	5	7.4	16	26.2	5	11.4
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) X^2=.94847 p>.05   (NES vs.NNFS) X^2=.04502   p <.05

In this situation, NES realizations revealed that not a single IFID (4.0%) but IFID+REPR+RESP (24.0%), IFID+REPR (10.0%) and REPR+RESP (14.0%), combinations ,and RESP (10.0%) were acceptable.

IFID and IFID+REPR semantic formulas were realized by all subjects at closer

ratios. For instance, IFID realization of NES was 4.0% of NNPS was 2.9%, of
NNFS was 6.6% and of NTS was 4.5%. As for IFID+REPR combination the
deviation ranged from 11.5% to 14.7%.

The REPR usage, however, displayed difference in NTS part for they obtained
22.7% while NES 8.0%, NNPS 8.8% and NNFS 13.1%. Yet NNPS, and NNFS
behaved NES-like.

The percentages of NNFS , on the other hand, illustrated difference in three
semantic formula usages. That is to say, NNFS obtained the lowest in RESP (1.6%)
while NES 10.0%, NNPS 8.8% and NTS 6.8%. Similarly, in realizing
REPR+RESP NNFS obtained 3.3% while NES got 14.0%,NNPS reached 14.7% and
NTS obtained 18.2%. Thus, in two occasions above (RESP and REPR+RESP)
revealed interlanguage development of NNFS but sociopragmatic competence of
NNPS. That is, NNFS deviated from NES, but came close to NTS in using
IFID+RESP (16.4%) and IFID+REPR+RESP (14.8%). In other words, while NNFS
obtained 14.8% and NTS 9.1% for IFID+REPR+RESP combination, NES realized
24.0% and NNPS performed 25.0%. This result also supported the higher
sociopragmatic competence of NNPS over NNFS.The chi-square result also supported
the difference in preferring formulas in NNFS part that the result was statistically
significant [(NES vs.NNFS) X^2=.04502 p <.05].

Semantic formulas which included EXL! were only preferred by NES ,but none
of the Turkish subjects realized EXL! in combinations.

The X^2 value was significant in terms of the frequency comparisons of NES vs.
NNFS that it resulted as X2=.04502 p<.05. However, NES vs. NNPS calculation
was insignificant (X2=.94847 p>.05).Thus, NNPS were close to NES tendencies,
whereas NNFS deviated from L2 norms in terms of the use of semantic formulas.

Table 4.13 below displays the statistical data derived from the situation 27 where a friend spilled coffee over a borrowed book.

Table 4.13

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 27

Spill Coffee over a Book	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
IFID	1	2.0	5	7.4	6	9.8	4	9.1
REPR	1	2.0	1	1.5	4	6.6	5	11.4
EXPL	3	6.0	2	2.9	2	3.3	0	0
RESP	2	4.0	2	2.9	7	11.5	6	13.6
FORB	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
IFID+EXPL	0	0	3	4.4	2	3.3	0	0
EXPL+RESP	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IFID+RESP	5	10.0	15	22.1	13	21.3	11	25.0
REPR+EXPL	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
IFID+REPR+EXPL+RESP	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
IFID+REPR	12	24.0	11	16.2	7	11.5	6	13.6
IFID+REPR+RESP	10	20.0	13	19.1	8	13.1	7	15.9
RESP+REPR	10	20.0	7	10.3	2	3.3	4	9.1
EMPTY	4	8.0	7	10.3	10	16.4	1	2.3
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) X^2=.16834 p>.05   (NES vs.NNFS) X^2=.01051 p<.05

In this situation, depending on the baseline data it is likely that IFID+RESP (10.0%),IFID+REPR (24.0%), IFID+REPR+RESP (20.0%) and REPR+RESP (20.0%) were preferred by most of the NES.

Figures above revealed that while NNPS behaved NES-like, NNFS reacted to the situation NTS-like. As it is clear from the above view, for instance, in using IFID+RESP+REPR combination of semantic formulas NES got 20.0% and NNPS obtained 19.1%, however, the same formulas were observed as 13.1% for NNFS and 15.9% for NTS . Similarly, the single formula REPR was also revealed that NNPS (1.5%) and NES (2.0%) reacted alike, and NNFS (6.6%) and NTS (11.4%) realized identical reactions. Thus, NNPS' sociopragmatic competence was revealed

(X^2=.16834 p>.05) but NNFS exhibited interference strategies behaving NTS-like which was also supported by the statistically significant chi-square result of (NES vs.NNFS) X^2=.01051 p<.05.

The interlanguage occurrence was observed in the use of IFID+EXPL combination because NNPS (4.4%) and NNFS (3.3%) preferred this formula.The single use of REPR indicates the fact that NNPS (1.5%) reacted NES-like (2.0%), however NNFS (6.6%) preferred NTS-like (11.4%) behavior. As for the EXPL, it was not preferred by NTS , but NNPS (2.9%7) and NNFS (3.3%) realized it NES-like (6.0%), thereby, they did not under the influence of L1.

Another point that should be dealt with was the higher or lower percentages of learners that deviated them from NES in using formulas of IFID, IFID+RESP and IFID+REPR. While the IFID usage was observed among NES 2.0%, NNPS got 7.4% NNFS obtained 9.8% and NTS obtained 9.1%. Similarly, IFID+RESP and IFID+REPR realizations of NES differed from Turkish study subjects. That is to say, NES obtained the lowest percentage of 10.0%, but Turkish natives and learner subjects obtained from 21.3% to 25.0% in using IFID+RESP. Thus, learners adopted negative transfer strategies for IFID, IFID+RESP and IFID+REPR preferences. As for the IFID+REPR, this time while NES got the highest percentage of 24.0%, NNPS got 16.2%, NNFS obtained 11.5% and NTS obtained 13.6%. The final point to be treated was the IFID+EXPL combination for it was not used by NES and NTS , however, learner subjects used them, revealing interlanguage development.

Table 4.14 below demonstrates the statistical data derived from the situation 34 in which a friend had an accident with a car borrowed from his friend. 28

Table 4.14

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 28

Car Accident	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
IFID	2	4.0	7	10.3	4	6.6	1	2.3
REPR	3	6.0	12	17.6	13	21.3	11	25.0
EXPL	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
RESP	10	20.0	4	5.9	1	1.6	2	4.5
FORB	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
IFID+RESP	1	2.0	3	4.4	1	1.6	5	11.4
IFID+REPR	12	24.0	22	32.4	15	24.6	5	11.4
IFID+REPR+RESP	5	10.0	5	7.4	4	6.6	7	15.9
REPR+RESP	8	16.0	6	8.8	7	11.5	11	25.0
REPR+EXPL+RESP	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EMPTY	7	14.0	8	11.8	16	26.2	2	4.5
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) X^2=.04018 p<.05   (NES vs.NNFS) X^2=.01205 p<.05

The NES behavior in this situation was the use of semantic formulas of IFID+REPR (24.0%), RESP (20.0%), IFID+REPR+RESP (10.0%), or REPR+RESP (16.0%).

While Turkish subjects of NNPS , NNFS and NTS' preferences accumulated over formulas of IFID, REPR, and RESP, NES mostly preferred IFID+combinations. Statistically, the direct IFID was observed among NNPS (10.3%) and NNFS (6.6%) higher than NES and NTS. However, Turkish study subjects either preferred REPR (NNSPs 17.6%, NNFS 21.3% and NTS 25.0%) higher than NES or realized RESP (NNSPs 5.9%, NNFS 1.6% and NTS 4.5%) lower than NES. Thus, the above semantic formulas were preferred quite closer to NTS realizations, which revealed NNPS and NNFS transfer strategies. This fact was also supported by the chi-square results [(NES vs.NNPS) X^2=.04018 p<.05   (NES vs.NNFS) X^2=.01205 p<.05] that both learner groups deviated from NES sociopragmatic norms.

Similarly, combinations of IFID+RESP, IFID+REPR, IFID+REPR+RESP, and

REPR+RESP preferences were NES-like, having identical ratios, however NTS obtained opposing percentages (lower or higher) when compared to NES, NNPS and NNFS. For example, the IFID+REPR figure for NES was 24.0%, NNPS obtained 32.4% and NNFS got 24.6% which were all high, however, NTS obtained 11.4%. The corresponding case was valid in using REPR+RESP that while NTS obtained 25.0%, the highest, NES got 16.0%, NNPS 8.8% and NNFS 11.5%. Similarly, in terms of the realization of IFID+REPR+RESP realizations NNPS(6.6%) and NNFS (7.4%) were again closer to NES (10.0%).

4.3. Analysis of Thanking Situations

The analysis of 14 thanking situations (5,6,7,10,11,12,13,14,15,16,23,24,25 and 26) were presented below including frequency of use of semantic formulas and chi-square values.

Table 4.15 below demonstrates the statistical data derived from the situation 5 where a friend noticed that his friend was in need of some money and gave him.

Table 4.15

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 5

Money from Friend	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
THANK(TH)	18	36.0	24	35.3	25	41.0	16	36.4
APP	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
COMP	0	0	3	4.4	3	4.9	1	2.3
REPAY	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	3	6.8
THANK+REPAY	16	32.0	26	38.2	19	31.1	19	33.2
THANK+COMP	5	10.0	2	2.9	11	18.0	0	0
THANK+COMP+REPAY	4	8.0	1	1.5	1	1.6	0	0
COMP+REPAY	1	2.0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
THANK+APP	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
THANK+REASS+REPAY	2	4.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
THANK+APP+REPAY	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
THANK+LACK	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXLI+THANK	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
THANK+REASS	0	0	2	2.9	0	0	1	2.3
EXLI+COMP	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
APP+REPAY	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
THANK+APOL	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
THANK+APP+REPAY	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
EMPTY	0	0	5	7.4	0	0	4	9.1
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) X^2=.25638 p>.05   (NES vs.NNFS) X^2=.62163 p>.05

Since most of the NES preferred THANK (36.0%), THANK+REPAY (32.0%), THANK+COMP (10.0%) and THANK+COMP+REPAY (8.0%), the baseline data established accordingly.

THANK+COMP preference of NNPS (2.9%) and NNFS (18.0%), and THANK+COMP+REPAY realizations of NNPS (1.5%) and NNFS (1.6%) indicated , at least they did not behaved NTS-like (0%). However both NNPS and NNFS reacted NTS-like the situation in preferring single COMP and REPAY formulas. That is, while no NES preferred COMP, NNPS (4.4%), and NNFS (4.9%) preferred it. Similarly, THANK+REASS was realized by NNPS (2.9%) and NTS (2.3%)

Additionally, only NES preferred the combinations of COMP+REPAY (2.0%), THANK+APP (2.0%), THANK+REASS+REPAY (4.0%), THANK+APP+REPAY (2.0%) and THANK+APOL (2.0%). Thus, such a fact might be attributed to learners insufficient knowledge of L2 sociopragmatic norms.

The chi-square results were insignificant for both NES vs. NNPS ($X2=.25638$ $p>.05$) and NES vs. NNFS ($X2=.62163$ $p>.05$). This would mean that the deviation between NES and learner groups was not statistically significant. Thus, learner preferences of single THANK and THANK+REPAY combination were highly indicative in terms of NES-like tendencies in this situation.

Table 4.16 below displays the statistical results derived from the situation 6 in which a vice-president of a company decided to announce a salary rise to one of their personnel.

Table 4.16

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 6

Salary Rise	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
EXL!	2	4.0	2	2.9	1	1.6	0	0
THANK	13	26.0	21	30.9	29	47.5	29	65.9
APP	1	2.0	0	0	1	1.6	1	2.3
COMP	1	2.0	3	4.4	1	1.6	0	0
REASS	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
LACK	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	1	2.3
APOL	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
THANK+REPAY	0	0	13	19.1	2	3.3	4	9.1
THANK+COMP	6	12.0	2	2.9	6	9.8	0	0
THANK+COMP+REPAY	0	0	2	2.9	0	0	0	0
THANK+APP	13	26.0	0	0	4	6.6	0	0
THANK+LACK	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	1	2.3
EXL!+THANK	6	12.0	0	0	6	9.8	0	0
THANK+APP+COMP	3	6.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
APP+COMP	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXL!+COMP	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXL!+APP	1	2.0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
THANK+REASS	0	0	3	4.4	0	0	0	0
EXL!+THANK+REASS	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
EXL!+COMP	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
APP+REPAY	0	0	1	1.5	1	1.6	0	0
EXL!+REPAY	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
EXL!+THANK+REPAY	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
EMPTY	2	4.0	11	16.2	6	9.8	5	11.4
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) X^2=.12670 p>.05   (NES vs.NNFS) X^2=.22302   p>.05

In this situation, NES preferred THANK (26.0%), THANK+APP (26.0%) and EXL!+THANK (12.0%) THANK+COMP (12.0%), thus, these seemed to be preferable.

The case in using THANK+COMP combination was clear that while NTS got 0%, NES 12.0% NNPS 2.9% and NNFS (9.8%) behaved quite close to NES. Secondly, the single THANK formula preference was pervasive among study subjects that NES (26.0%), NNPS (30.9%), NNFS (47.5%) and NTS (65.9%). However, low NNPS and high NNFS mere thanking usages revealed that NNPS behaved NES-like, but NNFS preferred NTS norms. Thirdly, THANK+REPAY (e.g.Thank you. I'll work harder or Thanks a lot. I will continue to do my work best) combination was only observed among Turkish subjects ,thus, the transfer strategy was deducted through the realizations of NNPS (19.1%), NNFS (3.3%) and NTS (9.1%). As for the REPAY, which is similar to third point above, was observed among NNPS (8.8%) and NTS (6.8%). Thus, the communicative interference was observed through the third point reviewed above. The fourth point is that NNFS and NES preferred THANK+APP and EXL!+THANK semantic formulas. Thus, while NES obtained 26.0% and NNFS 6.6% for THANK+APP, NNPS and NTS did not reacted as did the NES and NNPS . Similarly, the EXL!+THANK usage was performed by NES (12.0%) and NNFS (9.8%), but no response was given by NNPS and NTS . Thus, while NNFS behaved NES-like, NNPS behaved NTS-like, in other words, the former group displayed sociopragmatic competence but the latter didn't. Additionally, LACK formula was preferred by NNFS (1.6%) and NTS (2.3%),and THANK+LACK was only preferred by NNPS (1.5%) and NTS (2.3%), similarly, THANK+COMP+REPAY was used by 2 NNPS (2.9%), finally, THANK+REASS was only realized by 3 NNPS (4.4%). Though some combinations were not preferred by NES, such as LACK APOL, EXL!+THANK+REASS, APP+REPAY, EXL!+REPAY and EXL!+THANK+REPAY ,only NNPS and NNFS preferred the in low ratios ranging from 1.5% to 1.6%.

The chi-square results given under the table were insignificant both for NES vs. NNPS (X^2=.12670 p>.05) and NES vs. NNFS (X^2=.22302 p>.05) comparisons. This would mean that the deviation between NES and learner groups was not

statistically significant.

Table 4.17 below displays the statistical data derived from the situation 7 where somebody was invited to a friend's home for dinner.

Table 4.17

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 7

Dinner at Friend	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
THANK	0	0	5	7.4	5	8.2	0	0
APP	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2.3
COMP	1	2.0	2	2.9	7	14.8	0	0
REPAY	0	0	1	1.5	1	1.6	1	2.3
TH+REPAY	2	4.0	0	0	1	1.6	3	6.8
TH+COMP	9	18.0	17	25.0	17	27.9	6	13.6
THANK+COMP+REPAY	9	18.0	6	8.8	1	1.6	2	4.5
COMP+REPAY	1	2.0	1	1.5	2	3.3	0	0
TH+EVENING+COMP	20	40.0	0	0	4	6.6	2	4.5
TH+EVENING+REPAY+COMP	8	16.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
TH+EVERYTHING+COMP	0	0	17	25.0	16	26.2	14	31.8
TH+EVERTH+COMP+REPAY	0	0	3	4.4	3	4.9	1	2.3
THANK+EVERYTHING	0	0	10	14.7	1	1.6	10	22.7
EMPTY	0	0	6	8.8	3	4.9	3	6.8
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) X^2=.13965 p>.05   (NES vs.NNFS) X^2=.00291   p<.05

In this situation, baseline data gathered from NES (40.0%) revealed that THANK+COMP+EVENING combination was mostly preferred. Other preferences of NES were THANK+COMP (18.0%), THANK+COMP+REPAY (18.0%), and THANK+EVENING+REPAY+COMP (16.0%).

First of all, there was a distinction in formulating the speech act of thanking that all NES preferred the EVENING, but all Turkish subjects replaced EVERYTHING instead of EVENING.

The single use of THANK which was performed by only learner subjects of

NNPS (7.4%) and NNFS (8.2%) revealing their interlanguage. Another interlanguage grammar was observed in NNFS (14.8%) realization of COMP which was the highest realization where NNPS (2.9%) and NES (2.0%) were lowest ones. The deviation of NNFS from NES was also observed in chi-square result of NES vs.NNFS (X^2=.00291 p<.05).

THANK+COMP+REPAY was effectively used by NES (18.0%), but Turkish subjects of NNPS (8.8%), NNFS (1.6%) and NTS (4.5%) used this combination far more less than NES. THANK+EVENING+COMP+REPAY was only used by NES (16.0%). REPAY realization indicated NNPS (1.5%), and NNFS (1.6%) transfer from L1, for NTS (2.3%) preferred but none of the NES preferred it.

Another point to be dealt with was the "EVERYTHING" instead of "EVENING" realizations which are all attached to THANK, COMP, and THANK+COMP semantic formulas. Actually EVERYTHING was not used by NES, but mostly used by Turkish subjects.That is to say, THANK+EVERYTHING+COMP was used by NNPS (25.0%), NNFS (26.5%) and NTS (31.8%). Similarly, THANK+EVERYTHING+COMP+REPAY was performed by NNPS (4.4%), NNFS (4.9%) and NTS (2.3%). And only THANK+EVERYTHING was produced by NNPS (14.7%), NNFS (1.6%) and NTS (22.7%). The addition of EVERYTHING to THANK instead of EVENING revealed that negative transfer played a role in learners choices.

The chi-square value for NES vs. NNPS was insignificant (X^2=.13965) but significant when NES vs. NNFS (X^2=.00291) comparison was taken into account.

Table 4.18 below demonstrates the statistical data derived from the situation 10 where a friend gave his friend blue sweater as a birthday present.

Table 4.18

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 10

Birthday Gift	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
EXL!	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
THANK (TH)	4	8.0	5	7.4	0	0	6	13.7
COMP	0	0	0	0	4	6.6	0	0
REASS	2	4.0	3	4.4	3	4.9	5	11.4
TH+COMP	6	12.0	2	2.9	9	14.8	8	18.2
THANK+APP	0	0	3	4.4	0	0	0	0
TH+LACK	2	4.0	4	5.9	1	1.6	0	0
EXL!+THANK	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	1	2.3
TH+COMP+REASS	5	10.0	0	0	1	1.6	4	9.1
TH+REASS	2	4.0	22	32.4	4	6.6	12	27.3
THANK+COMP+LACK	2	4.0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
EXL!+TH+COMP	7	14.0	1	1.5	14	23.0	1	2.3
EXL!+TH+COMP+REASS	5	10.0	1	1.5	6	9.8	0	0
COMP+REASS	4	8.0	3	4.4	1	1.6	2	4.5
EXL!+REASS	1	2.0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
EXL!+TH+REASS	1	2.0	2	2.9	5	8.2	0	0
EXL!+COMP+REASS	3	6.0	4	5.9	2	3.3	0	0
EXL!+COMP	3	6.0	1	1.5	4	6.6	0	0
EXL!+REASS+LACK	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2.3
APP+REASS	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
EXL!+THANK+LACK	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
EXL!+TH+APP+REASS	2	3.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
TH+REASS+LACK	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
EMPTY	2	4.0	7	10.3	6	9.8	4	9.0
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) $X^2=.00020$ p<.05   (NES vs.NNFS) $X^2=.69212$ p>.05

In this situation, thanking was not very much used alone, however, in combinations THANK was preferred pervasively. Thus, NES mostly preferred THANK+COMP (12.0%), THANK+COMP+REASS (10.0%), EXL!+THANK+COMP (14.0%), EXL!+THANK+COMP+REASS (10.0%) COMP+REASS (8.0%) and single THANK (8.0%). Thus, it might be said that NES were not very much consistent in their semantic formula choices for they preferred various combinations.

THANK realization was not realized by NNFS, whereas NES (8.0%), NNPS (7.4%) and NTS (13.4%) preferred it. Thus, NNFS displayed their interlanguage development. Similarly,in COMP preference again NNFS (6.6%) used , but none of the subjects realized it. REASS realization was 4.0% for NES, 4.4% for NNPS , 4.9% for NNFS and 11.4% for NTS Such figures revealed that learner subject preferences were closer to NES. However, in preferring THANK+REASS, while NNFS reacted NES-like, NNPS preferred Turkish norms, thereby deviated from NES. .Similarly, NNPS (2.9%) performance of THANK+COMP preference was too low when compared with NES (12.0%), NNFS (14.8%) and NTS (18.2%).Thus lack of sociopragmatic competence was revealed by NNPS. As chi-square result indicated there was a statistically significant difference between NES and NNPS (X^2=.00020 p<.05) in terms of NNPS preferences in semantic formulas THANK+ REASS and THANK+COMP.

Although THANK+APP was not preferred either by NES nor NNFS and NTS, NNPS (4.4%) preferred it, thus another interlanguage grammar was performed by NNPS.

THANK+LACK production was 4.0% for NES, 5.9% for NNPS ,1.6% for NNFS, so learners behaved NES-like for it was not use by NTS.

As for THANK+COMP+REASS usage, indicating interlanguage development of NNPS (0%) and NNFS (1.6%), it was preferred by NES (10.0%) and NTS (9.1%) THANK+REASS combination was frequently used by NNPS (32.4%) and NTS (27.3%),so NNPS behaved NTS-like ,but NNFS (6.6%) reacted NES-like (4.0%). Thus, while NNPS employed L1 realization, NNFS displayed L2 sociopragmatic competence. NES vs. NNFS comparison of percentages was not

found to be significant (X^2=.69212 p>.05).

EXL!+THANK+COMP realization was 14.0% for NES, 1.5% for NNPS, 23.0% for NNFS and 2.3% for NTS . That is to say, while NNFS behaved NES-like, NNPS performed NTS -like. Similarly, EXL!+THANK+COMP+REASS combination revealed that, NES preferred this combination having the percentage of 10.0% and NNFS got 9.8% which were close to each other, and NNPS just obtained 1.5% which was closer to NTS' 0%. COMP+REASS preferences were 8.0% for NES, 4.4% for NNPS, 1.6% for NNFS so learners were closer to 4.5% NTS preferences

EXL!+COMP+REASS was realized by NES(6.0%) and NNPS (5.9%), but NNFS (3.3%) remained low in use.Similarly, EXL!+COMP was realized by NES (6.0%), NNFS (6.6%) and NNPS (1.5%) remained low in use.

Combinations of APP+REASS (1.5%), EXL!+THANK+LACK (1.5%) and THANK+REASS+LACK (1.5%) were only preferred by NNPS.

Table 4.19 below displays statistical data derived from the situation 11 where a friend treated a lunch in a restaurant to his friend who had no money.

Table 4.19

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 11

Friend Treats Lunch	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
THANK(TH)	2	4.0	1	1.5	8	13.1	4	9.1
COMP	0	0	3	4.4	0	0	1	2.3
REPAY	5	10.0	10	14.7	0	0	7	15.9
TH+REPAY	6	12.0	17	25.0	14	23.0	14	31.8
TH+COMP	8	16.0	7	13.0	7	11.5	3	6.8
TH+COMP+REPAY	3	6.0	2	3.0	5	8.1	0	0
COMP+REPAY	2	4.0	2	2.9	2	3.3	0	0
TH+FOR STH	9	18.0	4	5.9	8	14.7	6	13.6
TH+FOR STH+REPAY	11	22.0	6	8.8	8	13.1	3	6.8
TH+FOR STH+COMP	1	2.0	4	5.9	4	6.6	0	0
COMP+LACK	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2.3
EMPTY	3	6.0	12	17.6	4	6.6	5	11.3
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) $X^2=.03324$ p<.05   (NES vs.NNFS) $X^2=.16611$ p>.05

In this situation, when NES' baseline data was taken into account ,THANK (4.0%) and COMP (0%) were not used alone, but in combinations they seemed to be the most acceptable way of organizing a semantic formula. Thus NES preferred Thank+REPAY (12.0%), THANK+COMP (16.0%), THANK+FOR STH (18.0%),and THANK+FOR STH+REPAY (22.0%). Nevertheless, 2 NES preferred single formulas of THANK (4.0%) and 5 others used REPAY (10.0%). Additionally, some combinations such as, THANK+COMP+REPAY (6.0%), COMP+REPAY (4.0%) and THANK+FOR STH+COMP (2.0%) were minimum in use.

THANK preference was higher in NNFS (13.1%) and NTS (9.1%) realizations than NNPS (1.5%) and NES (4.0%), thus, NNFS' NTS-like reaction revealed L1 influence. Similarly, REPAY was realized, especially by NNPS (14.7%), which was closer to NES (10.0%) and NTS (15.9%) . That none of the NNFS preferred it was an

indication of interlanguage development of NNFS.

THANK+COMP usage revealed an accordance with NES (16.0%), NNPS (13.0%) and NNFS (11.5%) displayed since NTS obtained a low proportion of 6.8%. THANK+COMP+REPAY realizations were carried out by NNPS (3.0%) and NNFS (8.1%), but none of the NTS preferred it. Similarly, NTS did not realized COMP+REPAY, however, NES (4.0%), NNPS (2.9%) and NNFS (3.3%) preferred this combination. Therefore, these 3 combinations preferences of NNPS and NNFS proved that learners L2 knowledge was adequate in such a situation.

NNPS (5.9%) preferences of THANK+FOR STH were rather low when compared with NES (18.0%) and NTS (13.6%), as for NNFS (13.6%), their realizations were NTS-like.

THANK+FOR STH+REPAY preferences of NNPS (8.8%), NNFS (13.1%) and NTS (6.8%) were close to each other, so L1 influence was observed for NES (22.0%) preferred the combination higher than learners. NNPS deviated from NES not only preferring this combination but using single COMP (4.4%), THANK+REPAY (25.0%) and THANK+FOR STH+COMP (5.9%) as well. THANK+REPAY was mostly preferred by Turkish subjects of NNPS (25.0%), NNFS (23.0%) and NTS (31.8%) which associated interference, but NES (12.0%) reached the half percentage of others. Above NNPS preferences indicated that they deviated from native norms, the chi-square result was statistically significant (X^2=.03324 p<.05) in NES and NNPS comparison of usages.

THANK+FOR STH+COMP was frequently used by learner subjects that while NES (2.0%) and NTS (0%) got lower percentages, NNPS (5.9%) and NNFS (6.6%) obtained high frequency of usages, revealing learners' interlanguage.

The chi-square value indicated no significance in terms of comparison of percentages of NES vs. NNFS (X^2=.16611 p>.05). This would mean that NNFS' preferences of semantic formulas were closer to NES, however, NNPS were deviated from NES realizations.

Table 4.20 below demonstrates the statistical data derived from the situation 12 where somebody was in need of some money and one of his friends offered him a loan.

Table 4.22

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 12

Friend Offers Loan	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
THANK (TH)	4	8.0	6	8.8	11	18.0	17	38.6
APP	0	0	1	1.5	1	1.6	0	0
COMP.	2	4.0	3	4.4	4	6.6	2	4.5
REASS	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
LACK	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
REPAY	4	8.0	12	17.6	3	4.9	5	11.4
TH+REPAY	16	32.0	16	23.5	11	18.0	10	22.7
TH+COMP.	2	4.0	9	13.2	13	21.3	1	2.3
TH+COMP+REPAY	3	6.0	4	5.9	3	4.9	0	0
COMP+REPAY	4	8.0	1	1.5	1	1.6	0	0
TH+APP.	2	4.0	0	0	2	3.3	1	2.3
TH+REASS+REPAY	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	4.5
TH+APP+REPAY	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXL!+THANK	0	0	0	0	2	3.3	0	0
TH+COMP+REASS	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
TH+REASS.	0	0	2	2.9	3	4.9	1	2.3
EXL!+TH+COMP	0	0	2	2.9	0	0	0	0
APP+LACK	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
TH+APP+COMP+REPAY	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXL!+TH+APP+LACK	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
APP+REPAY	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
COMP+REASS+REPAY	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
EXL!+TH+REPAY	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
TH+COMP+REAS+REPAY	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
EMPTY	7	14.0	9	13.2	5	8.2	5	11.3
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) X2=.08367 p>.05 (NES vs.NNFS) X2=.01010 p<.05

In this situation, although THANK (8.0%), REPAY (8.0%) and COMP+REPAY (8.0%) were less preferred by NES, the most preferable semantic

formula was THANK+REPAY (32.0%).

When compared with NES (8.0%) of THANK preference, NNPS (8.8%) were closer to NES, however NNFS (18.0%) neither reacted NES-like nor NTS-like (38.6%). THANK+COMP clearly shared by learner subjects that NNPS (13.2%) and NNFS (21.3%) obtained high percentages when compared to low usages of NES (4.0%) and NTS (2.3%). Therefore, the interlanguage development was obviously observed.the NES vs. NNFS Thus, NNFS deviated from NES cultural norms in preferring semantic formulas. Similarly, when compared to NES (32.0%), THANK+REPAY (NNPS 23.5%, NNFS 18.0%) preference was low among learners and closer to NTS. This could suggest that especially, NNFS deviated from NES in preferring THANK, THANK+REPAY, THANK+COMP and chi-square result (X^2.01010 p<.05) was statistically significant in NES and NNFS comparison of preferences. The chi-square value of NES vs. NNPS (X^2.08367 p>.05) was insignificant, that is, preps did not deviated from NES norms.

While THANK+COMP+REPAY was not preferred by NTS, NNPS (5.9%) and NNFS (4.9%) adopted their strategy of thanking which was close to NES (6.0%). Similarly, NTS had no COMP+REPAY-like reaction, but NES (8.0%), NNPS (1.5%) and NNFS (1.6%) had some minor preferences. Single REPAY usage differs in that NNPS (17.6%) were closer NTS (11.4%) but NNFS (4.9%) reacted close to NES (8.0%).

THANK+APP (appreciate) combination was preferred by NES (4.0%), NNFS reacted 3.3% and only one NTS (2.3%) preferred this formula, but not preferred by NNPS. The final combination THANK+REASS was realized by NNPS (2.9%), NNFS (4.9%) and NTS (2.3%), but none of the NES reacted by using such a formula, thus, negative transfer was carried out by learners.

Finally, NNPS and NNFS preferred some semantic formulas which were not realized by NES and NTS. These were APP, REASS, EXL!+THANK, THANK+COMP+REASS, COMP+REASS+REPAY, EXL!+THANK+REPAY and THANK+COMP+REASS+REPAY.

Table 4.21 below demonstrates the statistical data derived from the situation 13 where a spouse did the work which was promised to be done by one of the partners.

Table 4.21

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 13

Spouse did the Work	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
EXL!	3	6.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
THANK(TH)	4	8.0	4	5.9	1	1.6	6	13.6
COMP	4	8.0	9	13.2	7	11.5	11	25.0
REASS	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2.3
LACK	0	0	5	7.4	2	3.3	0	0
REPAY+	6	12.0	0	0	1	1.6	1	2.3
APOLOGY(APOL)	0	0	11	16.2	12	19.7	7	15.9
TH+REPAY	2	4.0	1	1.5	2	3.3	0	0
TH+COMP	7	14.0	7	10.3	5	8.2	5	11.4
TH+COMP+REPAY	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
COMP+REPAY	3	6.0	1	1.5	0	0	1	2.3
TH+LACK	5	10.0	2	2.9	0	0	0	0
EXL!+THANK	0	0	0	0	2	3.3	0	0
EXL!+TH+COMP	1	2.0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
EXL!+COMP	0	0	6	8.8	3	4.9	0	0
TH+FOR STH	4	8.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
TH+FORSTH+COMP+REPAY	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
TH+FORSTH+COMP	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXL!+REPAY	1	2.0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
LACK+REPAY	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
TH+LACK+REPAY	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EXL!+TH+FORSTH+COMP	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
COMP+LACK	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
REPAY+APOL	0	0	2	2.4	6	9.8	2	4.5
TH+APOL	0	0	3	4.4	6	9.8	2	4.5

Table continued from page 109

Spouse did the Work	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
TH+COMP+APOL	0	0	1	1.5	1	1.6	1	2.3
EXL!+APOL	0	0	2	2.9	0	0	0	0
COMP+APOL	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
LACK+APOL	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
TH+LACK+APOL	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
EXL!+TH+APOL	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
EXL!+COMP+REPAY	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
EXL!+LACK	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
EMPTY	4	8.0	8	11.8	10	16.4	7	15.9
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) X2= .61526 p>.05   (NES vs.NNFS) X2= .26241 p>.05

In such a situation, according to the baseline data preferences, thanking, complimenting and repaying or the combination of these were mostly preferred. Thus, NES preferred THANK (8.0%), COMP (8.0%), REPAY (12.0%), THANK+COMP (14.0%), COMP+REPAY (6.0%), THANK+LACK (10.0%),and THANK+FOR STH (8.0%)

Although NNPS and NNFS realized NES-like reactions, they often preferred L1-like preferences. For instance, The most common combination among NES(14.0%) THANK+COMP was preferred by NNPS (10.3%), NNFS (8.2%). Similarly, single COMP was realized by NNPS (13.2%) and by NNFS (11.5%) which was quite close to NES (8.0%). However, all other semantic formulas given on the table either were not preferred by NNPS and NNFS or realized in minimum preferences.

Apologizing (APOL) formula was pervasively preferred by learner subjects, thus, instead of thanking NNPS (16.2%), NNFS (19.7%) and NTS (15.9%) apologized, but no such a reaction was observed among NES (0%). Such a preference

revealed a clear interference development among learner subjects. Similarly, EXL!+COMP and LACK semantic formulas were only applied by learner subjects. EXL!+COMP combination realized by NNPS (8.8%), NNFS (4.9%). Mere LACK preference was only observed among NNPS (7.4%) NNFS (3.3%) , and no preference of this formula was found NES and NTS reactions. Thus, an obvious interlanguage development was observed among learner subjects.

REPAY+APOL was preferred by NNPS (2.4%), NNFS (9.8%) and NTS (4.5%). THANK+APOL formula percentages were 4.4% for NNPS , 9.8% for NNFS and 4.5% for NTS . Since none of the NES preferred but learner, a clear interference of L1 was observed. THANK+LACK was preferred by NES (10.0%) and by NNPS (1.5%). Additionally, the following 7 combinations were only preferred by NNPS and except EXL!+COMP+REPAY, 6 of them included APOL. These were EXL! +APOL, COMP+APOL, LACK+APOL, THANK+LACK+APOL, EXL!+THANK+APOL and EXL!+COMP+APOL. Nevertheless, the chi-square values of NES vs. NNPS ($X2=.61526$ $p>.05$) and NES vs. NNFS ($X2=.26241$ $p>.05$) indicated no significance.

Table 4.22 below displays the statistical data derive from the situation 14 where somebody had a haircut and one of his friends complimented him.

Table 4.22

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 14

Haircut	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
EXL!	0	0	1	1.5	1	1.6	0	0
THANK	34	68.0	40	58.8	21	34.4	30	68.2
COMP.	2	4.0	5	7.4	1	1.6	0	0
REASS	0	0	0	0	4	6.6	0	0
THANK+COMP	0	0	2	2.9	0	0	0	0
EXL!+THANK	0	0	0	0	7	11.5	0	0
TH+REASS	0	0	0	0	17	27.9	0	0
COMP+REASS	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
EXL!+REASS	0	0	0	0	3	4.9	0	0
EXL!+TH+REASS	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
EMPTY	14	28.0	20	29.4	5	8.2	14	31.8
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) X^2=.37657 p>.05 (NES vs.NNFS) X^2=.86616 p>.05

The simple speech act of THANK preference was NES' (68.0%) only preference, and except for the 4.0% of COMP 34 NES thanked, the rest did not say anything. In terms of the use of Thank NNPS (58.8%) preferences were quite closer to NES, however, NNFS (34.4%) obtained the lowest value. NNFS realizations were rather different than those of NES, for example, strikingly they preferred THANK+REASS (27.9%), EXL!+THANK (11.5%), REASS (6.6%) and EXL!+REASS (4.9%).Thus, NNFS were obviously revealed their interlanguage development. Although the chi-square values for both learner groups comparison of preferences [NES vs. NNPS ($X2$=.37657 p>.05) and NES vs. NNFS ($X2$=.86616 p>.05)] were not found to be significant, specifically NNFS deviated from NES norms in preferring 6 semantic formulas all of which were not preferred by NES.

Table 4.23 below displays the statistical data derived from the situation 15 where a flatmate handed his friend a newspaper which was near him.

Table 4.23

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 15

Newspaper	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
THANK	46	92.0	52	76.5	53	86.9	40	90.9
COMP	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	1	2.3
TH+COMP	0	0	7	10.3	2	3.3	0	0
EXL!+THANK	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
EMPTY	4	8.0	8	11.8	5	8.2	3	6.8
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

In this situation, all study subjects reserved their reactions for THANK, thus, the frequency deviation was 92.0 for NES, 76.5% for NNPS, 86.9% for NNFS and 90.9% for NTS . Yet, learner subjects, especially NNPS , deviated from NES and NTS in term of the use of THANK+COMP application. NNPS who received the lowest percentage of THANK (76.5%), complimented to their friend in addition to thanking,thereby NNPS got 10.3% of THANK+COMP combination revealing interlanguage tendency, meanwhile one of the NNFS (3.3%) also adopted the same formula. The chi-square result could not be obtained for this situation.

Table 4.24 below demonstrates the statistical data derived from the situation 16 where a driver handed a tip to an attendant who brought the car from the parking place.

Table 4.24

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 16

Tip to an Attendant	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
THANK	24	48.0	16	23.5	21	34.4	15	34.1
COMP	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2.3
HERE YOU ARE	5	10.0	1	1.5	4	6.6	1	2.3
GOOD-BYE	0	0	2	2.9	3	4.9	10	22.7
THANK+COMP	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
TH+GOOD-BYE	0	0	4	5.9	1	1.6	6	13.6
TH+HERE YOU ARE	12	24.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EMPTY	9	18.0	45	66.2	31	50.9	11	25.0
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs. NNPS) X2=.29915 p>.05   (NES vs. NNFS) X2=.90286   p>.05

In this situation, NES reaction was accumulated on the THANK(48,0%), HERE YOU ARE (10.0%) and the combination of the two(24.0%).

HERE YOU ARE (BUYRUN) formula was used by 5 NES (10.0%), 1 NNPS (1.5%), 4 NNFS (6.6%) and 1 NTS (2.3%) that revealed NNFS were more familiar with the sociopragmatic knowledge of NES than NNPS. THANK+HERE YOU ARE, by the way, was only preferred by NES (24.0%). Since this formula was not used by learner subjects, it can be said that learners lacked of sociopragmatic norm of NES in using such a formula. Apart from NES, Turkish subjects of NNPS (2.9%), NNFS (4.9%) and NTS (22.7%) preferred the expression of GOOD-BYE, revealing the communicative interference of learners. Similarly, THANK+GOOD-BYE was also used only by NNPS (5.9%), NNSSs (1.6%) and NTS (13.6%). Finally, higher empty preferences of NNPS (66.2%) and NNFS (50,9%) indicated learners indecisiveness on reacting to the situation, thus revealed their interlanguage grammar.

The chi-square results for both NES vs. NNPS $(X^2=.29915$ p>.05) and NES vs. NNFS $(X^2=.90286$ p>.05) were not found to be significant.

Table 4.25 below displays the statistical data derived from the situation 23 where a friend at a restaurant table warned his friend that there was something on his face.

Table 4.25

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 23

Something on your Face	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
THANK	39	78.0	25	36.8	32	52.5	22	50.0
COMP	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
THANK+COMP	1	2.0	2	2.9	0	0	1	2.3
EXL!+THANK	0	0	0	0	5	8.2	0	0
THANK FOR STH	0	0	16	23.5	0	0	5	11.4
EMPTY	9	18.0	25	36.8	24	39.4	16	36.4
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

In this situation, THANK formula was widely preferred by NES (78.0%).

Since NNPS' (36.8%) THANK preference was lower than NES and others, NNPS reserved their preferences mostly to THANK+COMP (23.5%).Besides, THANK+FOR STH (e.g. Thanks for your warning me.) was realized only by NNPS (23.5%) and NTS (11.4%). Thus, Prep learners transferred their L1 strategy causing interference. As for the THANK+COMP, few subjects of NES (2.0%), NNPS (2.9%) and NTS (2.3%) were preferred this combination. The chi-square result could not calculated for this situation.

Table 4.26 below demonstrates the statistical data derived from the situation 24 where a doctor gave advice to one of his patients.

Table 4.26

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 24

Doctor Advice	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
THANK(TH)	20	40.0	15	22.1	27	44.3	7	15.9
APP	9	18.0	31	45.6	2	3.3	8	18.2
TH+COMP	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
THANK+APP	14	28.0	9	13.2	4	6.6	10	22.7
EXL!+APP	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
THANK+GOOD-BYE	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	13.6
TH+APP+GOOD-BYE	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	4.5
APP+GOOD-BYE	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2.3
EMPTY	7	14.0	12	17.7	27	44.2	10	22.7
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) $X2=.00182$ $p<.05$ (NES vs.NNFS)$X2=.00705$ $p<.05$

In this situation, THANK (40.0%), APP (18.0%) and the combination of the two formulas THANK+APP (28.0%) were produced by NES.

THANK+GOOD-BYE was only used by NTS (13.6%). thereby, learner subjects behaved NES-like, and it could be attributed to their sociopragmatic knowledge of L2 for none of the native speakers of English subjects preferred this formula as well.

Considering NES (18.0%) and NTS (18.2%) realizations of APP, NNPS (45.6%) quite higher and NNFS (3.3%) rather lower preferences of APP clearly indicated interlanguage development of learner subjects. Similarly, THANK+APP combination realization was 28.0% for NES, 13.2% for NNPS , 6.6% for NNFS and 22.7% for NTS, thus such percentages of learners indicated interlanguage as well. Such a deviation from NES norms was also supported by chi-square results that comparison of percentages showed clear statistical significance NES vs.NNPS $X2=.00182$ $p<.05$ and NES vs.NNFS $X2=.00705$ $p<.05$.

Table 4.27 below displays the statistical data derived from the situation 25 where a student asked the professor for an appointment to talk about an exam result.

Table 4.27

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 25

Appointment with Prof	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
THANK (TH)	7	14.0	6	8.8	15	24.6	5	11.4
APP	7	14.0	35	51.5	11	18.0	20	45.5
GOOD-BYE	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	3	6.8
TH+COMP	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
TH+APP	18	36.0	15	22.1	16	26.2	11	25.0
TH+GOOD-BYE	2	4.0	0	0	0	0	1	2.3
TH+APP+GOOD BYE	8	16.0	1	1.5	1	1.6	1	2.3
APP+GOOD-BYE	2	4.0	2	2.9	1	1.6	3	6.8
EMPTY	6	12.0	9	13.2	15	24.6	0	0
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) $X^2=.00006$ p<.05 (NES vs.NNFS) $X^2=.02598$ p<.05

NES behavior to this situation was simply the use of THANK (14.0%), APP (14.0%) and the combination of these two, namely, THANK+APP (36.0%). Additionally, GOOD-BYE was attached to above semantic formulas, so THANK+APP+COMP (16.0%) comprised the whole NES realization. However, marginally, THANK+GOOD-BYE (4.0%) and APP+GOOD-BYE (4.0%) were preferred by NES as well.

As for learners, NNPS (8.8%) preferred THANK less than both NES and NTS, revealing interlanguage, and NNFS (24.6:%) realized a higher ratio than baseline data which indicates interlanguage as well. The APP preferences of NNPS (51.5%) were far more over NES (14.0) and closer to NTS (45.5%), thus clearly indicated transfer of L1.The chi-square test also indicated the deviation of NNPS.($X^2=.00006$ p<.05) However, NNFS (18.0%) which was closer to NES (14.0%) revealed their socipragmatic knowledge of L2.

Since the preferences of NNPS and NNFS were NTS-like in using THANK+APP, that is, NNPS (22.6%) and NNFS (26.2%) which were closer to

NTS, the negative transfer of L1 strategies were observed. Similarly, THANK+APP+GOOD-BYE realizations of NNPS (1.5%) and NNFS (1.6%) were NTS-like (2.3%), but far less than NES (16.0%). Thus, the chi-square test was statistically significant for learners preferences of semantic formulas largely deviated from NES norms [(NES vs.NNPS) $X^2=.00006$ p<.05   (NES vs.NNFS) $X^2=.02598$ p<.05].

Table 4.28 below displays the statistical data derived from the situation 26 where a classmate agreed to help his friend in moving business.

Table 4.28

Frequency of Use of Semantic Formulas in Situation 26

Help from a Friend	NES		NNPS		NNFS		NTS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
EXL!	0	0	0	0	1	1.6	0	0
THANK(TH)	11	22.0	24	35.3	24	39.3	22	50.0
APP	10	20.0	0	0	2	3.3	1	2.3
COMP	1	2.0	1	1.5	2	3.3	1	2.3
REPAY	1	2.0	0	0	1	1.6	1	2.3
GOOD-BYE	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	6.8
TH+REPAY	1	2.0	2	2.9	3	4.9	1	2.3
TH+COMP	2	4.0	4	5.9	2	3.3	1	2.3
TH+COMP+REPAY	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
TH+APP	9	18.0	0	0	2	3.3	1	2.3
TH+APP+REPAY	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
TH+LACK	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
TH+APP+COMP	2	4.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
APP+COMP	1	2.0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
TH+REASS	0	0	2	3.0	0	0	0	0
EXL!+TH+COMP	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	0	0
TH+FOR STH	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	4.5
APP+REPAY	4	8.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
TH+GOOD-BYE	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	3	6.8
APP+GOOD-BYE	1	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EMPTY	3	6.0	33	48.5	24	39.4	7	15.9
TOTAL	50	100	68	100	61	100	44	100

(NES vs.NNPS) X^2=.92619 p>.05 (NES v s.NNFS) X^2=.23271 p>.05

In this situation, NES behavior put forward that THANK (22.0%) ,APP (20.0%) and the combination of the two, namely, THANK+APP (18.0%) were acceptable ways of expressing gratitude. In addition to these, APP+REPAY (8.0%) was seemed to be acceptable.

Thank realizations of NNPS (35.3%) and NNFS (39.3%) were quite less than NES (22.0%), but closer to NTS (50.0%). Thus NNPS and NNFS preferences revealed transfer from L1. Similarly, APP was preferred by NNFS (3.3%)which was far less than NES (20.0%) and none of the NNPS used this formula, revealing their lack of L2 sociopragmatic knowledge. The interference fact was also valid in the use of THANK+APP that, despite the higher preference of NES (18.0%), NNPS did not preferred, NNFS only obtained 3.3%.

The use of other semantic formulas was somewhat specific to NES, NTS and, NNFS preferred them individually. For example, EXL! was realized by only 1 NNFS. THANK+APP+REPAY, THANK+LACK, THANK+APP+COMP APP+REPAY and APP+GOOD-BYE were only preferred by NES. Similarly, GOOD-BYE and THANK+FOR STH formulas were only preferred by NTS.

The chi-square test was notindicated significance both for NES vs.NNPS and NES vs. NNFS [(NES vs.NNPS) X^2=.92619 p>.05 (NES v s.NNFS) X^2=.23271 p>.05]. This would mean that learner subjects , as discussed above, more or less behaved conforming NES sociopragmatic norms in expressing themselves in this situation.

4.4. Discussion of the Data

The primary aim of this study was to investigate the sociopragmatic knowledge level of Turkish EFL learners in L2. In order to establish baseline data native speakers of English and native speakers of Turkish preferences were also determined.

In the light of the analysis of baseline data, students deviations from native speakers of English can be discussed from two aspects. The first one is the negative transfer strategies of learners and secondly, the interlanguage development of learners will be discussed. In addition to above discussion, some semantic formulas within the negative transfer which are specific to Turkish sociolinguistic milieu will also be discussed.

In the flow of the discussion below, firstly the findings related to the negative transfer strategies of learners will be discussed, this will follow the findings on interlanguage development of learners.

As a result of their interlanguage development NNPS and NNFS' statistical evaluations given in previous chapter displayed that the influence of L1 was found out in learner speech act productions. Depending on the baseline data established through the investigation of NES and NTS, many instances in which NNPS and NNFS deviated from NES norms because of negative transfer from L1 sociocultural norms will be discussed.

In the first situation of the DCT in which someone insults somebody at a meeting, the negative transfer was realized by learner groups through the use of semantic formulas of WEAR IT and DENY+WEAR IT.

Since none of the NES but 25 percent of NTS typically responded as "Yarası olan gocunur" (coded as WEAR IT), such a speech act was accepted socially appropriate in Turkish sociocultural setting.

Although learners realized this semantic formula less than NTS, the influence of the proverb was observed in learner usages as translated form of "Yarası olan gocunur." by NNPS and NNFS. Some learner realizations were;

"If the shoe fits, wear it.",

"If the cap fits, wear it.", and

"If it fits, wear it.".

Considering learners responses, such utterances were coded as WEAR IT.

Erçetin also in her study used the same situation, but did not report WEAR IT in learner realizations, but in native Turkish preferences she reported the proverb "Yarası olan gocunur."

However, Doğançay (cited in Erçetin 1995:40) explains the use of this formula as a strategy for sounding less face threatening that enables the speaker to avoid specific, straight forward answers in a socially acceptable way. However, the use of a well-known proverb "Yarası olan gocunur" which directly means "if you do not have any fault, you do not take offense" possibly associates some negative sense on the hearer. Ömer Asım Aksoy (in Yurtbaşı 1994:239) defines the proverb as "when there is an investigation, a person who involved in the crime betrays himself by his anxiety". As Erçetin discussed, in fact, the proverb itself makes a generalization that not a specific person but anyone who is to be blamed should react to what was said. Thus, the speech act productions of learners, which were carried out by the translated version of a proverb such as "If the cap fits, wear it.", revealed the L1 influence. In the analysis of NES preferences WEAR IT-like semantic formulas were not detected.

Native speakers of English mostly preferred IFID (e.g. I'm sorry.) or IFID+DENY (e.g.Sorry, but I didn't mean you).

Here are some native speaker of English DENY responses :

"Oh no, don't do that, I meant no such thing"

"Forgive me , but no offense was intended."

"This was not an insult directed at you. This is a general comment."

"Well, it wasn't meant personally."

"I didn't mean anything personal."

"It wasn't directed at you at all."

Finally, learners in this situation transferred their mother tongue sociopragmatic norm to L2 as WEAR IT.

In situation 2 where a staff forgets meeting boss, only learners and NTS preferred;

REPR "I must work much."

IFID+REPR+RESP "I'm sorry. I will be more careful from now on. I'm

completely responsible for this"

In situation 4 in which a driver dents the side of someone else's car, learner groups reacted similar to sociocultural norms of native Turkish speakers. In their speech act realizations, although apologizing and its combinations were used, some learners preferred the blaming (BLAME) the driver who was innocent. Here are some learner preferences;

"You shouldn't park like that, it is not my fault."

"You are to be blamed.This is my way."

"You might also look around.Mistakes are reciprocal."

Cohen and Olshtein (1993:34), in their study which investigates Hebrew EFL speakers, also, mentioned that "mitigating" the apology e.g. "Yeah, but you were in my way" and various possible modifications of apology might be possible in an EFL context where L1 sociopragmatic norms are different from those of L2. They also claimed that selecting the speech act is conditioned by social, cultural, situational and personal factors. Thus, in above case where an innocent driver was accused of a violation of traffic rules by Turkish speakers of EFL learners instead of apologizing could be attributed to the sociopragmatic norms of learners.

However, in the following situation (Situation 8) in which "a classmate failed to return a book on time", most blame strategies were realized by NES. NES, by the way, not only did prefer single BLAME "Why didn't you remind me", but used some other combinations including blame as well. Such as in, IFID+EXPL+BLAME

"I'm sorry. It got buried on my desk. Why didn't you remind me?"

"I'm sorry. But you know I was ill and couldn't go out. Why didn't you call round and pick it up?" and EXL!+IFID+BLAME,

"Oh no. Gook, I'm really sorry. Why didn't you remind me or something."

Thus, the semantic formula "BLAME" is not Turkish specific but context specific, and the degree of offense determines the use of blame cross-culturally. That is , while NNPS and NNFS preferred the blame in "backing car", in "failed to return book" this time NES used "blame" in various combinations.

The negative transfer was observed among learner in the use of RESP "I remember it when I see you" in situation 8 where someone failed to return book of a

friend.

Another negative transfer occurrence was displayed in situation 9 where somebody bumps into a lady. Learners deviated from NES in the use of 3 different semantic formulas. That is, while none of the native speakers of English preferred but, learners realized them. NNPS and NNFS preferred the following formulas;

RESP " It was my fault"

IFID+EXPL+RESP "Sorry.I didn't see you. How foolish am I"

REPR+HEALTH "Let me help you, are you allright.".

Thus, NNPS and NNFS behaved NTS-like revealing their transfer from L1.

In situation 19 where a student bumps into one of his fellow students, learners deviated from native speaker of English in preferring;

IFID+REPR+HEALTH "Sorry, I am running to class. Are you okey?"

IFID+RESP+HEALTH "I'm so sorry. It is my fault. Are you okay?"

In situation 20 where a friend forgets buying tickets some NNPS preferred EXPL semantic formula "I wanted to buy but couldn't find any."

Changing order at a restaurant, 5 of the NNFS preferred single IFID formula , though only 1 NTS preferred it. Yet, the transfer was observed for none of the NES preferred it. In such a situation, just using an IFID (Sorry.), when calling a waiter for changing an order, could be used to take the attention of the waiter in Turkish cultural setting.

Forget book of a professor (Situation 22) was another situation where learner preferred two formulas that NES didn't prefer;

EXPL "But I couldn't see you and I didn't want to send it with another person."

EXPL+RESP "I really looked for you everywhere but I couldn't find you believe me."

As for thanking realizations of learners, the negative transfer made by NNPS and NNFS was rather widespread than apologizing.

In situation 5 where a friend gives some money to his/her friend, learners

preferred;

COMP "You are my best friend."

REPAY "I'll give it back on Monday." and

THANK+REASS "Thanks a lot. I really need this money."

In situation 6 in which a vice-president of a company decided to announce a salary rice to one of their staff, learner subjects mostly deviated from NES in terms of the use of different semantic formulas of;

LACK " I don't deserve this".

THANK+REPAY "Thanks. I'll work harder you see."

THANK+LACK "Thanks but I can't accept this salary rise, what I did for this."

Some other REPAY+combinations were only observed among NNPS and NNFS. Here are some examples:

"Thanks, I'll try to do my best."(NNFS)

"Thank you very much. I'll try to deserve your thoughts on me." (NNFS)

"Thanks, I'll try to be more successful." (NNFS)

"Thank you so much. I'll keep on doing my best, I promise."(NNFS)

"Thanks a lot. You won't be disappointed."(NNFS)

"Thanks, I will work more willingnessly."(NNPS)

"Thank you , I will continue to do my work best."(NNPS)

"Thanks a lot , after this time I will continue to do my best sir."(NNPS)

"Thank you very much. I will do whatever I can for you."(NNPS)

The single thanking (THANK) was highly preferred by both NNFS and NTS.When the NES preference of thanking with combinations is considered, NNFS' NTS-like preferences can be attributed to the influence of L1 which led NNFS behaved much like NTS.

There were some other formulas such as, REASS, THANK+APP+COMP, APP+COMP and EXL!+COMP which were only preferred by NES. Thus, learner subjects behaved the way adult NTS did.Therefore, it can be said that the influence of L1 sociopragmatic norms interfere with the L2 behaviors of NNPS for none of the native Turkish people did not use this formula as well.

Reactions of learners to a gift given by a friend in situation 10 was mostly appeared in the use of THANK+REASS;

"Thanks, this is what I want."

"Thank you so much. blue is my favorite color."

Similarly, THANK+REASS was also preferred by learners and NTS in situation 12 in which a friend asks for a loan from his/her friend

In situation 11 where a friend treats lunch some learners complimented without thanking, however, such a preference was not observed among native speakers of English.

COMP "It's really a delicious meal."

Another negative transfer performed by learners was the "APOLOGY" speech act in situation 13 which was designed to analyze "thanking" speech acts.

NES do thanked, complimented, expressed the lack of necessity and promised to repay in the situation 13 where a spouse did the work which was to be done by one of the partners. Learners also thanked and complimented even slightly, however, because of the effect of Turkish sociopragmatic norms of NNPS and NNFS apologized and realized many different combinations of apology speech acts:

"I'm sorry, I had a big meeting, it took long time" (NNFS)

"I'm sorry my wife, please forgive me."(NNFS)

"I'm sorry but I had no chance to do."(NNFS)

"I'm sorry darling but I will do the tomorrow's work."(NNPS)

"I'm sorry but I don't have any time to do them."(NNPS)

"I'm sorry I couldn't do it."(NNPS)

"Sorry it was my work."(NNPS)

Eisenstein & Bodman found out that an "apology" usage in thanking situations appears to be associated with expressions of gratitude in some cultures. Here are some their examples :

(A Japanese participant responded to the offer of salary rise)

"I'm sorry. I will try harder in the future."

(Another Japanese, in response to the $ 500 loan)

"I'm sorry. I'll always remember the debt of gratitude."

Eisenstein & Bodman (1993:74) reported that Americans find these kind of utterances difficult to interpret and find them uncomfortable and confusing.

In situation 7 in which a friend was invited to a dinner party, all learners and NTS preferred EVERYTHING instead of EVENING, namely, while in English the EVENING covers the invitation, meal and others related to dinner party, the formulaic expression EVERYTHING was alternatively used in this situation.

In situation 16 where a driver gives a tip to an attendant, like NTS some learners preferred GOOD-BYE instead of HERE YOU ARE. As in situation 7 in which learners preferred the prefabricated usage EVERYTHING instead of EVENING, here in this situation GOOD-BYE was preferred in place of HERE YOU ARE.

The following examples are some NES realizations in situation 7;

"Thank you very much for a lovely evening. I hope you'll visit me one evening."

"I had a great time. Thanks for inviting me."

"Thanks very much for a wonderful evening."

However, almost all Turkish subjects thanked for "everything" but not the "evening". Thus, "Thanks for everything" was mostly preferred by Turks. However, only a small amount of NNFS thanked for the evening and complimented something other than evening.

The use of everything instead of evening, obviously a direct translation of "Herşey için teşekkürler" (Thanks for everything). Thus such preferences of Turkish subjects would be another type of negative transfer, for fixed expressions do not necessarily carry out identical messages cross-culturally. Tannen (1984:191) reported one of her experiences with a Greek family. When leaving the dinner party, she complimented, "Thank you for the wonderful meals." but the host retorted, "What, those little things?" Though they were rich and prepared with great effort, minimizing the meal must be the way of accepting the compliment. As Tannen mentioned she expected the host to accept the compliment saying, "The pleasure was mine, come again." In Turkish cultural setting Tannen might hear similar reactions to her

compliment. "Hiç önemli değil" (It is unimportant at all), "NES yedik ki?" (What we've eaten?), "Afiyet olsun" (Bon appetit)

In their study Tannen and Öztek (1981) investigated formulaic expressions of Turkish and Greek and they found out that there are many fixed expressions performing identical social functions.

Similarly, Rubin (1983:17) claims that a person from another culture must find appropriate form-function relation, and needs to learn which social parameters enter into the speech act, and it is essential to get a grasp on the underlying values in society. In her example, Rubin compares Turkish and American form-function differences through head movements. In her terms, in Turkish "no" is signalled by moving one's head backward while rolling one's eye upward, however, to an American this movement is close to the signal used for saying "yes". It is clear from above Rubin's example which should be considered in body-language that the world have not got adequate data from other parts of the world. That is to say, most studies either carried out in English speaking countries or native English speakers have carried out studies in non-English speaking countries. Thus, Rubin's example can be supported by the following speech acts on form-function relations in Turkish cultural setting. For example, in Turkish "Would you like to have a cup of coffee?" can be replied as "Thank you" which in Turkish "Thank you" signals "no", however, to an American it is "yes".

In the same vein, learner subjects preferred NTS-like expressions in situation 21 where "GOOD-BYE" was used instead of "HERE YOU ARE". The situation in which a driver handed a tip to an attendant who brought the car from parking place, NES thanked and/or added here you are (Buyrun) to their thankings. However, only a few Turkish subjects preferred "Here you are", they often used "Good-Bye" instead. That is, NES elicited that GOOD-BYE -like leave- taking does not accepted in their sociopragmatic setting. However, Turks overused "İyi günler" (Good days), "Sağol. İyi günler" (Thanks. Good-days) instead of "Here you are" meaning this tip is for you, take it.

In situation 23 where a friend at a restaurant table warned his friend that there was something on his face, the NES behaviour was simple thanking but NES often

supplied some indirect speech acts of mockery to minimize the case.

"Well, nothing like being a pig! Thanks."

"Cheers. That's what friends are for."

"I don't know how I could miss a mouth as big as mine. Thank you."

"Thanks. Typical of me to make an idiot out of myself."

"Thanks. I wouldn't want to go around looking like Bozo."

However,most of the prep learners preferred THANK+FOR STH;

"Thanks for warning me"

"Thanks for telling me"

As was largely observed in NTS preferences, L1 influence over L2 productions of thanking was identified in NNPS realizations.

For the transfer situation , it was observed that L2 learners made greater transfer when the situation was formal and infrequent.

In the DCT, there were some situations which are highly formal and infrequent so that they seem to difficult to grasp and react in learners part. For example, "insulting somebody at the meeting" (Situation 1), "salary.rise" (Situation 6), "spouse did the work" (Situation 13) and "bump lady in an elegant store" (Situation 9) were some of them. As oppose to these formal and infrequent ones, some situations such as "haircut" (situation 14), "want newspaper" (Situation 15), "something on your face" (Situation 23), and "bump friend" (Situation 19) were quite common and informal contexts.

The learner behavior in infrequent and formal situations showed that they were more liable to transfer Turkish sociopragmatic norms into L2. For example, in situation 1, learners preferred WEAR IT and BLAME, which were not used by native English people but native Turkish. In situation 6, learners adopted THANK+REPAY, in situation 13, APOLOGY and many different combinations were only preferred by Turks, and in situation 9, single RESP, BLAME,and combinations of IFID+RESP, IFID BLAME were learners preferences. For this reason, infrequent and formal situations led learners transfer Turkish sociocultural norms negatively to their L2 productions. Thus, the more infrequent and formal the situation is, the higher the

possibility of negative transfer occurrence could be. Here are some examples:

(Situation 1) "If the cap fits, wear it." (WEAR IT)

(Situation 6) "Thank you sir, I try to do the best for you" (THANK+REPAY)

(Situation 13) "I'm sorry my wife, please forgive me." (APOL+APOL)

(Situation 9) "I'm sorry, but what are you doing on my way? Could not you find any way?" (IFID+BLAME)

The negative transfer in above examples will be very difficult for native speakers of English to interpret, thereby, misunderstandings might be inevitable cross culturally. As a result of EFL learners interlanguage continuum, not only learners did negatively transfer their L1 sociopragmatic norms to L2 but learners made use of some semantic formulas which were all specific to them as well. That is to say, learners regardless of the formality/informality or familiarity/unfamiliarity of the situation both transferred sociocultural norms from L1 and preferred different semantic formulas other than native speakers of English and Turkish. For example, in situations given above learners created and used some semantic formulas which were in number ranges from 8 to 15. Thus, it could be possible to say that the more formal or infrequent the situation(s) is the more learner specific semantic formulas are in use. For example, learners preferred 5 different semantic formulas in situation 1, and 8 different ones were used in situation 6, in situation 13, learners preferred 11 semantic formulas and in situation 9 learners made use of 8 different formulas. In the following, the examples of different semantic formulas are given:

Situation 1 "insult somebody at the meeting"

"I would take my speech back" (REPR)

"I know. I think you deserved this." (BLAME)

"I'm sorry. I think I said without thinking" (IFID+RESP)

"Of course, you can take offense." (RESP+BLAME)

""OK I'm sorry about what I said, I won't say it again."(IFID+RESP+FORB)

Situation 6 "salary rise"

"Sorry I couldn't understand I cannot accept this extra salary this is my job and responsibility (APOL)

"Really. thank you for being pleased with me. It is kind of you. After that I am

going to work harder before." (THANK+COMP+REPAY)

"Thanks a lot I reely need." (THANK+REASS)

"Oh thank you very much. I really need this money." (EXL!+THANK+REASS)

"Oh! I can't believe this . Is it a dream?" (EXL+COMP)

"I'm grateful you but I have to do my work the best as possible as." (APP+REPAY)

"Oh! you can be sure to do a good job." (EXL!+REPAY)

"Oh Thank you. I will continue to my best work." (EXL!+THANK+REPAY)

Situation 13 "spouse did the work"

"That was my work." (LACK)

"Oh! thanks." (EXL!+THANK)

"Oh you are a very good person." (EXL!+COMP)

"My darling You don't need to, but I love you too much."(COMP+LACK)

"Oh please forgive me." (EXL!+COMP)

"Sorry my sweet wife." (APOL+COMP)

"I'm sorry but you didn't have done." (APOL+LACK)

"You didn't have to do. Sorry, if I had change to do I would do. Thanks." (THANK+LACK+APOL)

"Oh my love I'm sorry I had to do these work. Thanks a lot Thanks a lot." (EXL!+THANK+APOL)

"Oh you are sweet to do these work for me. Thank you. I'll washing up for you for this good work." (EXL!+COMP+REPAY)

"Oh! you needn't have done that, as I promised I could do that later." (EXL!+LACK)

In the following lines, the focus of discussion will be on the interlanguage development of learners.That is, learner preferences which were different from both native speakers of English and native speakers of Turkish will be discussed.

As it was described by Selinker (1972) and Corder (1978) (see Review of Literature) language learners who have been exposed to L2 inevitably develop a linguistic system which is different from L1 and L2 is called interlanguage or learner

language.

Results of the study reviewed in Chapter 4 proved that language learners deviated from both native speakers of English and adult native speakers of Turkish in some of semantic formula preferences. This would mean that learners, who are under the exposure of a new language system thereby, new sociopragmatic norms of L2, could not display appropriate verbal behaviors in English. Learners might be accurate in terms of producing linguistic properties of L2, however, must of the communicative interference instances suggested that learners hypothesized different usages when they required to behave in situations where L2 sociopragmatic knowledge were called for.

As it was mentioned in 4.2.4, interlanguage development of learners were discovered pervasively in the following situations.

In situation 1, NNPS preferred the BLAME;

"I know, I think you deserved this or, "I have no problem with you, don't itch and sit your place like an adult,

DENY+WEAR IT "I didn't mean it, but if the cap fits wear it."

Similarly RESP+BLAME and IFID+RESP+FORB formulas was preferred by NNPS. (see Table 4.1)

IFID+EXPL+RESP combination in situation 4 was preferred by an NNPS;

"Sorry, I've lost my keys. I always do this"

Similarly, IFID+REPR+RESP, and REPR+FORB were other formulas used by NNPS. (see Table 4.3)

In situation 9, NNPS preferred the following formulas while NES and NTS realizations were different. (see Table 4.6)

BLAME "What are you doing on my way, couldn't you find any way?", IFID+REPR+RESP+HEALTH "Sorry, sorry. Let me pick up your packages. It was my fault. Are you okay?".

NNPS also realized the combinations of IFID+BLAME, REPR+RESP, IFID+EXL!

In situation 19, especially, NNPS highly preferred the IFID+RESP and BLAME semantic formulas. (see Table 4.9) Although 2 NES and only 1 NTS used

the IFID+RESP, 21 of the NNPS preferred it as seen in the following example:

"Sorry, I'm a bit careless", "Sorry, I'm in hurry", "Sorry, I didn't see you". As for BLAME, such as;

"What are doing on my way? Are you crazy?"

"Why are you waiting here?"

"Why are you waiting here? You have to class now." and

"Why are you here?" were some NNPS preferences.

IFID+EXPL (e.g. I'm sorry, there are no tickets left) was another learner preference in situation 20, that none of the NES and NTS preferred it. IFID+EXPL+RESP (e.g. I'm sorry, I forgot to get the tickets. The whole day I was very busy so I forgot) (NNPS), (Sorry, but I looked it just. I didn't find.) (NNFS) were only realized by learners as well.

Deviations from baseline data was also observed in situation 22 and IFID+EXPL+RESP "I'm terribly sorry sir but I had a terrible week I forgot" (NNFS), REPR+EXPL "I brought your book yesterday but I couldn't see you. I promise I will bring it tomorrow." (NNPS) combinations were only used by NNPS and NNFS.

The combination IFID+EXPL, in situation 27, was not observed in neither NES nor NTS preferences, however, learner groups used them;

"Sorry for the color of the book. It was an accident."(NNFS)

"I'm very sorry, I was drinking coffee, my brother came and poured my coffee on the book."(NNPS) Meanwhile, RESP+REPR was underused by NNFS.

In situation 6 in which a salary rise was given a staff, learners preferred eight different semantic formulas all of which were not appeared in NES and NTS preferences.

In situation 8, instead of thanking, an NNPS used the BLAME formula

"If you are pleased with me, why don't you give me much?"

Some NNPS preferred THANK+REASS as in

"Thanks a lot, I really need."(NNPS)

THANK+COMP+REPAY was also preferred by NNPS.

"Thank you sir. I'm pleased to hear that you're pleased with me. I try to do the

best I can do."(NNPS)

On leaving the dinner party, the single THANK usage was preferred by learners in situation 7 and the single COMP was highly preferred by NNPS though none of the NTS and only one NES used it.

Without any thanking, NNFS complimented to the birthday gift in situation 10, such as "You're very kind", "I am grateful to you". Although used in large ratios by NES and NTS, no NNPS and only one NNFS preferred THANK+COMP+REASS combination. EXL!+THANK+LACK was used by an NNPS "Oh, thanks, but it is not important. I've pleased with you. Anyway thank a lot."

REPAY was one of the acceptable formulas in situation 11 for it was preferred by NES and NTS. However, none of the NNFS used this semantic formula. On the other hand, in situation 12 many NNFS preferred THANK+COMP where REPAY and its combinations were widely used. Some NNFS realizations were; "Thank you, my best friend.", "Thank you, you're very thoughtful for me.", "Thanks for a lot. You are so good".

Situation 13 in which a spouse did the work was an interesting one because learner groups developed rather different strategies in formulating thanking speech act. For instance, learners preferred lack of necessity (LACK) formula;

"You are well done. If you wait some, I would going to do."(NNPS)

"That was my work."(NNPS)

"Why did you do my work?"(NNPS)

"Why did you do it was my work."(NNFS)

"It was my work ! Why!"

Some NNFS preferred EXL!+THANK.

"Oh darling.Thank you."

Some learners used EXL!+COMP

"Oh! I don't know how tot express my happiness to you, not for the work you have done but for having a spouse like you."(NNPS)

"Oh, my darling! You are got surprised me. You are very good spouse for me. I love you."

An NNFS realized COMP+LACK,"My darling! You don't need to, but I love

you too much."

Many apologizing combinations were realized by NNPS, in combinations of;

EXL!+APOL "Oh! Please forgive me."

COMP+APOL "You are the best spouse in the world. I'm sorry I couldn't but you have done the best."

LACK+APOL "I'm sorry but you didn't have done."

EXL!+THANK+APOL "Oh. My love. I'm sorry I had to do these work. Thanks a lot!". Thanks a lot."

EXL+COMP+REPAY "Oh dear! You are wonderful. Next time I'll try to do it without you."

EXL!+LACK "Oh.my darling, you needn't have done that, as I promised, I could do it later."

In the "haircut" situation (situation 14) the single THANK was mostly preferred by NNFS, however, the same group reserved most of their preferences to THANK+REASS and REASS semantic formulas. Although none of the NES and NTS used THANK+REASS 17 of the NNFS preferred it. Some of their realizations were "Thanks, I like it too.", "Thank you .I think so.", "Thank you, I also feel like that."

The "newspaper" situation (situation 15) revealed that both learner groups, especially NNPS deviated from NES and NTS in terms of the use of THANK+COMP.

"Thanks you are so kind."(NNPS)

"You are very thoughtful thank you."(NNPS)

"Thanks you are a good friend."(NNPS)

"Thanks you are very kind."(NNFS)

As oppose to NES, NNFS thanked with expressing their surprise, thus, EXL!+THANK formula was only preferred by 5 NNFS in situation 23.

"Oh! Thanks a lot."

"Oh, thank you very much."

"Oh, Thank you."

As for the situation 26, though reassuring was not observed among all subjects 2 of the NNPS thanked and added reassurance to their expressions.

"Thanks a lot. I really need help."

"Thanks. Really. I need a lot of help from you."

All above examples, which were derived from NNPS and NNFS speech act realizations of thanking and apologizing, revealed that the interlanguage system was inevitable for learners. Thus, almost in all situations learner preferred different semantic formulas neither of which were preferred by native speakers of English and Turkish.

Learner speech act realizations revealed that learner specific, namely, interlanguage pragmatics led them use many different semantic formulas which were all other than native speakers of English and Turkish. Furthermore, learners not only negatively transferred L1 sociocultural norms in their speech act productions in formal and quite infrequent situations, but also displayed similar behaviors in informal and common situations. Thus, in order to compare two groups of situations, the following are rather commoner and more informal than those of formal and infrequent situations (1,6,13,9) exemplified above.

Situation 14 "haircut"

"Thanks I liked it too." (THANK+REASS)

"Really ?, thanks." (EXL!+THANK)

Situation 15 "newspaper"

"Thanks, you are so kind." (THANK+COMP)

Situation 23 "Something on your face"

"Thanks for your warning me." (THANK+FOR STH)

Situation 9 "bump friend"

"Why are you waiting here." (BLAME)

Learner reactions given above displayed that even in ordinary and informal situations the interlanguage grammar was at work, thereby, learners without regarding the the context that they were in possibly reacted to situations according to the norms that they hypothesized within their interlanguage development.

CHAPTER V
CONCLUSIONS

5.1. Summary of the Study

The teaching of language, at least during the last three decades, has been claimed to have carried out in the light of communicative objectives, yet many a related people have doubts on the outcomes of the educational applications. For instance, Tarone and Yule (1989:91) asserted that research on the sociolinguistic abilities of second language learners has in large part been limited to the study of learners' mastery of certain speech acts in the target language. For nonnative speakers of English who have enthusiastically tried to learn how English works and who need to interact with members of native speakers of English , need to get insights on sociopragmatic rules of L2. Thus, great amount of effort is needed to provide learners sociopragmatic norms of the target language.

In order to work out how to teach these norms the present situation has to be described. Therefore, in this study such an attempt is taken to put forward what the case is in Turkey at the university level.

This study will try to shed light on L2 sociopragmatic knowledge of learners, the influence of mother tongue on L2, thus the language transfer in EFL context and the effect of their interlanguage development over their speech act productions.

In this study 28 situations were used in order to gather data. To form baseline and to understand the sociopragmatic behavior patterns of native speakers of English, these situations were given to 50 native speakers of English. To make comparisons, 44 Turkish native speakers' speech act realizations were also gathered through the translated versions of the same situations. Two groups of EFL learners of 68 Prep-school and 61 Fourth-year learners participated in the study. The total number of subjects was 223. Through 6244 speech act realizations, answers were sought to the question; "What kind of speech act realizations do NES, NNPS, NNFS and NTS prefer in expressing themselves in apologizing and thanking situations?".

The speech act realizations of study subjects in apologizing and thanking

situations were collected via DCT elicitation procedure. The DCT which is the commonest data collecting instrument in the sociopragmatic studies included 14 apologizing and 14 thanking situations. Half of the apology situations were designed as descriptive and the other half as dialog supported situations. All the DCT items were selected from early studies of Cohen & Olshtain (1993), Eisenstein & Bodman (1986), Tillett & Bruder (1985) and Bergman & Kasper (1993).

In the analysis of the collected data the apology speech act set established by Cohen & Olshtein (1983) and thanking speech act set formulated by Eisenstein & Bodman (1986) were used. In obtaining the statistical data, the percentages in terms of the frequencies of the use of semantic formulas and the chi-square test calculations were carried out by SPSS statistical analysis computer program.

The first question of this study to be under investigation was "What kind of speech act realizations do native speakers of Turkish language learners use in expressing themselves in apologizing and thanking situations?". The study results discussed in this chapter evidenced that:

(1) Turkish language learners deviated from native speakers of English in their speech act productions by transferring their Turkish sociocultural norms negatively in their attempts to react situations in L2. For example, in situation 1 in which someone insults somebody at a meeting, the negative transfer was realized by learner groups through the use of semantic formulas of WEAR IT and DENY+WEAR IT. Since none of the native speakers of English but 25 percent of native speakers of Turkish typically responded as "Yarası olan gocunur" (coded as WEAR IT), such a speech act was accepted socially appropriate in Turkish sociocultural setting. Although learners realized this semantic formula less than native speakers of Turkish, the influence of the proverb was observed in learner usages as translated form of "Yarası olan gocunur." by prep learners and seniors.

(2) Turkish language learners behaviors in infrequent and formal situations showed that they were more liable to transfer Turkish sociopragmatic norms into L2, thus, the more infrequent and formal the situation is, the higher the possibility of negative transfer occurrence could be, (3) as a result of EFL learners interlanguage continuum, not only learners did negatively transfer their L1 sociopragmatic norms to

L2 but learners made use of some semantic formulas which were all specific to them as well. That is to say, learners regardless of the formality/informality or frequent/infrequent of the situation both transferred sociocultural norms from L1 and preferred different semantic formulas other than native speakers of English and Turkish.

As for the second question, which was "What kind of speech act realizations do native speakers of English prefer in expressing themselves in apologizing and thanking situations?" and had a major objective to establish baseline data for the study, evidenced that native speakers of English are consistent in the use of basic semantic formulas, but are not very much consistent in their speech act realizations where combinations are called for. In other words, except few situations, most of the native speakers of English tend to realize many different semantic formulas for a single situation. Furthermore, in some situations, native speakers of English have tendency to formulate lengthy combinations including five different semantic formulas.

The final question in the study was "What kind of speech act realizations do native speakers of Turkish people , who are given the Turkish version of the same DCT, prefer in expressing themselves in apologizing and thanking situations in L1?". The purpose of formulating such a question in the study was the establishment of Turkish sociocultural norms in differing situations, and as it was the case for native speakers of English, it was found out that native speakers of Turkish ,too, are not very much consistent in their speech act realizations. In other words, except few situations, most of the native speakers of Turkish tend to realize many different semantic formulas for a single situation. For example, in situation 5 (see Table 4.15) although most native speakers of English and native speakers of Turkish used semantic formulas of THANK and THANK+REPAY, some others preferred combinations of THANK+COMP+REPAY, COMP+REPAY, THANK+APP, THANK+REASS+REPAY, THANK+APP+REPAY, THANK+LACK, and THANK+APOL.

To sum up, the findings of the study evidenced that the negative transfer from L1 was found out in many a situation. Because of the exposure of a different sociocultural and linguistic system, learners displayed their interlanguage development

which made them produce different semantic formulations other than native speakers of English and native speakers of Turkish.

5.2 Pedagogical Implications

Depending on the results of this study, it can be said that the sociopragmatic competence of foreign language learners vary considerably with regard to their verbal behaviors in contexts where cross-cultural differences play a great role.

Speech acts which are considered highly patterned necessitate sociopragmatic knowledge. Thus, language learners should be aware of the sociopragmatic norms which were considered by Hymes (1972:45) under the term communicative competence. Knowing when to speak, what to say to whom and in what circumstances is the core of the underlying idea argued by Hymes. Otherwise, what Hymes called communicative interference, which Hymes defines as relying on one's native culture when communicating in another, is inevitable. (Hymes 1972).

Bearing in mind Hymes's view, language specific realizations of speech acts of thanking, apologizing, requesting, greeting, complimenting, complaining, interrupting, rejecting and abundance of others deserve interest in language teaching. For instance, most of the learner subjects realized complex combinations, which were other than L2 norms, instead of certain semantic formulas used by NES. Such a result indicates that speech acts are context dependent, thus, the context determines what to say, how to say, when to say which involves knowledge of how principles of speech acts operate in L2 culture. Learner realizations often revealed the fact that certain apologizing and thanking (e.g. I'm sorry, Thanks a lot) were repeatedly preferred in their simple formulas. However, coursebooks can include different usages such as put forward throughout the discussion of this study. That is, considering the proficiency levels of learners, many different semantic formulas can be included in coursebooks. Textbooks, for example, treat speech acts such as apologies by emphasizing often one semantic formula from the various speech act set: Sorry, I'm sorry, I'm terribly sorry, on the other hand neglect others such as repair, forbearance, taking responsibility, acknowledgement of an account. Besides, most of the books handle different speech

acts in a single unit, whereas they can be distributed to the whole book. For example, one of the textbooks used in Anadolu High Schools in Turkey, is Heinemann's Reward series. In unit 10 of this intermediate book includes 3 different speech acts of complaining, apologizing and requesting in the same unit. Thus, even advanced learners are either limited in their verbal interaction where certain speech acts are called for accurate and effective communication or used some different semantic formulas unlike native speakers of English.

Instances given above reveal that learners need information on the nature of what to say, the language used to express them, and the context in which they are needed. From a pedagogical point of view, comparative sociopragmatic exchanges in and out of classroom would provide learners how to behave, what to say in various circumstances.

It seems logical to us that the L2 sociocultural norms can be learned through a program which was designed in sensitizing learners to cultural differences in speech act realizations across languages. For example, in designing an EFL syllabus, discussion based "language awareness"-like courses could be beneficial in comparing and contrasting different sociocultural norms of the mother tongue and the target language.

Sociopragmatic competence which is in the framework of this study refers to EFL learners' ability to determine the appropriateness of speech acts in variety of contexts. For this reason, communicative competence of learners will have to be increased by sensitizing them in their speech act preferences according to the sociopragmatic norms determined by researchers in the field.

5.3. Suggestions for Further Research

Analysis of nonnative data presented in this study raises a number of questions that require investigation for further researches. For example, this study focused primarily on the natural realization of apologizing and thanking, rather than the teaching and learning of speech acts. Many textbooks written for primary and secondary education have been designed on the nature of communicative approaches and most of them offer techniques for varying ages and purposes. For that reason, it

will be fruitful to investigate the speech act realizations of the students and communicative classroom teaching techniques.

Although this study was carried out including 223 subjects, larger number of subjects would be beneficial in analyzing, determining and eliciting speech act realizations. The baseline data establishment is of great importance in comparing speech act preferences cross-culturally. Furthermore, if possible, the baseline data might be gathered not from native speakers living in Turkey but in their country becausethey could be under the influence of cultural setting that they are in.

The DCT procedure used in this study was written to elicit two post-event speech acts of thanking and apologizing. Although such a DCT seemed to be widely used throughout the world it has still some disadvantages over others. First of all, since DCT procedure include no interaction and weakly controlled, subject performances are apt to insincerity and they have a chance to think and change their reactions. Thus, as proposed by Kasper and Dahl (1991:216) some observational procedures rather than productive ones can be made use of by researchers and compared to the written DCT results. For example, in order to establish native and nonnative patterns of realizations with respect to speech acts of requests and apologies, 12 people initiated a joint project under the name of CCSARP (Blum-kulka & Olshtain 1984). Their project covered 12 countries where 8 different languages are spoken. Studies on sociopragmatic failures of language learners have been studied in our country only in recent years. However, the curriculum developers need much more feedback from such studies in and out of the country. Another point to be dealt with is speech act studies can be carried out parallel to the studies in the world. Thus, studying some new areas of speech acts, such as "correcting" studied by Takahashi and Beebe (1993) would open new visions to sociopragmatic studies.

5.4. Conclusion

The objective of this study was to describe the state of speech act realizations of foreign language learners. In the light of findings, "communicative interference" or negative language transfer among prep-school students is the case. However, similar finding, that is, transferring Turkish sociocultural norms to foreign language is still

valid for fourth years. This could be considered a problem because seniors are thought to be at the final stage of their interlanguage continuum. Appropriate use of speech acts in foreign language is of great importance to improve cross cultural relationships and enhance mutual understanding. Conversely, misunderstandings can arise from inadequate realization of sociopragmatic norms in the foreign language.For this reason, knowing what to say, how to say and when to say, in short communicating appropriately might play an important role in cross cultural communication. Speech acts of apologizing and thanking differ according to the nature of the given context, so there would be a range of acceptable speech act behavior cross culturally.

Communicative interference which cause misunderstandings in cross-cultural communication is the result of the interlanguage development of language learners. In this study, almost in all situations the interlanguage system of both prep-learners and seniors was revealed. Although seniors were theoretically expected to behave like native speakers of English, in some cases they behaved like native Turkish speakers, and in contrast prep-learners in some instances performed more closer to native English speakers.

As it was reviewed in the previous chapter, the findings of this study point to the fact that both thanking and apologizing are accomplished differently in contrasting cultures. In one situation, for example, when you bump into an elderly lady, asking the state of health in addition to apologizing seemed to be the most acceptable norm in L2. However, few native speakers of Turkish (only 4 NTS) displayed interest in the health of the lady, thereby, few learners thought of lady's health. What constitutes here is the dominance of L1 cultural patterns that prevent language learners consider L2 sociopragmatic norms. Similarly, learners put blame on the victim let alone apologize in situation 24 a student who was fallen down by another student. The underlying idea in blaming in Turkish cultural setting might be a kind of defense mechanism in offender's part that would conceal the offense.

The present study also points to the fact that native speakers of English are not very much consistent in their speech act realizations. In other words, except few situations, most of the native speakers of English tend to realize many different semantic formulas for a single situation. Furthermore, in some situations, native

speakers of English have tendency to formulate lengthy combinations including five different semantic formulas. For example, in "bump lady" situation, although the most native English speakers preferred IFID+REPR or IFID+REPR+HEALTH, some others used EXL!+IFID+REPR+RESP+HEALTH which is rather complex and lengthy.

As it was mentioned earlier, expressing apology and gratitude have important social value in English speaking countries. This does not mean that it is unimportant in other countries. However, the way English speakers apologize or thank differs from the way other cultures do. When appropriately expressed considering the context that speakers are in, they establish warmth and strengthen social ties. The failure in expressing apology or thanking appropriately may have negative consequences for the relationship of hearer and speaker.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

Discourse Completion Test : An Investigation of Native and Non-native Speech Act Realizations

Instructions: Please respond to the following role-play situations as you would in a real situation. After each situation you will be asked to write a response in the blank after "you:". Give the first thing that comes to your mind, considering the person to whom you are speaking.

1. You are at a meeting and you say something that one of the participants interprets as a personal insult to him.

He : " I feel that your last remark was directed at me and I take offense."

You :

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

Boss : "What happened to you ?"

You :

3. You forget a get-together with a friend. You call him to apologize. This is really the second time you've forgotten such a meeting. Your friend asks over the telephone:

Friend :" What happened ? "

You :

4. Backing out of a parking place, you run into the side of another car. It was clearly your fault. You dent in the side door slightly. The driver gets out and comes over to you angrily.

Driver : "Can't you look where you're going? See what you've done!"

You   :

5. It's Friday and you need some money for the weekend. You look in your wallet and notice that you only have 500 TL. Your good friend notices this and gives you some money.

You   : "Darn. I'll have to go to the bank."

Friend : "Do you need money ?"

You   : "I forgot to go to the bank."

Friend : "I have plenty. How much do you need?"

You   : "Could you lend me 5 million TL? I'll pay you back on Monday."

Friend : "Sure. Are you sure you don't need more than that? "

You   : "No I don't."

Friend : (Gives you 5 million TL)

You   :

6. You work for a large company. The vise-president of personnel calls you into his office. He tells you to sit down. You feel a little nervous, because you have only been working there for six months.

The vice-president : " You are doing a good job. In fact we are so pleased with you that I'm going to give you a 20 million salary raise".

You :

7. You have been invited to the home of a rather new friend. You have dinner with him and his wife and a few other friends of theirs. The food was great and you really enjoyed the evening. As you leave, your hosts accompany you to the door.

You :

8. You promised to return a textbook to your classmate within a day or two, after xeroxing a chapter. You held onto it for almost two weeks .

Classmate : I'm really upset about the book because I needed it to prepare for last week's class.

You   :

9. You accidentally bump into a well-dressed elderly lady at an elegant department store, causing her to spill her packages all over the floor. You hurt her leg, too. It's clearly your fault and you want to apologize profusely.

You :

10. It's Your birthday, and you're having a few people over for dinner. A friend brings you a present. You unwrap it and find a blue sweater.

You :

11. Your friend suggests going out to lunch. You say you'd like to go but you have only 50,000 TL. But your friend says, "Ah don't worry. that I'll take you today." You go to a very nice restaurant - a much more expensive one than ones you usually go to. You have a very wonderful meal. Your friend pays, and you get up to leave.

You :

12. You find yourself in sudden need of money-50,000,000 TL. You mention this to a friend. Your friend immediately offers to lend it to you. You are surprised and very grateful. Your friend writes out a check for 50,000,000TL and gives it to you. At first you say, "Oh no, I didn't mean for you to lend it to me. I couldn't take it." Your friend says, "Really, it's all right. What are friends for?" After your friend insists again, you take the check.

You :

13. You are married. Both you and your spouse work. You come home late from work and find that your spouse has done some work around the house that you had promised to do, but had not had a chance to do.

You :

14. You have just gotten your hair cut in a new style, and you like it better than the old way. Your friend sees you and says.

Friend : Hey,you have got a new haircut. It looks nice.

You   :

15. You are sharing an apartment with a friend. You are both sitting and relaxing in the living room. You ask your friend to hand you the newspaper which is nearby. Your friend gives you the newspaper.

You :

16. You pick up your car in a parking garage. As the attendant who drove up your car

walks past you to get the next person's car, you hand him a tip.

You :

17. Spending an evening at a friend's apartment, you accidentally break a small ornament belonging to her.

You :

18. You agreed to attend a colleague's farewell party, but at the last minute family business prevented you from going. The next day you call her to explain why you didn't show up.

You :

19. Rushing to get to class on time, you run round the corner and bump into one of your fellow students who was waiting there, almost knocking him down.

You:

20. You and a friend have arranged to go to a concert together. You promised to buy the tickets. But when your friend comes round on the evening of the concert, you realize that you have forgotten to get the tickets.

You :

21. You are at a restaurant with a friend. The waiter takes your and your friend's order. A few minutes later, you change your mind about the food and call the waiter for a new order.

Waiter : Yes sir, how can I help you?

You :

22. You have forgotten to return the book you borrowed from your professor. On the staff corridor you come across your professor.

You :

23. At the table in a restaurant a friend says, "You have something on your face." You ask where. Your friend tells you. You rub your face and ask, "Is it off?" Your friend says that it is.

You

24. In your doctor's office, your doctor examines you and tells what you should do.

Doctor : The best thing now is to go home and take these pills, and if you don't feel better in a couple of days, let me know.

You   :

25. You have just gotten an exam back with a poor grade on it. You are very worried and want to ask the professor for an appointment to talk about it.

You   : I'm worried about my test.
Professor : You do need some help.
You   : I don't understand why I make such mistakes.
Professor : I'm glad you're taking this seriously.
You   : Would you help me about my mistakes today?
Professor :My schedule is rather full just now.
You   : I'll come whenever it's convenient for you.

Professor : What about tomorrow 4:00 P.M.?

You   :

26. You are going to move and need a lot of help. Before class, you talk to one of your close friends for his help and he agrees.

You :

27. You borrowed a book from your friend and poured coffee over it.

(When you give it back you say :)

You :

28. You have had an accident with a car you borrowed from your friend.

(When you give it back you say :)

You :

Thank you very much for your contribution, and please mention your ;

Country of origin   :

Native language   :

Sex   :

Age   :

Duration of your stay in Turkey so far :

Appendix B

Söylem Tamamlama Testi: Ana Dili Türkçe Olanların Söz Eylem Üretimlerini
Araştırmaya Yönelik Bir Çalışma

Yönerge: Lütfen aşağıdaki konuşmaları kendiniz o durumda düşünerek tamamlayınız.
Size verilen her durumdan sonra "Siz:" bölümünün yanına aklınıza ilk gelen yanıtı
yazınız.

1. Bir toplantıda söylediğiniz bir sözü orada bulunanlardan birisi kendisine kişisel bir
hakaret olarak algılıyor.
Kişi: "Sanırım burada beni kasdediyorsunuz, ama bu çok yersiz bir saldırı."
Siz:

2. Patronunuz ile olan çok önemli bir toplantıyı tamamen unuttunuz. Bir saat sonra
özür dilemek için onu arıyorsunuz. Asıl sorun ise ikinci kez böyle bir toplantıyı
unutuyorsunuz. Patronunuz telefonda bağlanıyor size şunu soruyor:
Patron: "Ne oldu? Neredesin?"
Siz:

3 Bir arkadaşınızla olan buluşmanızı ikinci kez unuttunuz ve özür dilemek için ona
telefon ediyorsunuz. Arkadaşınız telefonda size soruyor:
Arkadaş: "Nerelerdesin? İnşallah iyi bir bahanen vardır."
Siz:

4. Arabanızla park yerinden çıkarken başka bir arabaya çarpıyorsunuz. ve yan tarafını
az da olsa çiziyorsunuz. Diğer sürücü arabadan inip sinirli bir şekilde size yaklaşıp
şöyle söylüyor:
Sürücü: "Nereye gittiğini görmüyor musun? Bak ne yaptın!"
Siz:

5. Günlerden cuma ve hafta sonu için bir miktar paraya ihtiyacınız var. Cüzdanınıza
baktığınızda sadece 50.000 liranız olduğunu görüyorsunuz. Bunu samimi bir
arkadaşınız fark edip size bir miktar para veriyor.

Siz: "Tüh, bankaya gitmem gerekiyor."

Arkadaş: "Paraya mı ihtiyacın var?"

Siz: "Evet, bankaya gitmeyi unutmuşum."

Arkadaş: "Bende para çok. Ne kadar ihtiyacın var?"

Siz: "5 milyon verebilir misin? Pazartesi geri veririm."

Arkadaş: "Tabi. Daha fazlasına ihtiyacın olmadığına emin misin?"

Siz: "Hayır, yok."

Arkadaş: (Size 5 milyonu verir)

Siz:

6.Büyük bir şirkette çalışıyorsunuz. Personel şefi yardımcısı sizi odasına çağırıyor. Odasına gittiğinizde sizi oturtuyor, bu arada, şirkette sadece altı aydır çalıştığınız için bu görüşmeden biraz tedirgin oluyorsunuz. Şef yardımcısı size şöyle söylüyor:

Şef Yardımcısı: Çok iyi çalışıyorsunuz, sizden memnun olduğumuz için aylığınıza 20 milyon lira zam yapacağım.

Siz:

7. Yeni tanıştığınız bir arkadaşınız sizi evine davet ediyor. Davette arkadaşınız, eşi ve onların birkaç arkadaşı ile güzel bir akşam yemeği yiyor ve iyi vakit geçiriyorsunuz. Evden ayrılırken ev sahipleri kapıya kadar gelip sizi uğurluyorlar.

Siz:

8. Arkadaşınızdan ödünç aldığınız bir kitabın fotokopini aldıktan bir iki gün sonra geri vereceğinize söz veriyorsunuz. Ancak, kitabı hemen hemen iki hafta elinizde tutuyorsunuz.

Arkadaş: "Hani benim kitap?. Valla fena bozuldum sana. Geçen haftaki ders için nasıl lazım oldu sorma."

Siz:

9. Nezih bir mağazada, şık giyinmiş bir bayana çarpıyorsunuz ve bayanın elindeki paketler her yere yayılıyor. Bu arada bayanın ayağıda incıniyor.

Siz:

10. Doğum gününüzde birkaç kişiyle akşam yemeğindesiniz. Bir arkadaşınızın size verdiği paketi açtığınızda içinden mavi bir kazak çıkıyor.

Siz:

11. Arkadaşınız size birlikte öğle yemeğine gidelim dediğinde, siz gitmek istediğinizi ama sadece 50000 liranız olduğunu söylüyorsunuz. Arkadaşınız yemeği ısmarlıyacağını söylüyor. Her zaman gittiğinizden daha iyi bir lokantada çok güzel bir yemek yiyorsunuz. Arkadaşınız hesabı ödüyor ve kalkıyorsunuz.

Siz:

12. Aniden 50 milyon liraya ihtiyacınız olduğunda bundan arkadaşınıza söz ediyorsunuz. Arkadaşınızda size ödünç vermeyi teklif ediyor. Hem saşırıp hem de müteşekkür oluyorsunuz. Arkadaşınız hemen 50 milyonluk çeki yazıp veriyor. Önce ondan borç istemediğinizi ve çeki kabul etmiyeceğinizi söylediğinizde, arkadaşınız, "Arkadaşlık ne güne duruyor." diye ısrar edince siz de çeki alıyorsunuz.

Siz:

13. Siz ve eşiniz bir işte çalışıyorsunuz. İşten eve geç geldiğinizde, sizin yapmanız gereken bazı işleri eşinizin yaptığını görüyorsunuz.

Siz:

14. Saçınızı eskisinden daha iyi olduğunu düşündüğünüz bir şekilde kestiriyorsunuz. Bunu gören arkadaşınız size şöyle söylüyor:

Arkadaş: "Vay, saçlarını değişik kestirmişsin. Yakışmış."

Siz:

15. Arkadaşınızla bir daireyi paylaşıyorsunuz. Salonda dinlenirken, arkadaşınızın hemen yanındaki gazeteyi size uzatmasını istiyorsunuz. Arkadaşınız da gazeteyi size uzatıyor.

Siz:

16. Otoparktan arabanızı alıyorsunuz. Arabanızı park yerinden alıp getiren görevliye bahşiş veriyorsunuz.

Siz:

17. Bir akşam bir arkadaşınızın evinde kazara onun biblolarından birini kırıyorsunuz.

Siz:

18. Bir iş arkadaşınızın veda partisine geleceğinizi bildiriyorsunuz, ancak, son anda ailevi nedenlerle gidemiyorsunuz. Ertesi gün arkadaşınıza telefon edip gidememe nedenini açıklıyorsunuz.

Siz:

19. Hızla sınıfa koşarken köşede duran bir arkadaşınıza çarpıyorsunuz ve onu neredeyse yere düşürüyorsunuz.

Siz:

20. Siz ve arkadaşınız birlikte bir konsere gitmeyi düşünüyorsunuz. Arkadaşınıza biletleri alacağınıza söz veriyorsunuz, fakat konser akşamı arkadaşınız yanınıza geldiğinde, ona biletleri almayı unuttuğunuzu söylüyorsunuz.

Siz:

21. Arkadaşınızla birlikte bir lokantadasınız. Garson siparişlerini alıyor. Bir iki dakika sonra, garsonu çağırıp fikrinizi değiştirdiğinizi ve yeniden sipariş vermek istediğinizi söylüyorsunuz.

Garson: "Buyrun! ne istemiştiniz?"

Siz:

22. Hocanızdan ödünç aldığınız bir kitabı geri vermeyi unutuyorsunuz. Öğretmenler koridorunda hocanızla karşılaşıyorsunuz.

Siz:

23. Lokantada yemek yerken arkadaşınız size ağzınızın kenarında birşey olduğunu söylüyor. Siz de onu temizleyip, "Gitti mi?" diye soruyorsunuz, arkadaşınız evet diyor.

Siz:

24. Doktorunuz sizi muayene ettikten sonra ne yapmanız gerektiğini anlatıyor.

Doktor: Şimdi sizin için en iyisi eve gidip şu hapları almak. Eğer bir iki gün sonra kendinizi iyi hissetmezseniz bana bildirin.

Siz:

25. Girdiğiniz sınavdan çok kötü bir not aldınız. Oldukça endişelisiniz ve sınavla ilgili görüşmek üzere hocanızdan bir randevu almak istiyorsunuz.

Siz: "Sınav sonucundan çok endişeliyim."

Hoca: "Gerçekten yardıma ihtiyacın var."

Siz: "Niye bu tür hatalar yaptığımı bilmiyorum."

Hoca: "Bunu ciddiye almana sevindim."

Siz: " Hatalarımı görebilir miyim hocam?"

Hoca: "Bugün çok meşgulüm."

Siz: "Size ne zaman uygunsa o zaman gelirim."

Hoca: "Yarın saat 4'de gelebilir misin?"

Siz:

26. Evinizi taşıyacaksınız ve yardıma ihtiyacınız var. Derse girmeden önce yakın bir arkadaşınızdan yardım etmesini istiyorsunuz o da kabul ediyor.

Siz:

27. Arkadaşınızdan ödünç aldığınız bir kitabın üzerine kahve döküyorsunuz. (Kitabı arkadaşınıza geri verirken:)

Siz:

28. Arkadaşınızdan emanet aldığınız araba ile kaza yapıyorsunuz.

(Arabayı arkadaşınıza teslim ederken:)

Siz:

KATKILARINIZA ÇOK TEŞEKKÜR EDERİM. Lütfen aşağıdaki soruları cevaplayınız.

Yabancı dil biliyor musunuz?...................(evet ise, hangisi..................)

Yurt dışında Bulundunuz mu? ....,...... (evet ise, süresi...................)

Ana diliniz Türkçe mi? ....(hayır ise, anadil...................)

Ailenizde yabancı uyruklu kimse var mı?............(evet ise, ülkesi ....)

Yaşınız:(..........)   Cinsiyet: Erkek/Kadın

Appendix C

Background Questionnaire for Prep-School Learners

1. Have you ever been in an English speaking country? If yes, how long?

2. Have you ever studied or worked with an English native speaker before? If yes, how long and where?

3. Are your mother and father Turkish citizens? If no, mention her/his nationolity.

4.Have you ever been taught by a native speaker teacher of English(American or British) throughout your past education? If yes, how long?

5. Please mention your mother and father's education level.

6. Please write down the name of your high school.

Please mention your age   :

Please circle your sex   : male / female

Thank you so much for your contribution.

Background Questionnaire for Fourth-year Learners

1. Have you ever been in an English speking country? If yes, how long?

2. Have you ever studied or worked with an English native speaker before? If yes, how long and where?

3. Are your mother and father Turkish citizens? If no, mention her/his nationality.

4.Have you ever been taught by a native speaker teacher of English(American or British) throughout your past education? If yes, how long?

5. Please mention your mother and father's education level.

6. Please write down the name of your high school.

7. Did you attend Prep-School of Anadolu University?

Please mention your age   :

Please circle your sex   : male / female

Thank you so much for your contribution.

APPENDIX D

Coding Schema of Apologizing and Thanking Semantic Formulas

IFID= Illocutionary Force Indicating Device includes speech acts of apologizing such as "I'm sorry", "I apologize", "Forgive me", I'm terribly sorry", "Excuse me".

REPR= an offer of repair / redress or compensation for the incurred damage (e.g. "I'll bring it tomorrow", or "I'll buy you a new one").

EXPL= giving an explanation, excuse,cause or reason for an unfulfilled or expected behavior (e.g. "I've had a lot on my mind at the office recently", or "I missed the bus")

RESP= acknowledging responsibility for the offense (e.g. "That was dumb of me") or admitting the offensive act (e.g. "I've forgotten to bring your book") or self-blaming (e.g. "It's my fault").

FORB= promising non-recurrence of an offensive act (e.g. "It will never happen again" or "I won't forget it again")

DENY= denying the fault (e.g. "I didn't say it" or "I didn't do that")

WEAR IT= admitting what is said or done (e.g. "If shoe / hat fits wear it") Turkish equivalent is "Yarası olan gocunur".

BLAME= instead of apologizing putting the blame to the interlocutor (e.g. "You should have called me", "Why did you wait me" or "Why didn't you ask me")

HEALTH= after an undesired or accidental behavior asking the health of the victim (e.g. "Oh, sorry, are you O.K.?" or "Let me call you a doctor")

REQUEST= politely, especially by the use of C / WOULD initiators asking for something (e.g. "Could I change my order.")

THANK= expressing gratitude for favor, gift or service (e.g. "Thanks", "Thank you very much" or "Thanks a lot").

COMP= complimenting for something (a dress, haircut) or somebody (e.g. "That blue sweater goes well on you", or "It's very kind of you" or "You are so thoughtful").

REPAY= promising to repay any kind of damage, favor,service etc., (e.g. "I'll pay you back as soon as possible" or "The next time is my turn")

EXL!= expressing surprise or delight (e.g. "Oh", "Wow" or "Gee").

APP= formal way of thanking or appreciation (e.g. "I really appreciate this").

REASS= reassuring something (e.g. "Just what I wanted" or "Blue is my favorite color")

LACK= lack of necessity or obligation (e.g. "You didn't have to", or "You shouldn't have bought this for me").

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Austin, J.L. (1962). **How to Do Things with Words**. Cambridge, Mass. : Harvard University Press.

Baysal, A. (1999). "NPAH in The Acqusition of English Restrictive Relative Clauses by Turkish Adult Learners of English. " Unpublished PhD Dissertation.. Anadolu University SBE. 1998.

Beebe, M. and Takahashi, T. (1989). "Do You Have a Bag?: Social Status and Patterned Variation in Second Language Acquisition". In Susan Gass et. al. (eds.) **Variation in Second Language Acquisition:Discourse and Pragmatics.** Clevedon and Philadelphia:Multilingual Matters.

Beebe, M . Leslie (1988). **Issues in SLA : Multiple Perspectives.** New York. N.H. Pub. Inc.

Beebe, L. M. et. al. (1990). "Pragmatic Transfer in ESL Refusals" (Eds.) Scarcella et. al. **Developing Communicative Competence in a Second Language. Series on Issues in Second Language Research.** Massachusetts and Heinle Publishers.

Bergman, L.M. and Kasper, G. (1993). "perception and Performance in Native and Nonnative Apology". in Kasper, G and Blum-kulka, S. (eds.). **Interlanguage Pragmatics.** Oxford: OUP.

Brown, H.D. (1994). **Principles of Language Learning and Teaching.** Prentice Hall, Inc.N.J.

Brown,G. and Yule, G. (1988). **Discourse Analysis.** CUP. London.

Blum-Kulka, S. (1983)."Interpreting and Performing Speech Acts in Second Language" In Wolfson (Eds) **Perspectives: Sociolinguistic and TESOL** p. 150 New York:N.H. Pub. Inc.

Blum-Kulka, S. and Olshtain, E. (1984). "Requests and Apologies: A Cross-Cultural Study of Speech Act Realization Patterns (CCSARP)". **Applied Linguistics.** 5,3, 196-213.

Canale, M. (1983). "From Communicative Competence to Communicative Language Pedagogy". In Richards, J. and Schmidt, R (eds.). **Language and Communication.** London:Longman.

Canale M. and M. Swain (1980). "From Communicative Competence to Communicative Language Pedagogy". In.Richards, J & Shmitdh.,R (eds.) **Language and Communication** . London:Longman

Cantürk, B. (1998). "Explicit Grammar Instruction: A Comparison-Based and Production-Based Instruction for EFL Learners." Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation. Anadolu University. SBE.

Cohen, D.A. (1996). "Developing the Ability to Perform Speech Acts". **Studies in SLA.** 18,2, 253-267.

Cohen ,D.A. and Olshtain,E. (1981). "Developing a Measure of Sociocultural Competence: The Case of Apology" **Language Learning.** 31,1, 113-134.

Cohen ,D.A. and E. Olshtain (1993). "The Production of Speech Acts by EFL Learners" **TESOL Quarterly.** 27 (1) : 33-55.

Corder S.P. (1978). Language-Learner Language. (Eds.) Jack J. R. **Understanding Second and Foreign Language Learning : Issues and Approaches.** Rowley. Mass. Newberry H. Pub.

Coulthart, M. (1976). **An Introduction to Discourse Analysis.** London. Longman.

Davies, A. (1990). **Principles of Language Testing.** Oxford. Blackwell Ltd.

Erçetin, N.G. (1995). "Pragmatic Transfer in the Realization of Apologies:The case of Turkish EFL Learners". An unpublished M.A. Thesis. İstanbul:Boğaziçi Üniversitesi.

Ellis R. (1982). "The Origins of Interlanguage". Applied Linguistics. 3: 207-23.

Ellis R. (1994). **The Study of Second Language Acquisition.** Oxford: OUP.

Eisenstein, M. and J.W. Bodman. (1986). "I Very Appreciate : **Expressions of Gratitude By Native and Nonnative Speakers of American.**" Applied Linguistics.7(2) : 167-185.

Fasold, R. (1991).**The Sociolinguistics of Language.** Cambridge: Basil Blackwell Inc.

Fraser, B. (1983) "The Domain of Pragmatics" In Richards, C. and Schmidth, W. (eds.) **Language and Communication.** London:Longman.

Fraser, B. (1981). "On Apologizing" In Coulmas, F. (eds.) **Conversational**

Routine. The Houge Mouton Publishers.

Fukushima. S. (1990). "Offers and Requests:Performance by Japanese Learners of English". **World Englishes.** 9,3. 317-325.

Fearch, C. and Kasper, G. (1984). "Pragmatic Knowledge:Rules and Procedures" **Applied Linguistics** 5,3, 214-225.

Gibbs, R.W. (1986). "What Makes Some Indirect Speech Acts Conventional?" **Journal of Memory and Language.** 25, 2, 181-196.

Greenall, S. (1997). **Reward:Intermediate Student's Book.** Heinemann ELT.

Harlow, H. L. (1990). "Do They Mean What They Say? Sociopragmatic Competence and Second Language Learenrs" **Modern Language Journal.** 74 (1) : 328-9.

Hatch, E. (1992). **Discourse and Language Education.** Cambridge. CUP.

Holmes, J. (1989). "Sex Differences and Apologies:One Aspect of Communicative Competence". **Applied Linguistics.** 10, 2, 194-213.

Hudson, A. Ronald. (1982). **Sociolinguistics.** Cambridge. CUP.

Hymes, D. (1972). "On Communicative Competence". In J.B. Pride and J. Holmes (eds.). Penguin Books Ltd. Middleessex:London.

Hymes, D. (1972). "Models of the Interaction Language and Social Life" In Gumprerz and Hymes (eds.)

Hymes, D. (1980). On Communicative Competence. In Pugh, A.K. , V.J. Lee and . Swann (eds). **Language and Language** Use. Heinaman Educational Books Ltd. London.

Ipek. H. (1998) "Using Listening as a Pre-reading Activity in the Reading Classes". Unpublished MA Thesis. Eskişehir :Anadolu University SBE.

İstifçi, I. (1998). "An Interlanguage Study of Compliment Responses: A Case of Turkish Learners of English". An unpublished M.A. Thesis.Eskişehir: Anadolu University. SBE.

İrman, I. (1996). "An Evaluation of the Communicative Success of Turkish EFL Learners in Utilizing Politeness Strategies in Requests". An unpublished M.A. Thesis Eskişehir:Anadolu University. SBE.

Jannedy, S. Poletto, R and Weldon, T. L. (1994). **Language Files.**Columbus:Ohio

State University Press.

Johnston.B. Kasper, G. and Ross, S. (1998). "Effect of Rejoinders in Production Questionnaires". **Apllied Linguistics.**19,2, 157-182.

Kamışlı, S. & Aktuna, S. "(1996)."Effects of Social Power on Language Use Across Speech Acts" (in press) International Journal of Applied Linguistics.

Kasper, G. (1989). "Variation in Interlanguage Speech Act Variation". In Gass, S. et.al. (eds.). **Variation in Second Language Acquisition:Discourse and Pragmatics.** Clevedon and Philadelphia:Multilingual Matters.

Kasper, G. and Blum-Kulka, S. (1993)."Interlanguage Pragmatics:An Introduction" In Kasper G. & Blum-kulka, S (eds.) **Interlanguage Pragmatics** Oxford:Oxford University Press.

Koike, D.A. (1989). " **Pragmatic Competence and Adult L2 Acquisition : Speech Acts and Interlanguage.** Modern Language Journal. 73 (3) : 279-289.

Levinson, S.C. (1987). **Pragmatics** Cambridge:CUP.

Manes, J and and Wofson, N.(1981). "The Compliment Formula" In Coulnas, F (eds.). **Conversational Routine.** The Houge Mouton.

Mızıkacı, F. (1991). "A Sociocultural Investigation of Speech Acts (Requests and Apologies) in Turkish and English". An unpublished M.A. Thesis. Ankara:Bilkent University.

Olshtain, E. (1983). "Sociocultural Competence and Language Transfer:The Case of Apology" In Gass,M.S. and Selinker, L. (eds.) **Language Transfer in Language Learning.** Rowley:Newbury House Publishers.

Olshtain,E. and Weinbach, L. (1993). "Interlanguage Features of Speech Acts of Complaining" In Kasper,G. and Blum-kulka,S (eds.) **Interlanguage Pragmatics.** New York:OUP.

Olshtain, E. and Cohen, D.A. (1989). "Speech Act Behavior Across Languages" In Dechert,H.W. and Ranpach, M. (eds.) **Transfer in Production.** Norwood N.J.: Ablex.

Olshtain, E. and Blum-Kulka S. (1985). "Degree of Approximation :Nonnative Reactions to Native Speech Act Behavior" Susan M. Gass and Carolyn G. Madden (eds.) **Input in Second Language Acquisition.** New York:

Newbury H. Pub.

Olshtain, E. and Andrew D.Cohen (1989). Speech Act Behavior Across Cultures. In H.W. Dechert and M, Raupach (Eds.) **Transfer in Production.** p. 53-67. Norwood. N.J : Ablex.

Olshtain, E. and Andrew D. Cohen. (1993). **The Production of Speech Acts by EFL Learners.** TESOL Quarterly. 27 (1) :33-56.

Oxford, R.L. (1990). **Language Learning Strategies.** New York:Newbury House Publishers.

Richards, J. C. (1991). "Communicative Needs in Foreign Language Learning." In Wolfson, N. and Judd, E. (eds.) **Sociolinguistics and Language Acquisition.**New York:Newbury House Publishers.

Rivers, W. (1973). **From Linguistic to Communicative Competence** TESOL Quarterly. 7 (1) 25-34.

Savignon, S.J. (1983). **Communicative Competence: Theory and Classroom Practice.**Massachusetts:Addison-Wesley Publishing Company

Scarcella , R.C. (1990). "Communication Difficulties in Second Language Production Development and Instruction". (Eds.) Scarcella et. al. **Developing Communicative Competence in a Second Language Research.** Mass. H.H. Pub.

Searle, J. (1980). What is a Speech Act? In Pugh, A.K., V.J. Lee and J. Swann (eds). **Language and Language Use.** Heineman Educational Books Ltd. London.

Selinker L. (1983). "Interlanguage".In Robinett, B.W. and Schatner, J. (eds.). Massachusets: University of Michigan Press.

Stern, H.H. (1983). **Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching.** Oxford:OUP

Stubbs, M. (1987). **Discourse Analysis:The sociolinguistic Analysis of Natural Language.** Oxford:Basil Blackwell.

Tarone, E.& G. Yule (1989). **Focus on the Learner.**London:OUP.

Takahashi, S. (1996). "Pragmatic Transferability". **Studies in ELT.** 18, 2, 189-222.

Takahashi, T. and L. Beebe. (1993). "Cross-Linguistic Influence in the Speech Act of Correction" In Kasper, G. and Blum-Kulka, S. (eds.). InterlangUage Pragmatics. New York:OUP.

Takahashi, T. and L. Beebe(1987). "Development of Pragmatic Competence by Japanese Learners of English". In Wolfson (eds.) Perspectives : Sociolinguistic and TESOL. p. 147-50. N.H. Pub. Inc.

Tannen, D. "The Pragmatics of Cross-Cultural Communication".Applied Linguistics . 5,3, 189-195.

Tarone, E. and G. Yule (1989). Focus on the Learner:Sociolinguistic Competence. Oxford: OUP.

Taylor,I. and M.M. Taylor. (1990). Psycholinguistics:Learning and Using Language. New Jersey:Prentice Hall.

Thomas, J. (1993). "Cross Cultural Pragmatic Failure". Applied Linguistics 4,2, 91-111.

Tillett, B and Bruder, M.N. (1985). Speaking Naturally:communication Skills in American English. London :CUP.

Thomas, J. (1983). "Cross Cultural Pragmatic Failure". Applied Linguistics 4 : 91-112..

Trudgill, P. (1972). Sociolinguistics:An Introduction to Language and Society.London:Pelican.

Wardhough, R. (1976). The Context of Language. Mass. N.H. Pub. Inc.

Weizman, E. (1993) "Interlanguage Requestive Hints". In Kasper , G. and Blum-Kulka, S. (eds.) Interlanguage Pragmatics. Oxford:OUP.

Widdowson, H.G. (1978). Teaching Language as Communication. Oxford:OUP.

Wolfson. N. (1989). Perspectives : Sociolinguistics and TESOL. Mass. N.H. Pub. Inc.

Yurtbası. M. (1996). Sınıflandırılmış Türk Atasözleri. İstanbul:Mem Ofset Ltd.