

REQUESTING IN ENGLISH: INTERLANGUAGE PRAGMATICS OF TURKISH
CHILDREN

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İngilizce Rica Etmek: Türk Çocuklarının Aradilinde Edimbilimsel Bir İnceleme

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Bu çalışmanın amacı özel ilköğretim kurumlarına devam eden ve İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen 8. sınıf Türk öğrencilerinin kullandıkları rica yapılarını incelemektir. Çalışmanın katılımcıları iki ana gruptan oluşmaktadır: 10 farklı ilköğretim kurumuna devam eden toplam 550 tane 8. sınıf öğrencisi ve 20 tane anadili İngilizce olan ilköğretim öğrencisidir. Veri toplamak üzere Resimli Sözlü Anlatım Testi (Rose, 2000) örnek alınarak geliştirilen biri çoktan seçmeli, diğeri yazılı iki söylem tamamlama testi kullanılmıştır. Çoktan seçmeli testlerden toplanan veriler SPSS istatistik programı 13. sürümü kullanılarak, yazılı söylem tamamlama testleri ise Blum-Kulka, House ve Kasper'ın (1989) geliştirdikleri kodlama yöntemi kullanılarak incelenmiştir. Veri, frekans analizi ve ki kare testi kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Ayrıca, Türk öğrencilerden toplanan yazılı veri Eisenstein and Bodman'ın (1986) geliştirdiği ölçek kullanılarak kodlanmış ve dilbilgisel hatalar bakımından incelenmiştir.

Sonuçlar, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen 8. sınıf Türk öğrencilerinin 12 durum ve her üç düzeyde: Rica eden kişinin rica edilenden daha üst konumda olduğu durum (+ P), rica eden ve edilenin eşit konumda oldukları durum (= P), ve rica edenin rica edilenden daha alt konumda olduğu durumda (- P) rica yapılarını, dolaylı rica stratejileri kullanarak ifade ettiklerini göstermektedir. Kullanım sıklığı açısından

dolaylı rica stratejilerini dolaysız rica stratejileri izlemiş ve alışılmadık olmayan dolaylı rica stratejileri ise çok az miktarda kullanılmıştır. İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencileri gibi, anadili İngilizce ve Türkçe olan çocuklar da anadillerinde rica yapılarında dolaylı rica stratejilerini tercih etmişlerdir. Ancak Türk katılımcıların anadillerinde dolaysız stratejileri hem anadili İngilizce olan gruptaki hem de İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen gruptaki katılımcılardan daha çok kullandıkları görülmüştür. En çok kullanılan dolaylı strateji, kiplik eylemleri kullanılarak oluşturulmuş yapılar ve en çok kullanılan destekleyici neden belirtilen yapılar olmuştur. Ayrıca, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencilerinin statü, yaş ve rica stratejileri kullanımı konusunda az da olsa duruma özgü bir hassasiyetleri olduğu görülmüştür. Veri toplama aracının ve anadili İngilizce olan bir ülkede geçirilen zamanın da Türk öğrencilerin edimbilimsel algı ve üretimini etkileyen değişkenler olduğu gözle çarpılmaktadır.

Anahtar kelimeler: rica, rica stratejileri, anadil edimbilimi

ABSTRACT**REQUESTING IN ENGLISH: INTERLANGUAGE PRAGMATICS OF TURKISH
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The purpose of the study was to examine the interlanguage request strategies of 8th grade Turkish EFL learners in private primary school settings. The participants of the study were in two main groups: 550 8th grade students attending 10 different private primary schools and 20 English native speaker primary school children. The data were collected by means of a Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MCDCT) and a Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT) adapted from the Cartoon Oral Production Task (COPT) by Rose (2000). The data gathered from MCDCTs were analysed using SPSS 13 version and the data from WDCTs were analysed based on the “Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realisation Project” (CCSARP) coding scheme (Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper, 1989). Two methods were employed in quantifying the data: frequency analysis and chi-square. Furthermore, non-native speakers’ written data were also coded according to Eisenstein and Bodman’s (1986) rating scale so that types of pragmalinguistic failure were determined.

The results revealed a marked preference for conventional indirectness by 8th grade Turkish EFL learners in 12 situations at three levels: Requester with more power than requestee (+ P), requester and requestee with equal power (= P), requester with less

power than requestee (- P). Conventionally indirect strategies were followed by direct strategies and non-conventionally indirect strategies were used only very rarely. Like Turkish EFL learners, Turkish and English native speaker children relied on conventionally indirect strategies in the request utterances in their native language. However, Turkish native speaker children used direct strategies more than the ones they used in the L2 and English native speaker children. “Query Preparatory” was found to be the most common request strategy type and “Grounders” were the most common external modification category. In terms of the interlocutor’s status and age and preference of request strategies, there was little evidence of sensitivity to the situational variation. Data collection instrument and experience in an English speaking country were also found to affect pragmatic comprehension and production of Turkish EFL learners.

Key words: requests, request strategies, interlanguage pragmatics

JÜRİ VE ENSTİTÜ ONAYI

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1. 1. Background to the Study

In second or foreign language learning, besides pronunciation, lexical items, and appropriate word order, a language learner must also learn appropriate ways to use words and sentences in the foreign language. “Pragmatics” is the area of language that focuses on the way we use language in context. It is concerned with the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker/writer and interpreted by a listener/reader.

The study of interlanguage pragmatics has come to be known as “Interlanguage Pragmatics” (ILP). ILP refers to non-native speakers’ comprehension and production of pragmatics and how that knowledge is acquired. It is evident that the study of interlanguage pragmatics has been modelled on cross-cultural pragmatics and has produced important empirical findings basically by identifying and comparing speech act realization patterns in various languages based on the data gathered from native and non-native speakers (Kasper, 1992; Kasper and Schmidt, 1996).

A number of ILP studies have focused on the interlanguage pragmatics of foreign/second language learners. It has been found that even though the learners have an excellent command of language in terms of grammatical and lexical aspects of the target language, they still commit pragmatic failures (Thomas, 1983; Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984; Eisenstein and Bodman, 1993; Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei, 1998; Bardovi-Harlig and Griffin, 2005).

Thomas (1983:91) uses the term “pragmatic failure” to refer to the inability to understand “what is meant by what is said”. Thomas considers pragmatic failure as an area of cross-cultural communication breakdown and distinguishes two types of pragmatic failure: “pragmalinguistic failure” and “sociopragmatic failure”. As Thomas suggests “pragmalinguistic failure” is related to the inappropriate use of linguistic forms. As it is simply a question of highly conventionalized usage, it is easy to overcome this shortcoming by teaching it as part of grammar. “Sociopragmatic failure”; on the other hand, occurs when speakers produce socially inappropriate behaviour. When compared to pragmalinguistic failure, sociopragmatic failure is much more difficult to deal with as it involves not only the learner’s language knowledge but also his/her system of beliefs. Thomas (1983:99) further argues that pragmalinguistic failure is basically a linguistic problem caused by differences in the linguistic encoding of pragmatic force, and sociopragmatic failure is the result of cross-culturally different perceptions of what constitutes appropriate linguistic behaviour.

Thomas indicates that pragmalinguistic failure may arise from two sources: teaching-induced errors and pragmalinguistic transfer. Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) point out the importance of teaching-induced errors and report that one of the major causes of disparity between foreign language learners’ and native speakers’ pragmatic competence may be attributed to the availability of input. Since classrooms are places where a foreign language learner’s only exposure to the target language takes place, English as a foreign language (EFL) settings naturally promote the development of little pragmatic competence. As EFL learners are exposed to grammatically rich input in their language classrooms, they will develop a higher awareness of the grammatical properties of the foreign language they learn. On the other hand, they will have difficulties in using the language in natural settings such as when giving directions or ordering a meal at a restaurant. In such circumstances, learners will try to overcome these difficulties by preferring to keep silent, creating certain formulae, or transferring from the first language (Doğançay-Aktuna and Kamışlı, 1997; Otçu and Zeyrek, 2008).

In addition to the classroom environment, language teaching course books lack in this respect (Boxer and Pickering, 1995; Bardovi-Harlig, Hartford, Mahan-Taylor, Morgan and Reynolds, 1996). Boxer and Pickering (1995) and Bardovi-Harlig, Hartford, Mahan-Taylor, Morgan and Reynolds (1996) realize that these materials do not provide natural, pragmatically appropriate, conversational models for learners. Many ELT texts that are currently popular for the teaching of functions continue to concentrate on the acquisition of linguistic competence, with insufficient attention to a fuller communicative behaviour. Furthermore, little or no information is given about the setting or context or relationship between speakers and addressees.

The second source of pragmatic failure is related to the inappropriate transfer of speech act strategies from one's mother tongue to the target language. The causes of sociopragmatic failure are attributed to cross-cultural differences between the native and target cultures. That is to say, a foreign language learner may judge power and social distance differently from a native speaker. Similarly, taboos and size of imposition may change from one culture to another, causing failure on part of the foreign language learner.

1. 2. Statement of the Problem

Research into pragmatic competence of foreign or second language learners reveals that learners' pragmatics is quite different from that of native speakers. Speakers across different first language backgrounds and cultures have access to similar strategies to realise and mitigate speech acts. However, the distribution and selection of these strategies vary from one to another. Furthermore, research has shown that one's grammatical development does not guarantee a corresponding level of pragmatic development. That is, even advanced language learners show a marked imbalance between their grammatical and pragmatic knowledge (Takahashi and Beebe, 1987; Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1990, 1991, 1993; Omar, 1992; Bardovi-Harlig and

Dörnyei, 1998; Bardovi-Harlig, 2002; Karatepe, 2001; Matsumura, 2001; Trillo, 2002; Bou-Franch and Garces-Conejos, 2003; Atay, 2005; Bardovi-Harlig and Griffin, 2005).

It is evident that a native speaker of a language develops grammatical and pragmatic awareness simultaneously. However, a non-native speaker of any language develops or is supposed to develop both grammatical and pragmatic awareness through formal instruction. The difficulty is that since pragmatics is linked to all cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural meanings expressed by language forms, it is difficult to implement them in educational syllabi.

In order to fill in the gap between classroom input and authentic input in EFL settings, we need to identify the stage of interlanguage pragmatics at which learners are currently situated. We may then decide on the kind of pragmatic competence needed to be acquired and the speech acts to be taught. Furthermore, approaches to language instruction and assessment need to be informed by theory and research on interlanguage pragmatics.

1. 3. The Purpose of the Study

The present study sets out to investigate the pragmatic competence of Turkish children. In the study, we aim at focusing on the interlanguage pragmatics of 8th grade learners, who are at the last year of their primary education. For children at that age group and level, requests seem to be a convenient speech act type and they are included in the curriculum for primary school English instruction in Turkey. Moreover, among the speech acts, requests have always been the one that is the most well documented in the literature. They differ cross-linguistically and they are often realized by means of clearly identifiable formulas.

Actually, requests like all other speech acts are universal. That is, all languages have speech acts. However, the form used in specific speech acts varies from culture to

culture. The variation in speech act forms within a language must be sensitive to social and ritual constraints such as relationships, situation and gender. At this point, it is not difficult to understand why miscommunication and misunderstanding occur from culture to culture. Clearly, there is a definite need for studies examining speech act realization in various languages and cultures.

1. 4. The Significance of the Study

The literature on the request strategies of foreign/second language learners from various L1 backgrounds is quite rich. Although much data have been collected about adults' or intermediate or advanced-level learners' comprehension and production of different speech acts, little is known about young EFL learners'. None of the studies except the one conducted by Rose (2000) involved subjects at the very first stages of their interlanguage development. In this respect, the present study is an attempt to contribute the literature with data from young Turkish EFL learners. Therefore, the study will fill in a gap in the literature by providing a preliminary understanding on how an individual Turkish EFL learner requests in English.

More specifically, since such a study has not been conducted with Turkish learners learning English as a foreign language in primary schools before, the study will have a certain role in identifying Turkish EFL children's current stage in interlanguage pragmatics. Such a study may also encourage the generation of hypotheses about the acquisition of pragmatic knowledge that can later be investigated in developmental studies.

Furthermore, such a study constitutes an important source of knowledge for the development of the field of Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Teaching, and more specifically for the areas of curriculum design and materials development.

The present study attempts to account for the following research questions:

1. What interlanguage request strategies do 8th grade Turkish EFL learners prefer depending on:
 - 1.1. the test type?
 - 1.2. the interlocutor's status and age?
 - 1.3. the time spent in an English speaking country?

2. To what extent are interlanguage request strategies of 8th grade Turkish EFL learners comparable to the request strategies used in the native languages of English and Turkish speakers at the same age in terms of:
 - 2.1. request strategies?
 - 2.2. request strategy types?
 - 2.3. external modifications?

3. What is the range of pragmalinguistic proficiency in interlanguage requests of 8th grade Turkish EFL learners?

1. 5. The Organisation of the Study

In the present study, Chapter 2 offers a review of the literature regarding the studies on “requests”. It starts by defining the study of speech acts and politeness issue and the chapter finishes with a brief review of varied research. Chapter 3, starts describing the pilot study. Then, it provides an overview of the methodological aspects for the implementation of the present study, including the participants, data collection procedure, data collection instruments and data analysis. Chapter 4, presents the data analysis of the data elicited through multiple choice and written discourse completion tests. In the first part, it gives an account of the data describing the request strategies of 8th grade Turkish EFL learners. Subsequently, the results are discussed in terms of

requester-requestee relations according to the three degrees of directness. In the second part, the pragmalinguistic analysis of learners' utterances is discussed. Finally, Chapter 5, summarizes the major findings of the study, establishes pedagogical implications, suggests further research, and discusses the limitations of the present study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW of LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter is to review the research pertaining to the studies on requests. Since requests are a kind of speech acts, first, the definition of speech acts and the speech act of requests will be defined. Then, a brief review of varied research on interlanguage pragmatic studies of requests is presented.

2. 1. Definitions

2. 1. 1. The Definition of Speech Acts

Speech act studies have been based on speech act theory, which was originally formulated by Austin (1962) and further developed by Searle (1969). Actions performed via utterances are called “speech acts”. Speech acts are functions of language, such as complaining, thanking, apologizing, refusing, requesting, and inviting and they are the minimal units of human communication.

The theory had a great impact both on linguistic philosophy and linguistics and it has been used as a theoretical basis for many ILP studies (Kasper, 1992; Kasper and Schmidt, 1996; Papafragou. 2000; Achiba. 2002).

2. 1. 2. The Definition of Requests

Requests are one of the speech acts used quite frequently in everyday human interaction. They have an intention of a speaker to get a hearer to do something that is beneficial to the speaker. When a speaker requests for something, basically there are four possible goals: action (Can you open the window, please?), goods (Can I borrow your notebook?), information (Can you please explain it again?), or permission (May I come in?) (Blum-Kulka et. al. 1985).

Requests are face-threatening acts, which threaten the hearer's negative face. So, the speaker who performs a request needs to reduce the level of imposition created by an act being requested in order to save the hearer's face and at the same time get his/her compliance with a request. Thus, speakers tend to employ a variety of strategies to try to make sure their requests will be granted. At this stage, then, the notion of politeness comes into play in order to reduce the imposition on the hearer and maintain a good relationship with the hearer.

Brown and Levinson (1987), in their "Face-saving View" systematise politeness as a linguistic theory. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), politeness is the expression of the speaker's intention to mitigate face-threatening acts toward the hearer. Brown and Levinson (1987) indicate the universality of politeness in conversational exchanges and distinguish two aspects of "face": positive face and negative face. When the requester wants to emphasise close relationship with the requestee, s/he uses positively polite formulae like first names. When the requester wants to emphasise power differences, s/he either raises the requestee or lower him/herself in order to avoid the face threatening effect of the request.

Requests also evaluate the degree of politeness with regard to three variables: Social distance between the speaker and hearer, power between the participants and ranking of impositions. One of the drawbacks of the view is that it ignores situational and cultural

factors. However, Brown and Levinson's model has up to now constituted the only comprehensive and explicit empirical theory of politeness.

2. 2. A Review of Cross-Cultural Request Studies

This section will review the cross-cultural Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP) studies, which focus on requests. Requests for information or services involve both knowing how to perform a request in a less face-threatening way and using lexicogrammatical resources appropriately within the given situation. Cross-cultural speech act studies reveal that as different cultures have different pragmatic rules for directness, these differences may possibly cause difficulty for non-native speakers when acquiring a speech act in a target language.

The first cross-cultural request studies are published in the late 1970s and early 1980s (Scarcella, 1979; Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1986; Takahashi and DuFon, 1989). The research studies summarised below have investigated how foreign/second language (L2) learners with different language proficiencies and first language (L1) backgrounds request in the L2 and compared them with that of native speakers'.

A great deal of research has been conducted in English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) settings to explore the request strategies of L2 learners. One of the earliest studies on the production of requests was carried out by Scarcella (1979). Scarcella (1979) compares adult advanced and beginning ESL learners regarding their production of requests in role-play situations to find evidence of an order of L2 acquisition of politeness forms. She finds out that, while advanced students could vary the syntactic form of the request according to the social situation by using imperatives and declarative statements, the beginning students invariably use imperatives. She indicates that adult L2 learners seem to use politeness features before they have acquired their co-occurrence and appropriate distribution. Scarcella (1979) indicates that L2 proficiency alone is not sufficient for the full development of L2

pragmatic competence. Non-native speakers' experience in the target language community might be a more crucial factor in L2 learners' degree of approximation to the target language norm. Like Scarcella (1979) other researchers such as Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986), Takahashi and DuFon (1989), Cohen and Olshtain (1993), Trosborg (1995), Hill (1997), Rose (2000), and Hassall (2003) conduct studies exploring beginning to advanced level adult L2 learners' request strategies either in ESL or EFL settings and compare their findings with the request strategies of native speakers of English. As we will see through the rest of the section, even though the studies reveal contrasting results, there is a general agreement that as their L2 proficiencies increase, learners approximate the target language norms.

In the following research studies, all researchers focus on one aspect of requests: Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986) compare the length of written requests; Takahashi and Dufon (1989) examine the nature of language transfer; and Cohen and Olshtain (1993) describe the ways non-native speakers assess, plan, and execute speech acts in the L2.

Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986) compare the length of written requests produced by English native and non-native speakers. The study is also a part of a Cross Cultural Speech Act Realisation Project and collects data from intermediate and advanced level non-native speakers of a variety of first language backgrounds. The results reveal that as the proficiency increases, non-native speakers' level of verbosity rises. When compared to L2 native speakers, they have been observed to display verbose pragmatic behaviour by producing lengthy speech act realisations. With regard to use of external modifications they approximate the target language norm. Furthermore, length of residence in the target language community is found to be a crucial factor in acquiring the second language.

Takahashi and DuFon (1989) examine the nature of language transfer and its role in SLA. The participants of the study are 9 Japanese female young adults, who are grouped according to their English language proficiencies. The data are collected via

role-play situations that comply with a request directive. The results indicate that as their proficiencies increase, Japanese ESL learners tend to proceed from less direct to more direct levels in their directive choice.

Unlike the other researchers, who focus on the actual request utterances of L2 learners, Cohen and Olshtain (1993) do not directly analyse the production of speech acts, but they report a study describing ways in which non-native speakers assess, plan, and execute speech acts in their L2. The subjects in the study are 15 advanced English as a foreign language learners. The subjects are given six speech act situations - two apologies, two complaints, and two requests-in which they are to role play along with a native speaker. The results reveal that in executing speech act behaviour, respondents conduct only a general assessment of the utterances called for in the situation without planning specific vocabulary and grammatical structures. They often think in two languages and sometimes in three. Furthermore, when planning and executing speech act utterances, they utilize a series of different strategies in searching for language forms, and do not attend much to grammar and pronunciation.

The following researchers: Trosborg (1995), Hill (1997), Rose (2000), Hassall (2003) and Han (2005) attempt to investigate the request strategies of different levels of EFL/ESL learners. Although the participants of the studies of Trosborg (1995), Hill (1997), Hassall (2003), Schauer (2004) and Han (2005) are adult university students, Rose (2000) concentrates on young EFL learners.

Trosborg (1995) investigates the request strategies of three different groups of Danish learners of English. The results of Trosborg's (1995) study are also in line with Takahashi and DuFon's (1989). The results reveal that as the L2 proficiency increases, learners approximate the target language norm. With increasing L2 proficiency, their use of adjuncts increases. However, when compared with the native speakers, non-native speakers even at advanced levels cannot reach native speaker norms with regard to the use of downgraders and external modifications.

Hill (1997) attempts to investigate the pragmatic development of requests of three-levels of Japanese university students. A discourse completion test is used to collect the request utterances of the participants. The results show that Japanese EFL learners use more direct and fewer conventionally indirect strategies than native speakers. The higher proficient learners move into the direction of native speaker norms. The results also reveal that Japanese learners use considerably fewer hints than native speakers and show no development in the use of this strategy. Similarly, Japanese learners use less internal and external modifications than native speakers; however, they show development as their proficiencies increase.

Rose (2000) goes one step further and attempts to fill the gap between SLA and interlanguage pragmatics. In the study she reports the results of an exploratory cross-sectional study of pragmatic development of requests, apologies, and compliment responses in English. The participants of the study are primary school students in Hong Kong. The students are selected from three levels: Primary two (P-2), primary 4 (P-4), and primary six (P-6). The approximate average age for each group is 7, 9, and 11 years. The participant numbers depending on grades vary as follows: 20 for P-2, 14 for P-4, and 19 for P-6. For Cantonese, there are 15 participants in each group. The data are collected by means of a cartoon oral production task (COPT) designed to elicit requests, apologies, and compliment responses. The results indicate that although a number of developmental patterns are revealed- particularly in choice of request strategy, frequency of supportive moves, and the use of adjuncts with apologies and compliment responses- there is little evidence of sensitivity to situational variation or pragmatic transfer from Cantonese. Besides, the data reveal little evidence of situational variation for any of the speech acts, which may indicate the precedence of pragmalinguistics over sociopragmatics in the early stages of pragmatic development in a second language.

Hassall (2001, 2003) investigates how Australian learners of Indonesian perform requests in everyday situations compared to Indonesian native speakers. The Australian participants of the study are 20 university students- low and high group learners. The

Indonesian participants consist of 18 university students. Each subject performs 12 or 13 request situations by interacting with an Indonesian native speaking partner. All the role-plays are audio-recorded and their appropriacy is determined through a process of discussion with native speaker informants. The results reveal that when compared to the native speakers, foreign language learners tend to use “want statements” and “hint statements” less often. The results further suggest that as their proficiency levels increase, learners avoid transferring pragmatic features from their first language. The results reveal the importance of positive transfer of L1 knowledge strengthening Bialystok’s claim that for adult L2 learners, the task of learning pragmatic knowledge is in fact already accomplished. The most important task facing the adult L2 learners is the development of control over attention in selecting a language.

Schauer (2004) investigates the interlanguage pragmatic development of German learners of English in requests. The data were elicited from 12 German adults studying at a British university for one academic year. An English native speaker control group of 15 students also took part in the study. A Multimedia Elicitation Task (MET) was used to collect the data at three sessions: shortly after the arrival, in the middle of the stay, and shortly before returning to Germany. The results revealed that internal lexical modifiers are acquired prior to syntactic downgraders. Alerters, Head-acts, and grounders are used by all German participants in the first sessions. Disarmers, Imposition minimizers, and preparators are used in the initial sessions as well but have not developed much after that. Furthermore, exposure to the target language in the L2 environment played an important role in the use of supportive moves.

More recently, two researchers conduct studies on the development of L2 request strategies in two different settings: Han (2005) in ESL context and Tada (2005) in EFL context. Han (2005) investigates the effect of non-native speakers’ (NNS’s) experience in the target language community on the development of the directness and the use of mitigation in the speech act of requests. The participants of the study are three groups of Korean university students with varying length of residence in the USA: short term

(less than one year), mid term (1 to 3 years), long term (at least five years). The data are collected via an Oral Discourse Completion Test in nine request situations. The tape-recorded data are analyzed using the Coding Scheme of Cross Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP). The results does not reveal a clear effect of length of residence on the development of the speech act of requests, directness and mitigation strategies used. However, depending on the length of residence, NNSs increase the use of biclausal formulas and external modifications.

Tada (2005) investigates the development of EFL learners' pragmatic perception and production of the speech act of requests, refusals, and apologies. The data are collected from 47 Japanese learners of English via video prompts as part of a computerized data collection instrument. The results reveal that pragmatic production develops hand in hand with overall English proficiency, whereas pragmatic perception is relatively independent of proficiency. It is also found out that neither perception nor production develops fully from the perspective of native speaker judges. This suggests the need to increase EFL learners' opportunities to receive input containing English speech acts and practising them in classes.

2. 3. Studies on Request Strategies of Turkish EFL Learners

In this section the request strategies of Turkish EFL learners will be reviewed. The following studies have probed the use of speech act realisation strategies by learners of different proficiency levels and had some important remarks on Turkish native speakers' use of request strategies in the L2 across different levels. The studies that are mentioned in this section include various categories: The influence of L1 on the use of request strategies in the L2 (Mızıkacı, 1991), sociolinguistic and pragmatic implications of politeness strategies of Turkish native speakers (Tolon, 1997), Turkish native speakers' use of politeness strategies in their requests in English (İrman, 1996; Karatepe, 1998; Karatepe, 2001; Otcu, 2000; Adak, 2003; Madak, 2004; Atay, 2005), the development of requests of Turkish learners of English (Yıldız, 2001; Otcu and

Zeyrek, 2008) and politeness perception of Turkish monolingual speakers and Turkish-German bilingual returnees (Martı, 2006).

Mızıkacı (1991) investigates how Turkish learners' use of requests and apologies in their L1 affects the comprehension and use of these patterns in the L2. It is expected that because Turkish and English are languages from two different language families and have diverse histories with relatively little contact, there will likely be communicative difficulty. The participants of the study are 22 upper-intermediate level third year university students and native English speakers. The data are collected via a questionnaire, comprising of a set of situations. The analysis of the data reveals that in their L1, Turkish speakers use pre-adjuncts, head acts, and post-adjuncts in a large variety. In terms of directness, Turkish people use conventionally indirect strategies and non-conventionally indirect strategies are found very rarely. With regard to social distance, they use more openers and address terms when addressing social superiors. Furthermore, post-adjuncts are not typical in Turkish requests and explanations as pre-adjuncts occur at a very high rate. The use of "please" is found only in requests addressed to inferiors and very rare to superiors. In the requests of English, Turkish speakers' mostly use reasons as adjuncts. English usage allows for more conventional indirect level strategies, specifically preparatory conditions strategy. These utterances contain forms like "Could you buy ...?", "Is it possible to do ...?", "Would you please do ...?" Imperatives are also allowed usually with "please". The results reveal that there are some similarities between Turkish and English requests. Both Turkish and English allow for pre-adjuncts and the use of apologetic formulas is a common characteristic of both. In both languages, conventionally indirect level strategies, specifically preparatory conditions are very common and there is very rare use of non-conventional strategies. Besides similarities, there are also differences. Turkish usage allows a more variety of pre- and post-adjuncts. In English; however the use of "please" as a pre-adjunct is common. English allows explanations both before and after a head act, but in Turkish more explanations occur as pre-adjuncts. Furthermore, English speakers are more direct in their request strategies than Turkish speakers. Hedged performatives

occur in Turkish most of the time for superiors but inferiors in English. Strong and mild-hints occur when addressing inferiors in Turkish but both superiors and inferiors in English. As a result of these differences, when using English, Turkish speakers prefer pre-adjuncts over post-adjuncts fairly strongly while English allows more post-adjuncts. Turkish speakers use “please” more often than native speakers.

Tolon (1997) investigates the sociolinguistic and pragmatic implications of politeness strategies of 243 Turkish speakers by using a questionnaire, comprising of 14 situations. The results reveal that out of the seven independent variables of sociological attributes, namely age, gender, education, income, profession, power, and birthplace, mostly education and income are found to play a role in Turkish adults’ decisions when choosing the request form. Then come occupation, power status, and the place one was born.

In the following studies İrman (1996), Yıldız (2001), Adak (2003), and Madak (2004) explore the request strategies of Turkish EFL learners and compare their performance with that of native speakers. Otçu (2000); on the other hand, focuses on the production of requests by Turkish EFL learners and evaluate their performance through the comments of native speaker judges. Although the studies have contrasting results, there is general agreement that even advanced level Turkish EFL learners have difficulties when requesting in English.

İrman (1996) investigates the communicative success of Turkish EFL learners in using politeness strategies in requests in English. In order to determine the success of Turkish EFL learners, their use of politeness strategies in requests in English is compared to those preferred by native speakers of English. The participants of the study are 50 Turkish EFL learners and 13 native speakers of English. The data are collected by a questionnaire asking participants to choose appropriate politeness strategies in five socially differentiated situations. The situations include requesting from someone older/younger and having higher status, someone older/younger and having lower status

and someone at the same age and having the equal status. The findings indicate that Turkish EFL learners are successful in the use of positive and negative politeness strategies but they are not successful in the use of direct/indirect politeness strategies.

Otçu (2000) investigates the production of requests by Turkish EFL learners. The participants of the study are 31 university students. The data are collected through 3 role-play situations with native speakers. The recorded situations are evaluated by native speakers with regard to addressing terms, the actual request, and excuses for making the request. The results reveal that Turkish EFL learners are quite successful in using addressing terms and performing the actual request; however, they are unsuccessful in using supportive moves. It is found out that Turkish EFL learners frequently use conventionally indirect request strategies and the use of mitigating device “please” decrease depending on increasing social distance. Though they are not considered as suitable request strategies, some of them exhibit interlanguage characteristics in terms of lexical, structural, and pragmatic aspects.

Adak (2003) investigates whether there is any significant difference between Turkish EFL learners’ and native speakers’ use of politeness strategies in requests. 100 intermediate level Turkish university students and 20 native speakers of English participate in the study. The data are collected via a DCT, comprising of 18 situations and a judgement test, of 18-multiple-choice items. The analysis of the data reveals that there is a significant difference between the native and non-native groups’ use of request strategies. It is concluded that Turkish EFL learners are able to use request strategies like native speakers when they are asked to rank the alternatives given; however, they are unable to use requests in a similar way to the native speakers when they are expected to produce their own strategies.

Madak (2004) investigates whether there are any significant differences between Turkish EFL learners’ and native speakers’ choice of request forms in terms of gender differences. The data are collected from 100 EFL learners and 30 English native

speakers through a judgement test. The results reveal that there is a significant difference between the two groups' choice of request strategies because of cultural differences rather than gender differences. In some situations; however, there appears to be significant differences between the informants because of gender differences. The results also reveal that there is a significant difference in the use of requests by Turkish male and female EFL learners. When the requestee is an older person or a female person they do not know well, both female and male informants behave in the same way.

The following two research studies by Yıldız (2001) and Otçu and Zeyrek (2008) adapts acquisitional perspective and attempts to contribute the growing literature with data from Turkish EFL learners. In her cross-sectional study Yıldız (2001) investigates the indirectness strategy selections of Turkish EFL learners in request situations with respect to situational factors and proficiency. The participants of the study are 80 university students- 40 at low and 40 and high proficiency, and 25 native speakers. The data are collected by means of a multiple-choice indirectness test designed with respect to situational factors of social distance, power and size of imposition involved in the requests. The results reveal that even though a number of developmental patterns take place in the choice of requesting strategies, the data indicated that there is little evidence of sensitivity to situational variation with respect to social distance, power, and size of imposition. There is not a noticeable difference and relation between the proficiency of learners and the selection of indirectness strategies. The most selected strategy type for Turkish EFL learners is conventionally indirect request strategies. It seems that learners over generalise the structures they learn and do not pay attention to situational factors. The researcher further recommends teachers to use more authentic materials like videos and movies when teaching pragmatic features of the L2.

Otçu and Zeyrek (2008) examine how 19 lower and 31 upper-intermediate level Turkish adult EFL learners perform requests in English. EFL learners' performance is also compared with that of 13 native speakers. The data are collected by means of

interactive role-plays with a native speaker of English and analysed using the coding scheme by Blum-Kulka, et. al, 1989. The results emphasise the importance of proficiency level in the development of request strategies in an EFL context. While lower proficiency learners rely on formulaic utterances, they tend to be more creative as their proficiency level increases. The data reveal that there are notable variations between the learner data and English native speaker data in terms of alerters. A developmental pattern is observed in learners' use of internal modifiers and subjectivizers. In terms of syntactic downgraders employed, there are differences between learners and English native speakers. The findings of the study also reveal that "query preparatory" is the main request head act and mitigating supportive moves, specifically grounders, are found to be the most common external modification type.

The following research studies are conducted with EFL teacher trainees. Realising that pragmalinguistics is underrepresented in the course programmes of EFL teacher trainees in Turkey, Karatepe (1998, 2001) investigates to what extent Turkish EFL teacher trainees have learned about indirect requests in English. The data are collected by means of a two-part questionnaire, where participants are asked to choose an appropriate request utterance among the given multiple choice items, and then to write their own request utterances. The results reveal that Turkish EFL teacher trainees are quite successful in recognising appropriate forms in multiple-choice questions; however, when they are asked to produce their own responses they tend to improvise or transfer forms from Turkish, their native language. It seems that pragmalinguistic features are left to be picked up by trainees themselves.

Ünal Kal (2004) investigates to what extent Turkish student teachers choose the appropriate request forms in English and Turkish by considering situational factors. Furthermore, the study investigates whether Turkish student teachers transfer Turkish request forms into English. The data are collected from 190 first and third year EFL teacher trainees by means of discourse completion tests and interviews. The results reveal that student teachers differ in their preference of direct, conventionally indirect

and nonconventionally indirect strategies with respect to social factors. The findings showed evidence for both appropriate and inappropriate performance of requests in English and Turkish. The data revealed that informants transferred some verb preferences, length of utterances from Turkish to English.

Similarly, after designing a five-week pragmatic consciousness raising course for Turkish prospective EFL teachers, Atay (2005) observes that the course achieves its aims in terms of raising the pragmatic consciousness of prospective teachers. Thus, she emphasises that both pre-service and in-service teachers need to be guided on how to raise the awareness of their learners to the relevant aspects of pragmatics. Atay (2005) further states that the courses in teacher education programs should go certain changes in terms of their content with regard to the place of pragmatics in EFL teaching.

The recent studies below explore the request strategies of Turkish adult learners. Martı (2006) aims to investigate the realisation and politeness perception of requests made by Turkish monolingual speakers and Turkish-German bilingual returnees. The Discourse Completion Test is administered to 107 Turkish-German bilingual returnees living in Turkey and 92 monolingual Turkish university students. A politeness rating questionnaire is also used to investigate how polite request strategies with different directness levels are perceived by Turkish native speakers. The results reveal that indirectness and politeness are related but not linearly linked concepts. With regard to indirectness, Turkish monolingual speakers seem to prefer more direct strategies when compared to German speakers. In some situations, Turkish monolinguals tend to be more reluctant to make a request, whereas the Turkish-German bilinguals opt out less frequently but prefer indirect strategies.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methodology that was used to examine the type of request strategies Turkish EFL children prefer. The chapter presents the pilot study and the description of the participants, data collection procedure, data collection instruments, and data analysis.

3. 1. The Pilot Study

After deciding to study the request strategies of Turkish EFL children, a Written Discourse Completion Test was developed basing on the Cartoon Oral Production Task (COPT) by Rose (2000) to conduct a pilot study. In order to develop the test, first of all, we reviewed the literature for the characteristics of primary school students in order to create familiar situations as children actually experience in their lives. We found that 11 to 14 year-old children love collecting things, going to the cinema or theatre, watching TV, listening to music, and spending time with their friends. Furthermore, they enjoy doing sports, playing computer games and spending time in the internet (Yavuzer, 1996; Türküm, 2001). Besides, we reviewed books currently used in both public and private primary schools, observed students in their actual classes and talked to their teachers to create familiar request situations for children at that age group. After deciding the first draft of the request situations, we discussed them with foreign language teachers in order to ensure that they appeared to be natural. Then, the first draft of the instrument was pilot-tested to carry out preliminary analysis in order to

determine whether the wording, format, and setting of the situations would present any difficulties for the participants of the present study.

The first pilot study was conducted with 163 primary school students studying at a public primary school in Bursa, Turkey. The primary school students participating in this study were taken from three levels: Grade 6, Grade 7, and Grade 8. The participant numbers for each level were as follows: 24 students for Grade 6; 72, for Grade 7; and 87, for Grade 8. Their age ranged from 11 to 14 years. All of the participants had been learning English for about 3 to 5 years in instructed foreign language settings and none of them had ever been to an English speaking country before.

The piloted written discourse completion test had three versions. The first version of the test included 12 scenarios about a Turkish boy living in England with his family because of his father's business. Each scenario was presented with a single-frame cartoon and brief caption to describe the scenario in Turkish and students were asked to respond them by writing requests in English. This first version was totally given to 87 students: 24 students from Grade 6, 30, from Grade 7, and 33, from Grade 8. The second version of the test included the same 12 scenarios each of which presented with a single-frame cartoon and brief caption to describe the scenario in English and students were asked to respond them by writing requests in English. This second version of the test was given to 21, Grade 7 students. Initially, our aim in designing these two versions of the test was to check the effect of instruction on the participants. The pilot data revealed that, participants' responses were influenced by the actual wording of the descriptions provided in each situation if provided in English, participants' L2. Also basing on the recommendations and suggestions we got both from teachers and students, we decided to exclude this second version since it had some drawbacks in the data collection procedure. The third version of the test included the same 12 scenarios each with a single-frame cartoon and brief caption to describe the scenario in Turkish and students were asked to respond them by using requests in Turkish. The third version was totally given to 54, Grade 8 students. Our aim in designing the third version

of the test was the idea that in addition to examining the English requests produced by primary school children, it would be useful to consider their use of requests in their L1 as well.

Once the necessary modifications were made by considering the feedback and suggestions obtained from primary school students, foreign language teachers and the members of the Thesis Committee, the new version of the instrument was developed. Besides the written discourse completion test, a multiple choice discourse completion test that included the same 12 situations was also developed. The situations were all about a Turkish boy, who was in England to attend a summer school there. By considering the difficulties Turkish EFL learners studying at public primary schools faced with while doing the test in English, we decided to conduct the actual study in Private Primary school settings, which were known to offer a more fruitful environment for foreign language education. Thus, both written and multiple choice discourse completion tests were once again piloted in a private school setting.

In the second pilot study, the participants were 52 7th grade students, attending a private primary school in Eskişehir, Turkey. In order to enable the participants of the actual study to experience no difficulties, problematic items were once again identified and removed from the actual data collection instrument. We made sure that the instructions were clear to all the participants. The pilot-study also helped us to determine the estimated time needed to complete both multiple choice and written discourse completion tests. The necessary precautions were taken to avoid mentioning what the objects of the research was since that could have pre-conditioned the outcomes of the study.

Since the participants of the study were young EFL learners, a “Situation Assessment Questionnaire” was deliberately avoided in case they should not be able to reveal their intuitions about the characteristics of the request situations. However, while collecting the data for the pilot study, the researcher observed the learners and asked them about the situations. According to the feedback obtained, a situation requiring “*John’s father*

to buy him a new school bag” was excluded from the data collection instrument as participants told that they were too face threatening. This enabled us to consider participants’ missing responses as omissions rather than intentional acts while coding the data.

3. 2. The Present Study

In order to collect the data for the present study we got the permission of the Ministry of Education, Turkey (For the Research Permission see Appendix A). We were allowed to conduct the study with 8th grade students in 10 different private primary schools in Bursa. In primary school settings in Turkey, English as a foreign language education starts at the very first year of primary school curriculum. Primary school students take 8 to 10 hours of English language instruction per week each year. It was assumed that the data collected would reflect an individual Turkish EFL child’s language attainment after 8 years of foreign language instruction.

The data were collected at the fall term of the 2006-2007 Academic Year. At the third and fourth weeks of the fall term, we collected the comprehension data using the Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MCDCT). The production data were collected at the 13th and 14th weeks of the same term using the Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT). Furthermore, some baseline data were also collected from 11 to 14-year-old young native speakers of English. In addition to examining the English requests produced by primary school children, we also collected some data on their use of requests in their L1. The L1 data enabled us to see whether the probable differences that might be evident in the L2 data and the baseline data were reflected in the L1 or not.

3. 3. Participants

In the present study there were two main groups of participants: 550 8th grade Turkish EFL students attending private primary schools in Bursa, Turkey and 20 native speakers of English at the same age.

All of the 550 8th grade Turkish EFL learners were given the MCDCT at the third and fourth weeks of the 2006-2007 Academic Year Fall term. Among the 550 collected tests, eight of them were excluded as they had either some missing background information or when more than half of the situations were kept unresponded. Thus, a total number of 542 participants took part in the study. The distribution of the students with regard to ten different private primary schools is shown in Table 1 below:

Table 1. Distribution of Private Primary Schools

Private Primary Schools	Number of Participants
Private Primary School 1	68
Private Primary School 2	60
Private Primary School 3	129
Private Primary School 4	100
Private Primary School 5	20
Private Primary School 6	27
Private Primary School 7	21
Private Primary School 8	57
Private Primary School 9	26
Private Primary School 10	34
TOTAL (n)	542

The participants' age ranged from 13 to 15 and over 90 % of the participants were 13 years old at the time of data collection.

Since literature suggests that time spent in an English speaking country might have some influence on the language development of foreign language learners (House, 1996; Röver, 1996), 550 8th grade Turkish EFL learners were further grouped according to whether they had ever been to an English speaking country or not. Thus, the

participants in the Turkish EFL group consisted of two sub-groups: Turkish EFL learners without any experience in an English speaking country (henceforth called as Group 1); Turkish EFL learners with some experience in an English speaking country (henceforth called as Group 2). The second main group of participants consisted of young native speakers of English (henceforth called as English Control Group). Furthermore, some L1 data were also obtained from 48 Turkish children (henceforth called as Turkish Control Group).

3. 3. 1. Group 1 Participants

The participants in Group 1 consisted of 488 8th grade Turkish EFL learners attending 10 different private primary schools in Bursa, Turkey. Furthermore, Group 1 participants had never been to an English speaking country before. The MCDCT was administered to a total number of 488 8th grade Turkish EFL learners and the WDCT was administered to a total number of 322 8th grade students.

3. 3. 2. Group 2 Participants

Group 2 participants consisted of 54 8th grade Turkish EFL learners with some experience in an English speaking country. The time that those 54 students spent in an English speaking country is shown in Table 2 below:

Table 2. The Time Spent in an English Speaking Country

The Time Spent in an English Speaking Country	Number of Participants
5 days	1
1 week	2
2 weeks	8
3 weeks	20
1 month	6
5 weeks	1
6 weeks	2
7 weeks	1
2 months	1
3 months	5
4 months	1
5 months	1
8 months	1
1 year	1
4 years	2
Born and lived in the first 4 years	1
TOTAL (n)	54

As Table 3 above shows, it was found that the majority of the participants (n=36) spent three weeks to three months in an English speaking country. Thus, in order to create a homogeneous group, 18 participants who spent either less than three weeks or over three months in an English speaking country were excluded from the data. The responses of these 36 participants were discussed separately from the main data (Group 1) in order to determine whether there had been a change in the two groups of participants- those who had never been to an English speaking country and others spent three weeks to three months in an English speaking country.

The participants in Group 2 consisted of participants who spent three weeks to three months in an English speaking country. The MCDCT was given to a total number of 36 participants and the WDCT to 34 participants.

3. 3. 3. English Control Group

The second main group of participants was native speakers of English. In order to compare data gathered from non-native speakers with that of the native speakers', we collected some baseline data from 20 native English speaker children at the same age-11 to 14 year-olds. All participants in the English Control Group were living at the Central London and attending primary schools there.

3. 3. 4. Turkish Control Group

The participants of the Turkish Control Group were 48, 8 grade children attending two different primary schools.

3. 4. Data Collection Procedure

As pointed out by Rose and Kasper (2001), Yuan (2001) and Roever (2004) a Discourse Completion Test (DCT) can be an effective data collection method if the focus of research lied in describing the realization patterns of a particular speech act of a particular language at an initial stage of pragmatic development.

In the literature three main types of DCTs are identified: Written Discourse Completion Tests (WDCTs), Multiple-Choice Discourse Completion Tests (MDCTs), and Oral Discourse Completion Tests (ODCTs) (Brown, 2001; Kasper and Rose, 2002). A WDCT consists of a situational description including factors such as setting, participant roles, and degree of imposition followed by a brief dialogue with at least one turn as an open slot to be completed by the participant by thinking what s/he would say in that situation. WDCTs provide valuable information about participants' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge. MDCTs require participants to read a written description of a situation and select what would be best to say in the given situation. Furthermore, both WDCTs and MDCTs enable researchers to collect data from large amount of participants within a short period of time. ODCTs require participants to

listen to a description of a situation usually on a tape recorder and to say aloud what they would say in that situation.

In order to collect data from young EFL learners at lower levels, some modifications will be required to standard elicitation practices in the data collection procedure. Using printed cartoons (Rose, 2000) will enable lower level learners to interpret them more easily than common written forms. Similarly, Cohen (2004) and Roever (2004) discuss the importance of providing detailed description in the prompt. Cohen (2004) further points out that illustrating drawings or photographs, and sound effects all help to make the situation clear. It is also important to make the purpose for carrying out a test in the prompt. Furthermore, the speech act situations must be familiar to the participants and also should be socioculturally appropriate. Billmyer and Varghese (2000) claim that a detailed description including social and contextual information about each situation is necessary to make participants fully understand each situation.

As Cohen (2004) suggests in order to describe speech act production rigorously, it is necessary to use a multi-method approach. Thus, the challenge is in combining different methods in order to assess the speech act effectively. As we aim at describing the realization patterns of requests of Turkish EFL learners at an initial stage of pragmatic development, DCTs seem as convenient data collection instruments, which will also allow us to collect data from a large number of children within a short period of time. As we deal with both comprehension and production of request strategies of Turkish EFL children, we decided to develop two data collection instruments: a Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MCDCT) and a Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT).

3. 5. Data Collection Instruments

For both the MCDCT and WDCT we used the same 12 situations. The situations were arranged relative to the perspective of Yiğit, a Turkish boy. Yiğit was introduced as a primary school student. At that moment he was in England for a month and

attending a summer school there. In England he was staying with John's family. Participants had no problems in imagining the situations as it was a common practice for primary school teachers to take their students to join summer courses in England for a period of three to eight weeks. Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory was the starting point in the selection of the situations. All situations included an aspect that is related to social power, which was classified in three groups:

- (a) requester with more power than requestee (Situations 4, 8);
- (b) requester and requestee with equal power (Situations 1, 3, 10);
- (c) requester with less power than requestee (Situations 2, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11, 12).

Components of social power were considered to be age (senior vs. junior) and status (teacher vs. student; customer vs. waiter).

The situations that appeared in the study are as follows:

1. Yiğit asks to borrow his classmate's notebook.
2. Yiğit asks John's brother to use his computer.
3. Yiğit asks his classmate to help him with his homework.
4. Yiğit asks the waiter for a hamburger and a coke.
5. Yiğit asks John's father to watch his favourite TV program.
6. Yiğit asks John's sister to give him some money.
7. Yiğit asks John's sister to borrow her pencil.
8. Yiğit asks Janet to play with her computer game.
9. Yiğit asks John's mother to play football with his friends at the playground.
10. Yiğit asks John to borrow his bicycle.
11. Yiğit couldn't understand the reading text. He asks the teacher to explain it again.

12. Yiğit asks John's father to join the teacher-parent meeting for him.

Some background information such as gender, age, grade of the participant and his/her experience in an English speaking country was also collected from all participants. Participants in English Control Group and Turkish Control Group were asked to write down their gender, age and grade only.

3. 5. 1. The Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MCDCT)

The MCDCT consisted of the 12 request situations explained above. For the MCDCT we provided 5 choices for each situation that asked the participants to decide what Yiğit would say by choosing only one of the responses given below each situation. When forming the five choices of each situation, we used the three strategy types by Blum-Kulka et. al., (1989) as a part of Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP): *Direct Strategies (DS)*, *Conventionally Indirect Strategies (CIS)*, and *Non-conventionally Indirect Strategies (NCIS)*. For each situation we provided an example of each three strategy type and inserted an inappropriate item. The inappropriate items were regarded as control items. For statistical reasons, when analysing the data, participants who choose the inappropriate items over 40 % of all their answers, were excluded from the study. As participants' English language proficiency level was high enough to understand the descriptions and instructions in English, they were provided in the L2. (For the MCDCT see Appendix B.)

3. 5. 2. The Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT)

Each 12 situation that appeared in the WDCT was presented with a single-frame cartoon and with a brief caption to describe the situation. Since the pilot study results indicated that participants were influenced by the actual wording of the instructions when provided in English, the descriptions and instructions were given in participants' L1, Turkish. Some major vocabularies learners might need when performing the request situations were also provided in the cartoons in order to avoid

any potential lexical problems. Participants were asked to write down what Yiğit would say in English in the given situations. (For the WDCT see Appendix C).

3. 5. 3. The Written Discourse Completion Test for English Baseline Data

As has been previously stated, some baseline data were collected from 11 to 14-year-old young native English speakers using the same situations. In the test, John was introduced as an English boy attending a primary school in London. In the situations, John was interacting with his parents, his sisters and brother and his friends. Participants were asked to write down what they would say in the given situations in English (For the WDCT for English Baseline Data see Appendix D).

3. 5. 4. The Written Discourse Completion Test for Turkish Baseline Data

In addition to examining the English requests produced by primary school children, we also considered their use of requests in their L1 to see whether the probable differences that might be evident in the L2 data and the baseline data were reflected in the L1 as well. The L1 test also made use of the same 12 situations. This time Yiğit was introduced as a Turkish boy living in Turkey and attending a primary school. In the situations, Yiğit was interacting with his parents, his sister and brother and his friends. Participants were asked to write down what s/he would say in Turkish in the given situations (For the WDCT for Turkish Baseline Data see Appendix E).

3. 6. Data Analysis

For statistical analysis, three basic analyses were conducted. First of all, the data gathered from MCDCTs of Group 1 and Group 2 participants was coded using SPSS 13 version according to three main request strategy types: Direct Strategy (DS), Conventionally Indirect Strategy (CIS) and Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

(NCIS). Two methods were employed in quantifying the data: frequency analysis and chi-square. For frequency analysis, three main request strategy types were counted and converted to percentages. Chi-square test was conducted to determine the relation between request pairs that require a request among equal, higher and lower requester-requestee groups. Participants' performance in MCDCTs and WDCTs were also analysed to see whether there were statistically significant differences between the two test types or not. For these purposes chi-square tests were applied. Secondly, the data gathered from WDCTs was analysed using the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) coding scheme (Blum-Kulka et. al., 1989:11), which had been an established scheme of analysis. Thirdly, for pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic failure, participants' request utterances were rated using Eisenstein and Bodman's (1986) rating scale.

3. 6. 1. The Cross Cultural Speech Act Realisation Project (CCSARP) Coding Scheme

Within the framework of contrastive pragmatics, a project called Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) was set up to investigate cross-cultural and intralingual variation in two speech acts: requests and apologies in a large sample of data collected by Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989). CCSARP was concerned with interrelating the language that was used to perform speech acts with social and situational variables that potentially affect their use from a sociopragmatic view, not the pragmalinguistic view.

The general goal of the CCSARP is to establish patterns of request and apology realizations under different social constraints across a number of languages and cultures, including both native and non-native varieties. The goals of the project include:

- investigating the similarities and differences in the realisation patterns of requests and apologies across different languages, relative to the same social constraints,
- investigating the effect of social variables on the realization patterns of given speech acts within specific speech communities,
- investigating the similarities and differences in the realization patterns of requests and apologies between native and non-native speakers of a particular language, relative to the same social constraints.

Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989:12).

The following example was cited in Chapter 2 and it is repeated below for ease of reference. In the CCSARP project the following utterance is identified as a request situation and analysed as follows:

1. [Judith, I missed class yesterday, do you think I could borrow your notes.]

The request sequence includes the three following parts:

1. alerters (the address term-“Judith”),
2. head acts (“could I borrow your notes),
3. external modifications (supportive moves) (“I missed class yesterday”).

(Blum-Kulka et. al. 1989:17).

Before starting the analysis of the data, we present a brief account of the terms named above:

1. **Alerters:** Alerters are used as attention-getters. Address terms such as nominal categories (Judith), appellations (Title+surname/Surname only etc.) and semantic variations (such as “darling”) are considered as alerters.

- 2. Head acts:** The head act is the part of the sequence which might serve to realize the act independently of other elements. Head acts vary on **strategy types**. The nine strategy types used in CCSARP are as follows:

Table 3. List of Strategy Types (Blum-Kulka. et. al. 1989: 18)

Strategy Type	Definition	Example
(1) Mood derivable	The grammatical mood of the verb signals illocutionary force. The prototypical form is the imperative.	"Leave me alone", "Clean up the mess".
(2) Performatives	Utterances in the illocutionary force are explicitly named by a relevant verb.	"I am asking you to clean up the mess".
(3) Hedged performatives	Utterances in which the naming of the illocutionary force is modified by hedging expressions.	"I would like to ask you to give your presentation a week earlier than scheduled".
(4) Obligation statements	Utterances which state the obligation of the hearer to carry out the act.	"You'll have to move that car".
(5) Want statements	Utterances which state the speaker's desire that the hearer carries out the act.	"I really wish you'd stop bothering me".
(6) Suggestory formulae	Utterances contain a suggestion to do the something.	"How about cleaning up?"
(7) Query preparatory	Utterances containing reference to preparatory conditions, such as ability, willingness, as conventionalized in any specific language.	"Could you clear up the kitchen, please?"; "Would you mind moving your car?"
(8) Strong hints	Utterances containing partial reference to object or element needed for the implementation of the act.	"You have left the kitchen in a right mess".
(9) Mild hints	Utterances that make no reference to the request but are interpretable as requests by context.	"Who is on duty today?"

Requests were analyzed first for the head act, which was coded as *direct strategies*, comprised of strategies 1 to 5; *conventionally indirect strategies*, comprised of

strategies 6 and 7; and *non-conventionally indirect strategies*, comprised of strategies 8 and 9.

3. External Modifications (Supportive moves): Requests are often accompanied with supportive moves, which serve to persuade the hearer to do something. They are defined as utterances that mitigate or aggravate the impositive force of a request either preceding or following the head act. In Blum-Kulka. et. al. (1989: 17) the following external modifications were defined: Preparator, Getting a Pre-commitment, Grounder, Disarmer, Promise of Reward and Imposition Minimizer. Basing on Blum-Kulka. et. al.'s (1989: 18) classification, Han (2005) provides a modified list of external modifications. In the present study, we also code the external modifications using Han's classification since it offers a detailed account of all external modification types present in our data. Table 4 below visualises the modified list of supportive moves by Han (2005: 72-73).

Table 4. List of External Modifications (Han, 2005: 72-3)

Strategies	Definition	Example
(1) Preparatory	The speaker prepares the hearer for the ensuing request by asking about the potential availability of the hearer or by asking for the hearer's permission to make the request.	<u>Do you have a minute to talk?</u> I have a trouble to finish my term paper."
(2) Getting a Pre-commitment	In checking on a potential refusal before making a request, a speaker tries to commit his hearer before telling himself.	" <u>Can I ask a favour?</u> While you are at Wawa in 10 minutes, can you buy a cup of coffee?"
(3) Grounder	The speaker gives reasons, explanations, or justifications for his request.	" <u>I missed the last class.</u> If you don't mind, can I borrow your notebook?"
(4) Disarmer	The speaker tries to remove any potential objections the hearer might raise.	<u>I know you are very busy this time of year.</u> But, I really need some data collection".
(5) Promise of Reward	A reward due on fulfilment of the request is offered.	Buy me some coffee, please! <u>I will do your laundry next week.</u> "
(6) Imposition Minimizer	The speaker tries to reduce the imposition placed on the hearer by his request.	" <u>When you're done with that book,</u> do you think that I can borrow it?"
(7) Acknowledgement of Imposition	The speaker acknowledges the imposition created by the request.	"Can I borrow your notebook? I was absent from last class. <u>I'm sorry to bother you</u> ".
(8) Concern	The speaker shows concern about the hearer's ability, willingness, or availability to carry out the request.	" <u>If you don't mind,</u> Would you fill out this form?"
(9) Appreciation	The speaker expresses his/her appreciation for the hearer's compliance with the request before it is performed.	" <u>I would really appreciate</u> if you allow me to have more time to complete my term project?"
(10) Promise of return	The speaker promises the hearer to return what he has borrowed from the hearer.	"I would like to make a photo copy and <u>I can bring it back to you right away</u> ".
(11) Self-introduction/ Greeting	The speaker introduces himself to the hearer or greets the hearer before he makes a request.	"Hi, Dr. Frank! My name is Younghee Kim".
(12) Asking the Hearer's opinion	The speaker asks the hearer's opinion about the possibility of the request's being fulfilled.	"What do you think?", "Is it OK?"
(13) Compliment/ Cojaler	The speaker compliments the requestee before a request is made.	"Light of my soul."
(14) Apology	The speaker expresses his apology before a request is made.	"I am sorry, Jane. But I forgot I have a dental appointment. Can we change our appointment?"

Based on the scheme established in the CCSARP, the head act of request was identified and coded according to the request strategy participants preferred: Direct Strategy (DS), Conventionally Indirect Strategy (CIS) and Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy (NCIS) (Blum-Kulka et. al., 1989) in the present study. The three main groups of request strategies were also divided into their sub-categories: Mood Derivable (MD), Performatives (P), Hedged Performatives (HP), Obligation Statements (OS), Want Statements (WS), Suggestory Formulae (SF), Query Preparatory (QP), Strong Hints (SH), Mild Hints (MH). As has been previously stated in section 3.1, missing responses and participants' responses that could not be coded as a particular request strategy type as they were both pragmalinguistically and sociopragmatically inappropriate were coded as incorrect and presented under the heading "missing" in the tables. Furthermore, the total number of external modifications used in each situation was also counted and coded using the modified list of external modifications by Han (2005: 72-73) as: Preparatory (P), Getting a Precommitment (GP), Grounder (G), Disarmer (D), Promise of Reward (PR), Imposition Minimizer (IM), Acknowledge of Imposition (AI), Concern (C), Appreciation (A), Promise of Return (PRn), Self Introduction/ Greeting (SI), Asking the Hearer's Opinion (AHO), Compliment/ Cojaler (Comp), Apology (APL). To ensure that the data were evaluated consistently, the researcher and a native speaker of English categorized strategies separately and compared the results. If a difference was found between the researcher and the native speaker, there was a discussion until an agreement was reached.

3. 6. 2. Eisenstein and Bodman's (1986) Rating Scale

Taking Thomas's (1983) distinction between pragmalinguistic failure (errors resulting from non-native speakers' knowing the correct thing to say, but not knowing how to say it correctly) and socio-pragmatic failure (errors resulting from non-native speakers' not knowing what to say or their not saying the appropriate utterance as a result of L1 transfer), we also coded our non-native participants' responses to each 12 situation using the rating scale developed by Eisenstein and Bodman (1986:172) in

order to group and compare the data. This rating scale includes the following categories:

- Not acceptable:* A violation of social norm- a likely instance of socio-pragmatic failure.
- Problematic:* An error that might cause misunderstanding, but of a less serious nature. Language so strange, unexpected, or garbled that interpretation is difficult. Instances of pragmalinguistic and/or socio-pragmatic failure.
- Acceptable:* Clear and appropriate language, but containing small errors which do not interfere seriously with native speakers' understanding.
- Native-like/perfect:* Close to native responses in content, syntax and lexicon.
- Not comprehensible:* An utterance that is extremely hard, if not impossible, to comprehend. Often an instance of pragmalinguistic failure.
- Resistant:* Non-native participants, although find it possible to answer some items, refuse to answer others or give reasons why they cannot or will not answer particular items.

In order to ensure that the data were evaluated consistently, an other researcher also took part in the rating procedure. One third of the whole data were given to the second researcher and rating was carried out through negotiations between the two researchers.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS and DISCUSSION

4. 1. Presentation of Results

In this chapter, the interpretation of results is presented. The chapter comprises of two parts. In the first part, it gives an account of the data describing the interlanguage request strategies of 8th grade Turkish EFL learners depending on the test type, the interlocutor's status and age, and the time spent in an English speaking country. As the request situations in the data collection instruments make use of three sorts of requester-requestee relations related to social power: (a) requester with more power than requestee (+ P); (b) requester and requestee with equal power (= P); and (c) requester with less power than requestee (- P), the results are discussed in three levels according to the three degrees of directness. Subsequently, request strategies, request strategy types, and external modifications used by 8th grade Turkish EFL learners are compared to those of English and Turkish native speakers at the same age. In the second part, pragmalinguistic analysis of request sequences is presented.

4. 1. 1. The Test Type and Preference of Request Strategies

All the data obtained from 488 8th grade private school students without any experience in an English speaking country (Group 1 participants) by means of the Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MCDCT) were coded according to Blum-Kulka et. al.'s (1989) classification of three main request strategies: Direct Strategy (DS), Conventionally Indirect Strategy (CIS) and Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy (NCIS). The coded data were statistically analysed using SPSS 13 version and quantified by employing frequency analysis and chi-square. Three participants were

excluded from the study because they chose inappropriate control items over 40% of their all responses. A total number of 485 participants took part in statistical analysis.

For the Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT), 322 participant responses to each 12 situation in the test were also coded according to the preferred request strategy: Direct Strategy (DS), Conventionally Indirect Strategy (CIS) and Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy (NCIS) (Blum-Kulka et. al., 1989). Missing responses and responses that could not be coded as a particular request strategy as they were both pragmalinguistically and sociopragmatically inappropriate were coded as incorrect and shown under the heading “Missing” (M) in the Tables and Figures.

As shown in the following table, the total number of 9684 request sequences was coded in Group 1 participants’ data. The total number of request sequences for the MCDCT was 5820 and, 3864 for the WDCT. The results were converted to percentages and represented by rounded-off figures. The overall distribution of interlanguage request strategies of Group 1 participants in both tests is shown in Table 5 below:

Table 5. Overall Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 Participants

Test Type		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing (M)	TOTAL
MCDCT	n	1247	4043	365	165	5820
	%	21	70	6	3	100
WDCT	n	282	3260	13	309	3864
	%	7	84	1	8	100
TOTAL	n	1529	7303	378	474	9684
	%	16	75	4	5	100

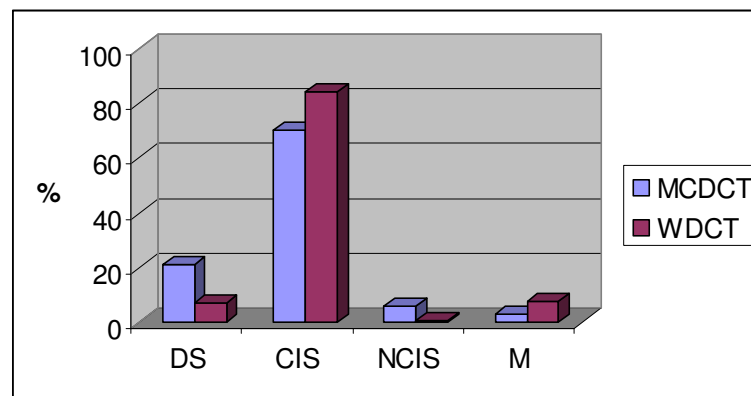
DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

According to results, the most commonly used request strategy of Group 1 participants in all 12 request situations in both tests was conventionally indirect strategy. The

percentage distribution of three main request strategies and missing responses for Group 1 participants in the MCDCT was as follows: 70% of the participants used conventionally indirect strategies, 21%, direct strategies, 6%, non-conventionally indirect strategies. The rest 3% of the data were coded as missing. In the WDCT, however, the use of conventionally indirect strategies increased to 84%, the use of direct strategies was 7%, and the use of non-conventionally indirect strategies was limited with only the 1% of the data. Like conventionally indirect strategy use, the percentage of missing responses also increased (8%) in the MCDCT.

Figure 1 below shows the percentage distribution of request strategies of Group 1 participants in the MCDCT and WDCT.

Figure 1. Overall Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 Participants



The results revealed that in the responses of Group 1 participants in both tests, there was a marked preference for conventional indirectness, as will be explained in section 4. 2. Besides, both Group 1 and Group 2 participants used a higher percentage of direct strategies when they were presented different request strategy options in MCDCTs; however, they used more conventionally indirect strategies in WDCTs. Such a difference emphasised that test type had an influence in the distribution of request strategies. Furthermore, chi-square tests were employed in order to determine whether there were significant differences in participants' responses in multiple choice and

written discourse completion tests. Chi-square results also confirmed the overall results. Except for situation 2, there were statistically significant differences in participants' responses in the two tests types as will be explained in section 4.2. for each situation.

It was found that in the written discourse completion tests, 8th grade Turkish EFL learners relied on formulaic utterances such as “*Can I ?*”, “*May I ?*”, “*Could you ...?*”, to which they have been exposed many times in their English classes and textbooks. In the multiple choice discourse completion tests, however, they preferred direct strategies more presumably as a result of pragmatic transfer from their L1, Turkish. A number of studies also support this finding (Blum-Kulka and Ohshtain, 1984; Eisenstein and Bodman, 1993; Doğançay-Aktuna and Kamışlı, 1997; Otçu and Zeyrek, 2008). Although the participants used non-conventionally indirect strategies more often when compared to the written discourse completion tests, the percentage of non-conventionally indirect strategies was still very limited.

4. 1. 2. The Interlocutor's Status and Age and Preference of Request Strategies

The following section presents an analysis of the results in each of the 12 request situations. As the request situations in the data collection instruments made use of status and age in terms of three sorts of requester-requestee relations, the request situations were analysed in three levels:

- (1) requester with more power than requestee (+ P)
- (2) requester and requestee with equal power (= P)
- (3) requester with less power than requestee (-P)

Situation 4 and Situation 8 are (+ P) situations; Situation 1, Situation 3, and Situation 10 are (= P); and Situation 2, Situation 5, Situation 6, Situation 7, Situation 9, Situation 11 and Situation 12 are (- P) situations.

The analysis begins with the total distribution of head acts both in multiple choice and written discourse completion tests according to the three degrees of directness: Direct, Conventionally Indirect and Non-Conventionally Indirect. (For the overall distribution of request strategies of Group 1 participants in the three directness levels see Tables 1 and 2 in Appendix F and Figure 1 in Appendix G).

In order to determine the effect of the interlocutor's status and age on the preference of request strategies, the distribution of request strategies was also analysed in the three directness levels. The analysis of the data revealed that in all three sorts of requester-requestee relations: (+ P), (= P), (- P), 8th grade Turkish EFL learners, both in the multiple choice and written discourse completion tests, preferred conventionally indirect strategies, which were followed by relatively little use of direct and very little use of non-conventionally indirect strategies.

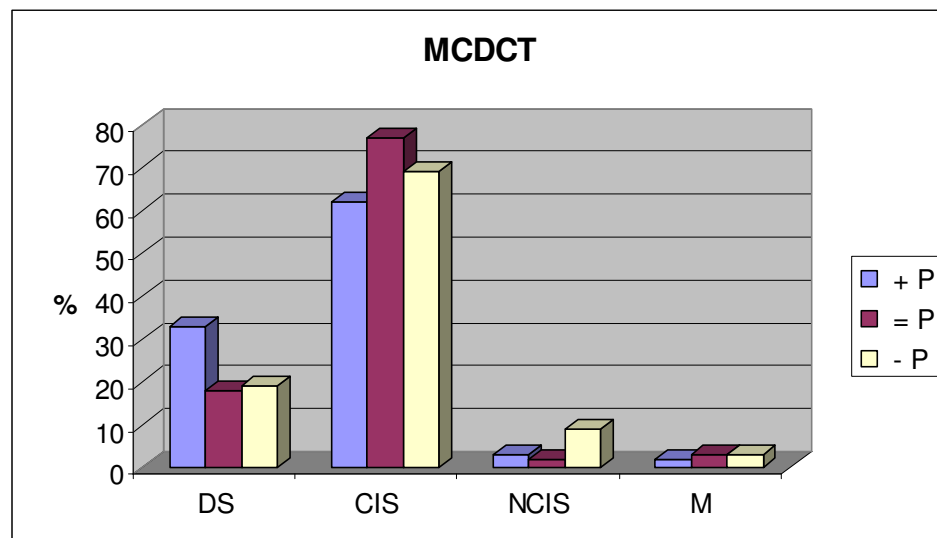
Table 6 and Figure 2 below illustrate the distribution of request strategies of Group 1 participants in MCDCTs in the three directness levels, and Table 7 and Figure 3, in WDCTs.

Table 6. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 Participants in MCDCTs in the Three Directness Levels

Directness Level		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing (M)	TOTAL
(+ P)	n	319	598	29	24	970
	%	33	62	3	2	100
(= P)	n	271	1115	27	42	1455
	%	18	77	2	3	100
(- P)	n	657	2330	309	99	3395
	%	19	69	9	3	100
TOTAL	n	1247	4043	365	165	5820
	%	21	70	6	3	100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Figure 2. Percentage Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 Participants in MCDCTs in the Three Directness Levels



A total number of 5820 request strategies was coded in the MCDCTs of Group 1 participants. 70% of these strategies were conventionally indirect, 21%, direct and 6% were non-conventionally indirect. The distribution of the request strategies was also discussed in the three directness level as explained below.

According to the results, 970 of these request strategies were in the (+ P) directness level. Of these 970 request strategies, 62% were conventionally indirect, 33%, direct, and 3% were non-conventionally indirect. In the (= P) directness level, to a total number of 1455 request strategies were coded. When compared to the (+ P) directness level, there was an increase in the use of conventionally indirect strategies (77%) and the use of direct strategies decreased to 18% probably as a result of participants' desire to use positive politeness strategies. The use of non-conventionally indirect strategies was still limited with the 3% of the request strategies. In the (- P) directness level, 69% of the participants preferred conventionally indirect strategies, 19% direct strategies and 9% non-conventionally indirect strategies. When compared to the other two directness levels, the use of non-conventionally indirect strategies increased in the (- P) directness level presumably as a result of participants' preferring negative politeness strategies.

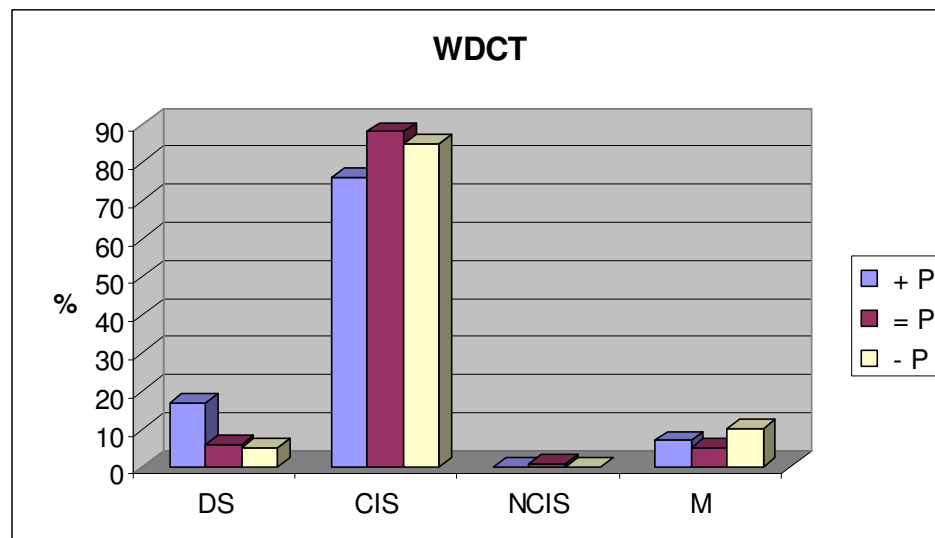
Group 1 participants' request utterances in the WDCTs were also coded for the three request strategies and visualised in the table and figure. Table 7 and Figure 3 below show the distribution of request strategies of Group 1 participants in WDCTs in the three directness levels.

Table 7. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 Participants in WDCTs in the Three Directness Levels

Directness		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing (M)	TOTAL
(+ P)	n	110	490		44	644
	%	17	76		7	100
(= P)	n	59	853	5	49	966
	%	6	88	1	5	100
(- P)	n	113	1917	8	216	2254
	%	5	85	-	10	100
TOTAL	n	282	3260	13	309	3864
	%	7	84	1	8	100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Figure 3. Percentage Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 Participants in WDCTs in the Three Directness Levels



A total number of 3864 request strategies was coded in the WDCTs of Group 1 participants. 84% of these strategies were conventionally indirect, 7%, direct and 1%, non-conventionally indirect. When compared to the percentages in the MCDCTs, it was evident that Group 1 participants used more conventionally indirect and less direct strategies in their request utterances in the WDCTs. The distribution of the request strategies was also discussed in the three directness level as explained below.

According to the results, 644 of these request strategies were in the (+ P) directness level. Of these 644 request strategies, 76% were conventionally indirect, 17%, direct, and non-conventionally indirect strategies were not used at all. In the (= P) directness level, to a total number of 966 request strategies were coded. When compared to the (+ P) directness level, there was an increase in the use of conventionally indirect strategies (88%) and the use of direct strategies decreased to 6% probably as a result of participants' desire to use positive politeness strategies. The use of non-conventionally indirect strategies was limited with the 1% of the request strategies. In the (- P) directness level, 84% of the participants preferred conventionally indirect strategies, 7% direct strategies and non-conventionally indirect strategies were not used at all. When compared to the other two directness levels, the use of direct strategies decreased in the (- P) directness level presumably as a result of participants' preferring negative politeness strategies.

The results revealed that, in both tests, distribution of request strategies in the three directness levels was quite similar. The highest percentage of direct strategy use in both tests was among the (+ P) situations and it was followed by (= P) and (- P) situations. Likewise, conventionally indirect strategies were used most in (= P) situations and it was followed by (- P) and (+ P) situations. The use of non-conventionally indirect strategies was very limited in all three directness levels. In terms of the interlocutor's status and age and the preference of request strategies, the distribution of direct strategies indicated that there was little evidence of sensitivity to situational variation.

4. 1. 3. The Time Spent in an English Speaking Country and Preference of Request Strategies

In order to analyse the data obtained from Group 2 participants, the responses of 36 8th grade private school students who spent three weeks to three months in an English speaking country (Group 2 participants) in the Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MCDCT) were coded by means of Blum-Kulka et. al.'s (1989) classification of three main request strategies: Direct Strategy (DS), Conventionally Indirect Strategy (CIS) and Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy (NCIS). The coded data were statistically analysed using SPSS 13 version and quantified by employing frequency analysis and chi-square. (For the overall distribution of request strategies of Group 2 participants in all three directness levels see Tables 3 and 4 in Appendix F and Figure 2 in Appendix G).

For the Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT), 34 participant responses to each 12 situation in the test were coded according to the request strategy participants used: Direct strategy (DS), Conventionally Indirect Strategy (CIS) and Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy (NCIS) (Blum-Kulka et. al., 1989). Missing responses and participants' responses that could not be coded as a particular request strategy as they were both pragmalinguistically and sociopragmatically inappropriate were coded as incorrect and shown under the heading "Missing" (M) in the tables and figures.

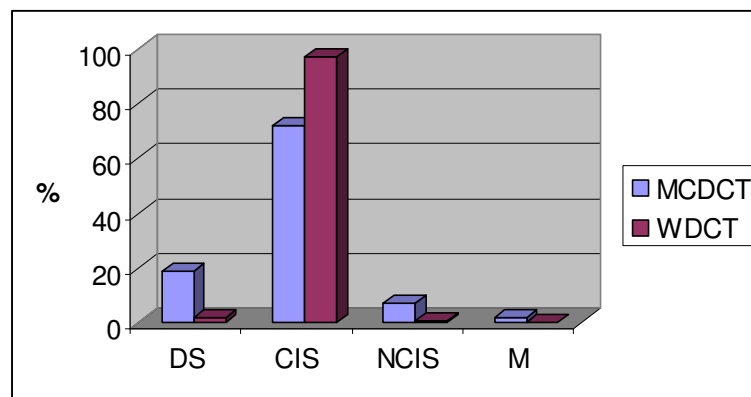
As illustrated in the following table, a total number of 840 request sequences was coded in Group 2 participants' data. The total number of request sequences for the MCDCT was 432 and, 408 for the WDCT. The results were converted to percentages and represented in rounded-off figures. The overall distribution of request strategies of Group 2 participants in both tests is shown in Table 8 and Figure 4 below:

Table 8. Overall Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 2 Participants

Test Type		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing (M)	TOTAL
MCDCT	n	83	310	32	7	432
	%	19	72	7	2	100
WDCT	n	8	397	2	1	408
	%	2	97	1	-	100
TOTAL	n	91	707	34	8	840
	%	11	84	4	1	100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

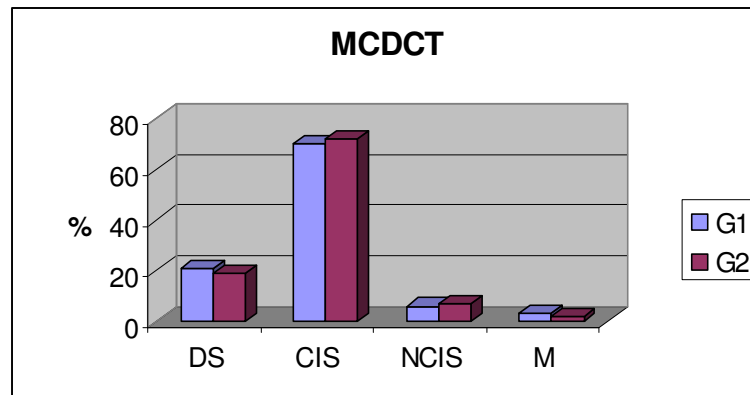
Figure 4. Overall Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 2 Participants



According to the results, the most commonly used request strategy of Group 2 participants in all 12 request situations was conventionally indirect strategy. The percentage distribution of the three main strategies and missing responses for Group 2 participants in the MCDCT was as follows: 72% of the participants used conventionally indirect strategies, 19%, direct strategies, 7%, non-conventionally indirect strategies and the rest 2% of the data were considered as missing. In the WDCT, however, the use of conventionally indirect strategies reached 97%, and the use of direct strategies was 2%, the use of non-conventionally indirect strategies was 1% and there was only a single missing response in the data.

As in Group 2 participants, conventional indirectness was the most common request strategy for Group 1 participants as explained above. In the distribution of request strategies both groups had similar percentages in the multiple choice test as shown in Figure 5 below:

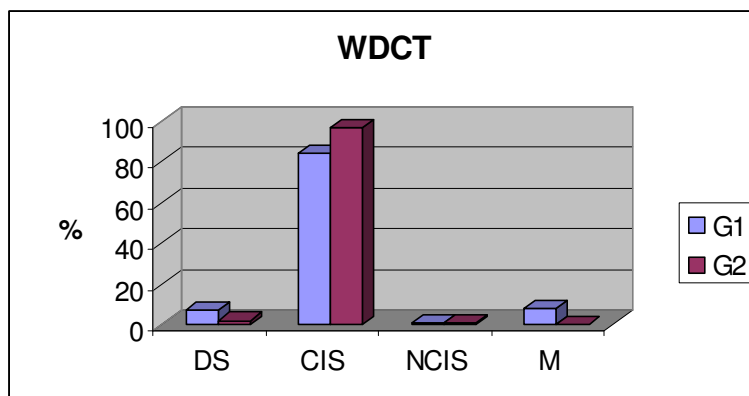
Figure 5. Percentage Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 and Group 2



Besides, both Group 1 and Group 2 participants had a tendency to use a higher percentage of direct strategies when they were presented different request strategy options in the MCDCT, however, they used more conventionally indirect strategies in the WDCT as also explained in section 4. 1. 1.

Figure 6 below illustrates the percentage distribution of request strategies of Group 1 and Group 2 participants in the WDCT.

Figure 6. Percentage Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 and Group 2



In the written discourse completion test, the two groups differed significantly. Group 2 participants employed more conventionally indirect strategies and less direct strategies when compared to those of Group 1 participants as will be explained in more detail in section 4. 2. In other words, the request strategies used by learners with experience in an English speaking country seemed closer to those of English native speakers. Such a finding suggested that experience in an English speaking country might positively affect one's pragmatic performance as also stated by other researchers such as Röver, 1996; House, 1996; and Schauer, 2004. It is claimed that foreign language learners who even spend only 6 weeks or less abroad demonstrate a much superior knowledge of L2 pragmatics. Experience in an English speaking country enables non-native speakers to get exposed to some naturalistic input. Consequently, besides the formulaic utterances they have been exposed to in their English classes and textbooks in foreign language settings, learners acquire language for real communication.

4. 2. Comparison of L2 Data to English and Turkish Baseline Data

In the following part, request strategies, request strategy types and external modifications used by 8th grade Turkish EFL learners are compared to those of Turkish

EFL learners with experience in an English speaking country and English and Turkish native speakers at the same age.

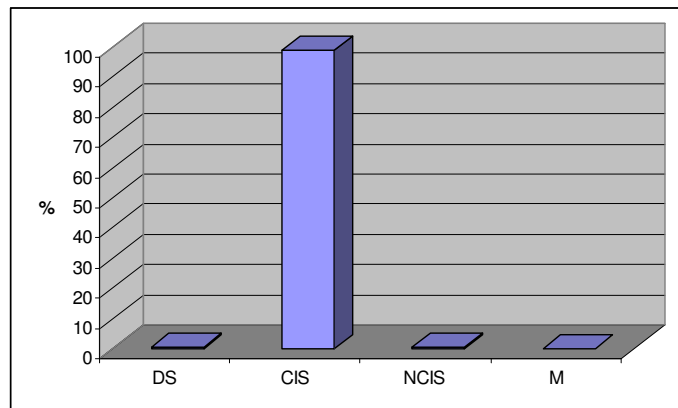
4. 2. 1. Request Strategies

Besides the data obtained from 8th grade Turkish EFL learners, we also collected some English and Turkish baseline data by means of the written discourse completion tests.

English Baseline Data

The English baseline data obtained from 20 native speaker children at the same age through the Written Discourse Completion Test were coded according to the preferred request strategy: Direct strategy (DS), Conventionally-indirect Strategy (CIS) and Non-conventionally Indirect Strategy (NCIS) (Blum-Kulka et. al., 1989). The total number of 240 request sequences was coded in the English baseline data. The results were converted to percentages and represented in rounded-off figures. Figure 7 below shows the percentage distribution of request strategies of English Control Group. (For the overall distribution of request strategies of English Control Group in all three directness levels see Table 5 in Appendix F).

Figure 7. Overall Distribution of Request Strategies of English Control Group



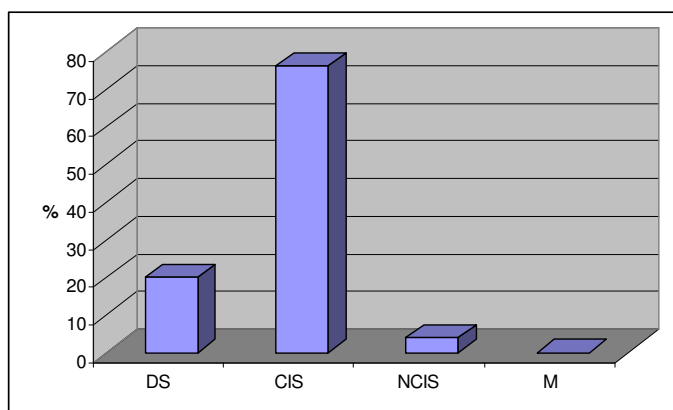
The analysis of the English baseline data revealed that like in Group 1 and Group 2, conventionally indirect strategies (99 %) constituted the most frequently used request strategy in the English baseline data. With regard to the use of conventional indirectness, Group 2 participants seemed to indicate a slightly closer production (97 %) to the native speaker norm when compared to those of Group 1 participants (84 %). Such a difference in two groups of 8th grade Turkish EFL learners' production of request utterances emphasised the fact that experience abroad was particularly helpful for foreign language learners as explained in the previous section.

Turkish Baseline Data

Just as we analysed the data gathered from Written Discourse Completion of 8th grade participants' in English, and English native speaker children, 48 Turkish 8th grade private primary school participants' responses to each situation in the L1 (Turkish) Written Discourse Completion Test were coded according to the request strategy they preferred: Direct strategy (DS), Conventionally-indirect Strategy (CIS) and Non-conventionally Indirect Strategy (NCIS) (Blum-Kulka et. al., 1989).

A total number of 576 request sequences was coded in the Turkish baseline data. The results were converted to percentages and represented in rounded-off figures. Figure 8 below illustrates the overall distribution of request strategies of Turkish Control Group. (For the overall distribution of request strategies of Turkish Control Group in all three directness levels see Table 6 in Appendix F).

Figure 8. Overall Distribution of Request Strategies of Turkish Control Group



The analyses of the data revealed that like Turkish EFL learners and English native speakers, Turkish native speakers had a clear preference for conventionally indirect strategies (76 %) in their request utterances in Turkish. In their L1, Turkish native speakers used direct strategies more (20 %) when compared to those used by English native speakers in their L1 and Turkish EFL learners in their L2. This finding was also in line with Martı (2006), who found that Turkish speakers adopted quite direct strategies in their request utterances in Turkish. It was observed that when smaller the social distance between the interlocutors, in their L1, Turkish speakers used direct strategies more presumably to emphasise “closeness” and “familiarity” as will be discussed in 4.2.2.2.

Even though the use of “alerters” and mitigating device “please” were not taken in the scope of the present study, the researcher found out that their use might offer some important remarks about request utterances. Thus, some preliminary analyses were conducted in order to present the data well. The data revealed that Turkish speakers had a clear preference for alerters (54%) when compared to English native speakers (15%). In their L2; however, Turkish EFL learners tended to use alerters (3%) even less than English native speakers. In their requests in Turkish, Turkish speakers did not use “please” often (6%). In the data collected from English native speakers; however,

“please” was used quite frequently (73%). As previously stated by other researchers such as Bayraktaroğlu and Sifianou (2001) and Zeyrek (2001) that could be attributed to the collectivist nature of Turkish culture. For this reason, Turkish native speakers prefer using other external modifications such as imposition minimizers rather than politeness marker “please” in their request utterances. In their L2; however, Turkish EFL learners used “please” more often (20%). Furthermore, probably as a result of their experience in an English speaking country, Turkish EFL learners who spent some time in the target language environment used “please” more often (31%), which once again emphasised the positive effect of experience in an English speaking country as also discussed in section 4.1.3.

4. 2. 1. 1. Request Strategies: (+ P)

In Situation 4 and Situation 8, the requester has more power than requestee. In the fourth situation, Yiğit is at Mc Donald’s and he is asking the waiter for a hamburger and a coke, thus from a stranger presumably with lower social status. In this situation, the participants are expected to use either positive or negative politeness strategies. In the eighth situation, Yiğit asks Janet (John’s younger sister) to play with her computer game, thus from a very young child with lower social status. In this situation, participants are expected to use positive or negative politeness strategies.

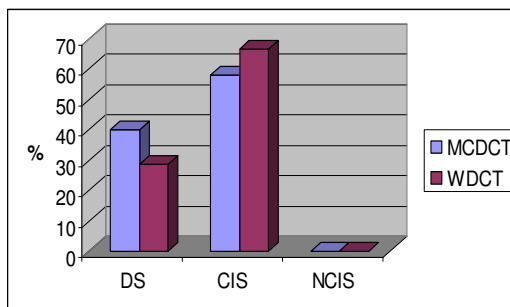
The analysis revealed that in these request situations, both in Multiple Choice and Written Discourse Completion Tests, participants in all four groups (Group 1, Group 2, English Control Group, and Turkish Control Group) preferred conventionally indirect request strategies the most, which were followed by relatively little use of direct and non-conventionally indirect request strategies. (For the distribution of request strategies of Group 1 and Group 2 participants both in Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MCDCT) and Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT) in Situation 4 see Table 7 and Table 8 in Appendix F).

Further statistical analyses were carried out in order to determine whether there were statistically significant differences with regard to the way Group 1 and Group 2 participants comprehended the request utterances in the multiple choice discourse completion test and the way they produced their own requests in the written discourse completion test both in Situation 4 and Situation 8. In order to determine whether there were significant differences in the comprehension and production test, chi-square tests were employed. As there were no non-conventionally indirect strategies and the percentages of missing responses were very limited in the data, they were not taken into consideration. For this reason, both Group 1 and Group 2 participants' responses to the two tests were analysed in terms of the use of two request strategies: Conventionally Indirect and Direct Strategies. Chi-square results also confirmed the overall results. The results of the chi-square tests revealed that both in Situation 4 (asking for a meal at a fast food restaurant), and Situation 8 (asking Jane to let him play with her computer game) there were statistically significant differences in participants' use of conventionally indirect and direct strategies in the two tests: multiple choice discourse completion test and written discourse completion test. While participants had a tendency to use a higher percentage of direct strategies when they were presented different request strategy options in MCDCTs, they invariably used conventionally indirect strategies in WDCTs (For χ^2 values see Figures 9, 10, 13, and 14 below and for chi-square tests see Appendix H).

In the following part, the distribution of request strategies of Group 1, Group 2, English and Turkish Control Groups were explained. Below, the percentage distribution of request strategies of all four groups of participants in Situation 4 will be discussed (See Figures 9-12).

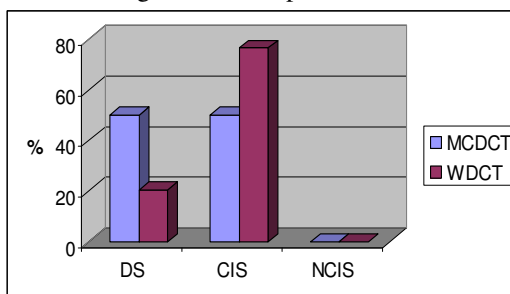
Percentage Distribution of Request Strategies in Situation 4

Figure 9. Group 1



$$\chi^2(1)=9,45, p<.05$$

Figure 10. Group 2



$$\chi^2(1)=6,17, p<.05$$

Figure 11. English Control Group

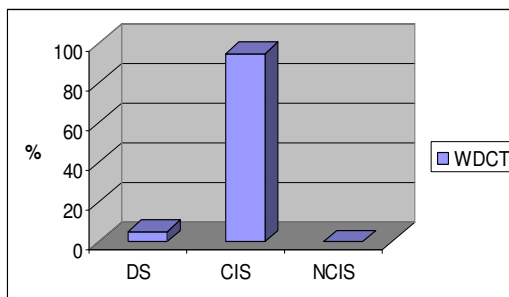
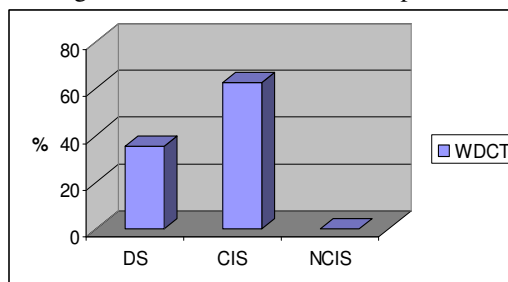


Figure 12. Turkish Control Group



As shown in Figure 9, in Situation 4, when ordering a meal at a fast food restaurant, among the two direct and two conventionally indirect request strategies 58% of Group 1 participants chose conventionally indirect strategies and the other 40%, direct strategies in the multiple choice test. In the written discourse completion test the use of conventionally indirect strategies was 67% and direct strategy use, 29%. As illustrated in Figure 10, in the same situation, quite interestingly 50% of Group 2 participants chose conventionally indirect strategies and the other 50%, direct strategies in the multiple choice test. In the written discourse completion test the use of conventionally indirect strategies was 76% and direct strategy use, 21%.

As shown in Figure 11, the data gathered from English Control group revealed that, except a single participant using a direct strategy, all English native speakers (95%) preferred using conventionally indirect strategies in Situation 4 when ordering a meal at a fast food restaurant.

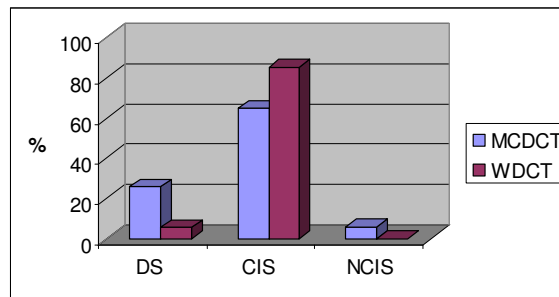
The request strategies of participants from Turkish Control Group were quite similar to those of Group 1 participants in Situation 4 as illustrated in Figure 12. While over 30% of Turkish native speakers preferred using Direct Strategies in Situation 4, the majority of them used conventionally indirect strategies (over 60%). The percentages emphasized that as they did in their L2, 8th grade Turkish EFL learners used direct strategies more in their L1 (Turkish) than English native speakers when requesting something from requestees with less power than themselves.

Even though the use of direct strategies could have been offending in request situations, the use of request strategies in the fourth situation would not be considered as too impolite presumably because of the context the situation took place- a fast food restaurant. In such contexts, customers are expected to order their meal fast and waiters are responsible to carry out the act as quickly as possible. Otçu (2000:43) further argued that the use of direct strategies in such a situation would not sound too impolite due to the precision, thus effectiveness of their linguistic structure.

Below, the request strategies of four groups of participants in Situation 8 will be discussed. (For the distribution of request strategies of Group 1 and Group 2 participants both in the Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MCDCT) and Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT) in Situation 8 see Tables 9 and 10 in Appendix F). The percentage distribution of request strategies of all four groups of participants in Situation 8 is as follows (See Figures 13-16):

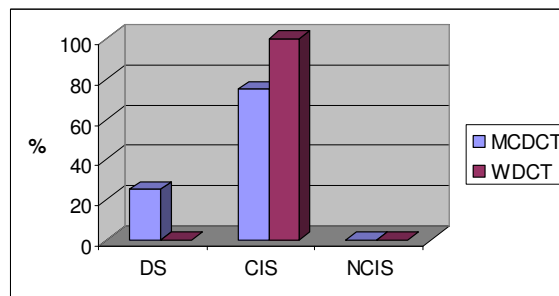
Percentage Distribution of Request Strategies in Situation 8

Figure 13. Group 1



$$\chi^2 (1)=54,90, p<.05$$

Figure 14. Group 2



$$\chi^2 (1)=9,75, p<.05$$

Figure 15. English Control Group

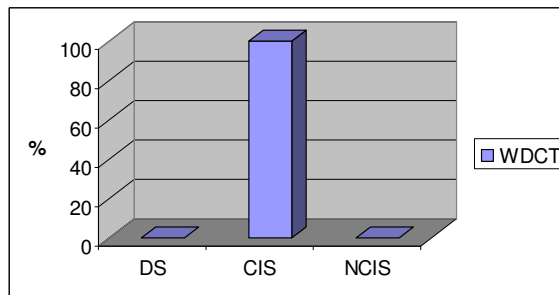
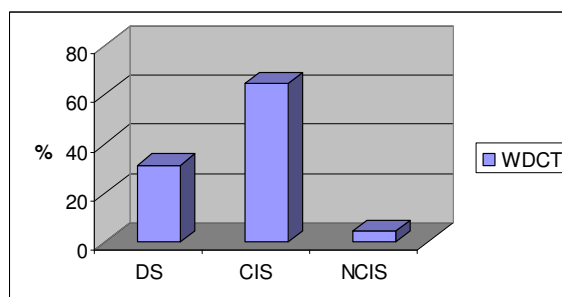


Figure 16. Turkish Control Group



As presented in Figure 13, in Situation 8, when Yiğit is asking Jane to let him play with her computer game, among the two direct, a conventionally indirect and a non-conventionally indirect strategy, 65% of Group 1 participants preferred using conventionally indirect strategies, 26%, direct strategies and 7%, non-conventionally indirect strategies in the MCDCT. In the WDCT, however, the use of conventionally indirect strategies rose up to 85%. The direct strategy use in the WDCT was limited with the 6 % of the participants and none of the participants used non-conventionally indirect strategies. When we compare the two (+ P) situations, it is evident that Group 1 participants used more conventionally indirect and less direct strategies in Situation 8 when compared to the percentages in Situation 4.

As shown in Figure 14, in Situation 8, 75% of Group 2 participants preferred conventionally indirect strategies, and 25%, direct strategies in the MCDCT. In written discourse completion test, however, all 34 participants (100%) in Group 2 preferred using conventionally indirect strategies.

Similarly, all English native speakers preferred conventionally indirect strategies in the same situation as illustrated in Figure 15 above. The percentage distribution of request strategies of the L2 data and the baseline data revealed that when requesting something from less powerful requestees, English native speakers used more conventionally indirect strategies than both Group 1 and Group 2 participants.

As shown in Figure 16 above, the request strategies of participants from Turkish Control Group were quite similar to those of Group 1 participants in Situation 8. While over 30% of Turkish native speakers preferred using direct strategies in Situation 8, the majority of them used conventionally indirect strategies (over 60%). The percentages emphasized that as they did in their L2, 8th grade Turkish EFL learners used direct strategies more in their L1 (Turkish) than English native speakers when requesting something from less powerful requestees.

Even though in both situations (Situation 4 and Situation 8) the requester had more power than requestees, the two situations took place in two different settings. It might be possible that the fourth situation's taking place at a fast food restaurant context urged Turkish EFL learners to use more direct strategies when compared to ones in Situation 8. Besides, in Situation 8, Yiğit is asking for a computer game and for children at that age computer games have a great value. It is probable that for this reason participants prefer more indirect request strategies in Situation 8.

4. 2. 1. 2. Request Strategies (= P)

In Situations 1, 3 and 10, both the requester and requestee have equal power. In the following situations, Yiğit is requesting something either from John or one of his classmates. In the first situation, Yiğit asks to borrow his classmate's notebook. In the third one, Yiğit asks his classmate to help him with his homework and in the tenth situation, Yiğit asks John to borrow his bicycle. As Yiğit is to ask things from somebody with equal status, the participants are expected to use positive politeness strategies.

In these request situations, both in Multiple Choice and Written Discourse Completion Tests, participants in all four groups (Group 1, Group 2, English Control Group, and Turkish Control Group) preferred conventionally indirect request strategies the most, which were followed by relatively little use of direct and non-conventionally indirect request strategies as in (+ P) situations.

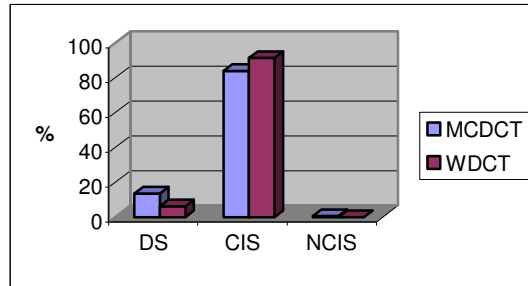
Further statistical analyses were carried out in order to determine whether there were statistically significant differences with regard to the way Group 1 and Group 2 participants comprehended the request utterances in the MCDCTs and the way they produced their own requests in the WDCTs. In order to determine whether there were significant differences in the comprehension and production data, chi-square tests were employed. Chi-square results also confirmed the overall results. The results of the chi-

square tests revealed that in all three situations there were statistically significant differences in Group 1 participants' use of conventionally indirect and direct strategies in the two tests: multiple choice discourse completion test and written discourse completion test. For Group 2, however, the results of the chi-square tests revealed that in neither of the three (= P) situations, there found statistically significant differences between the two test types. This finding emphasised that unlike Group 1 participants, Group 2 participants preferred using conventionally indirect strategies in both comprehension and production tests. Such a change in the pragmatic performance of Group 2 participants might perhaps be attributed to the positive effect of experience in an English speaking country as discussed in section 4.1.3. In this respect, Group 2 participants are quite like native English speakers and like native speakers, they rely on conventionally indirect strategies (For χ^2 values see Figures 17, 18, 21, 22, 25 and 26 below and for chi-square tests see Appendix H).

In the following part, the distribution of request strategies of Group 1, Group 2, English and Turkish Control Groups in Situation 1 was explained (see Figures 17-20 below and for the distribution of request strategies of Group 1 and Group 2 participants both in the Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MCDCT) and Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT) in Situation 1 see Table 11 and Table 12 in Appendix F).

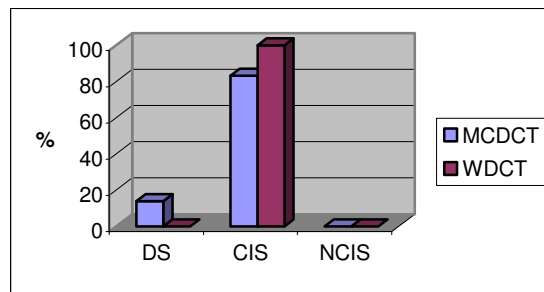
Percentage Distribution of Request Strategies in Situation 1

Figure 17. Group 1



$$\chi^2(1)=11,15, p<.05$$

Figure 18. Group 2



$$\chi^2(1)=5,24, p<.05$$

Figure 19. English Control Group

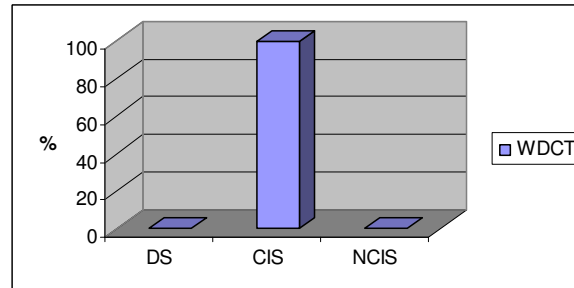
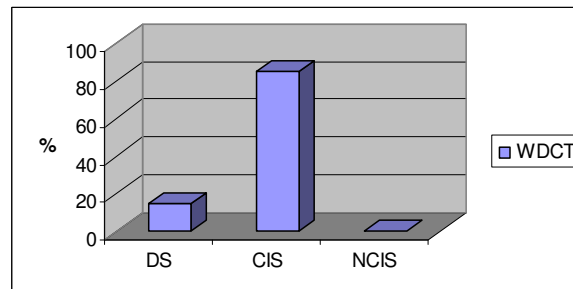


Figure 20. Turkish Control Group



As shown in Figure 17, in Situation 1, when asking to borrow a classmate's notebook, among the two direct, a conventionally indirect, and a non-conventionally indirect request strategies 14% of Group 1 participants chose direct strategies and 84%, conventionally indirect strategies in the multiple choice test. In the written discourse completion test the use of conventionally indirect strategies was 91% and direct strategy use decreased to 6% and non-conventionally indirect strategies were not used at all. In the same situation, like Group 1 participants, 14% of Group 2 participants chose direct strategies and 84%, conventionally indirect strategies in the multiple choice test as illustrated in Figure 18 above. In the written discourse completion test the use of conventionally indirect request strategies was 100%.

As presented in Figure 19 above, the data gathered from English Control group revealed that, except a single participant using a direct strategy in Situation 1, all English native speakers preferred using conventionally indirect strategies in Situation 1. The percentage distribution of the request strategies of the L2 data and the baseline data revealed that when requesting something from requestees with equal power, English native speakers used more conventionally indirect strategies than both Group 1 and Group 2 participants.

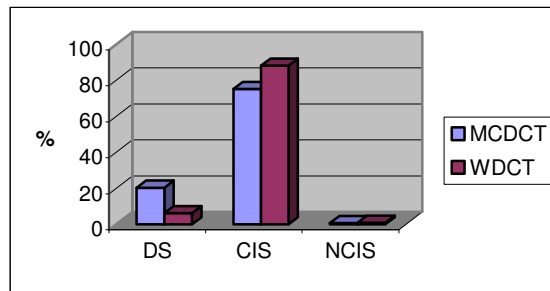
In Situation 1, 85% of the participants in Turkish Control Group used conventionally indirect strategies, the rest 15% of the participants preferred direct strategies as shown in Figure 20 above. The percentages once again emphasized that in their L1, Turkish native speakers used direct strategies more than English native speakers when requesting something from requestees with equal power.

Like Situation 1, Situation 3 takes place between Yiğit and one of his classmates. This time Yiğit is asking his classmate to help him with his homework. Below, the request strategies of four groups of participants in Situation 3 will be discussed. (For the distribution of request strategies of Group 1 and Group 2 participants both in the Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MCDCT) and Written Discourse

Completion Test (WDCT) in Situation 3 see Tables 13 and 14 in Appendix F). The percentage distribution of request strategies of all four groups of participants in Situation 3 is as follows (See Figures 21-24):

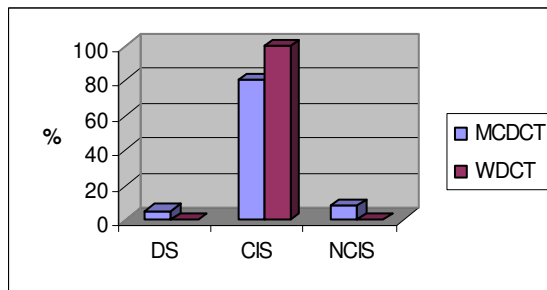
Percentage Distribution of Request Strategies in Situation 3

Figure 21. Group 1



$$\chi^2(1)=30,55, p<.05$$

Figure 22. Group 2



$$\chi^2(1)=2,26, p<.05$$

Figure 23. English Control Group

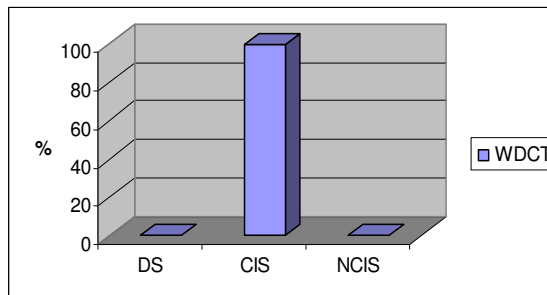
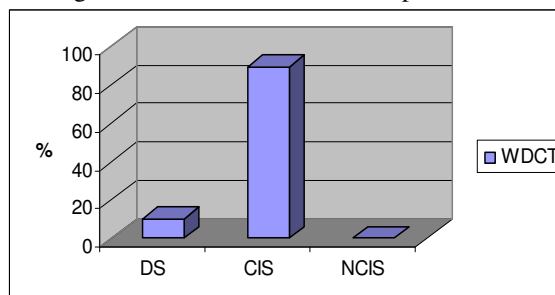


Figure 24. Turkish Control Group



As shown in Figure 21 above, in Situation 3, when Yiğit is asking his classmate to help him with his homework, 75% of Group 1 participants preferred conventionally indirect strategies, and 20%, direct strategies in the multiple choice discourse completion test. In the written discourse completion test, however, the use of conventionally indirect strategies was 88% and the direct strategy use was limited with the 6% of the participants and only three participants used non-conventionally indirect strategies.

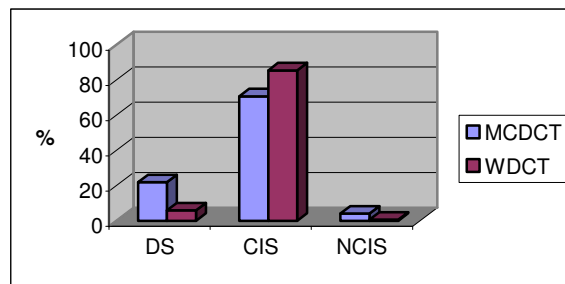
In the same situation, 81% of Group 2 participants preferred conventionally indirect strategies, 6%, direct strategies, and 8% non-conventionally indirect strategies in the multiple choice discourse completion test as illustrated in Figure 22 above. In the written discourse completion test, however, the use of conventionally indirect strategies was 100%. As presented in Figure 23, the data obtained from English Control group revealed that, like Group 2 participants, all English native speakers preferred using conventionally indirect strategies in this situation. The percentage distribution of the request strategies of the L2 data and the baseline data revealed that when requesting something from requestees with equal power, English native speakers used more conventionally indirect strategies than Group 1 participants.

In Situation 3, 90% of Turkish native speakers preferred using conventionally indirect strategies and the rest 10% of the participants used direct strategies as shown in Figure 24 above. The percentages emphasized that like it was in the first situation, Turkish native speakers used direct strategies more than English native speakers in (= P) situations.

Below, the request strategies of four groups of participants in Situation 10 will be discussed. (For the distribution of request strategies of Group 1 and Group 2 participants both in the Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MCDCT) and Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT) in Situation 3 see Tables 15 and 16 in Appendix F). The percentage distribution of request strategies of all four groups of participants in Situation 10 is as follows (See Figures 25-28):

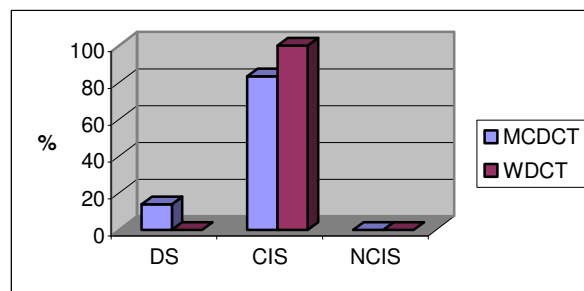
Percentage Distribution of Request Strategies in Situation 10

Figure 25. Group 1



$$\chi^2(1)=37,32, p<.05$$

Figure 26. Group 2



$$\chi^2(1)=5,24, p<.05$$

Figure 27. English Control Group

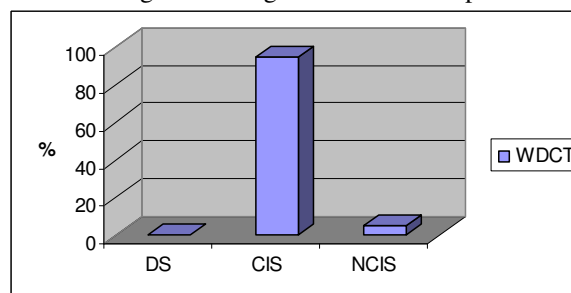
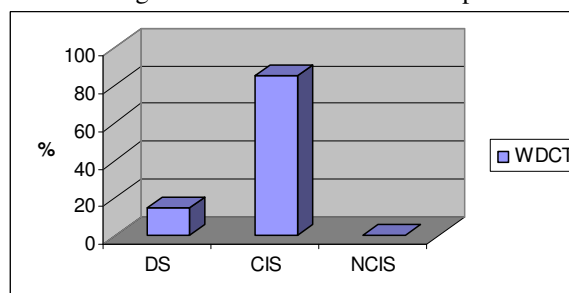


Figure 28. Turkish Control Group



As illustrated in Figure 25 above, in the tenth situation, when Yiğit is asking John to borrow his bicycle, among the two direct, a conventionally indirect and a non-conventionally indirect strategies, 71% of Group 1 participants preferred conventionally indirect strategies, 22%, direct strategies and 4%, non-conventionally indirect strategies in the multiple choice discourse completion test. In the written discourse completion test, however, the use of conventionally indirect strategies was 85%. The direct strategy use was limited with only the 6% of the participants and only a single participant used a non-conventionally indirect strategy.

In the same situation, 83% of Group 2 participants preferred conventionally indirect strategies, 14%, direct strategies in the multiple choice discourse completion test. In the written discourse completion test, the use of conventionally indirect strategies was 100% as shown in Figure 26 above. Likewise, the data gathered from English Control group revealed that, except a single participant using a non-conventionally indirect strategy in Situation 10, all English native speakers preferred using conventionally indirect strategies in this situation as illustrated in Figure 27. As revealed in all three situations in (= P) level, when requesting something from requestees with equal power, English native speakers used more conventionally indirect strategies than both Group 1 and Group 2 participants. Furthermore, Group 2 participants' use of conventionally indirect strategies was higher than Group 1 participants and they used them at frequencies quite close to English native speakers'.

As presented in Figure 28 above, like in Situation 1, 85% of the participants in Turkish Control Group used conventionally indirect strategies in Situation 10. The rest 15% of the participants preferred direct strategies, which indicated that in their L1, Turkish native speakers used direct strategies more than English native speakers when requesting something from requestees with equal power.

Additionally, further statistical analyses were carried out to determine the relation between two request situations: Situation 1 and Situation 10, both of which required a request strategy between a requester and a requestee with equal power. In situation 1, Yiğit is asking his classmate to borrow the notebook and in Situation 10, Yiğit is asking his friend to borrow the bicycle. Chi-Square test was employed in order to find out the relation between the two request situations (For chi-square test results see Appendix I).

The results revealed there was a statistically significance difference between the two request situations: Situation 1 and Situation 10. While the majority of the participants preferred using conventionally indirect strategies in both situations, there was a considerable increase in participants' use of direct strategies in situation 10. Such a difference between the two request situations could perhaps be explained through "familiarity". Even though Yiğit and his two classmates in the situations were all equal in power, "John" is Yiğit's closer friend and he was sharing his home with Yiğit. Yiğit and John not only know each other but also have shared information each other. Thus, it was probably because of that reason that participants preferred using direct strategies more when talking to John rather than the other classmates. This finding is also in line with Marquez Reiter (2000), who claim that when a speaker requests something from a person s/he is familiar with, she does so in the belief that his/her request will be granted. It is probable that the requestee also expects the speaker to request in a direct manner as a confirmation of the "closeness" of their relationship.

4. 2. 1. 3. Request Strategies (- P)

In Situations 2, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11 and 12, the requester has less power than the requestee. In these cases, Yiğit is requesting something either from his teacher, John's parents, John's elder sister or brother. In the second situation, Yiğit asks John's brother to use his computer. In the fifth situation, Yiğit asks John's father to let him watch his favourite TV program. In the sixth situation, Yiğit asks John's sister to give him some money. In the seventh one, Yiğit asks John's sister to borrow her pencil. In

the ninth situation, Yiğit asks John's mother to let him play football with his friends at the playground. In the eleventh one, Yiğit asks the teacher to explain the reading text again and in the twelfth situation Yiğit asks John's father to join the teacher-parent meeting at school for him. In (- P) situations, Yigit requests something from a person of a higher social status. This would require the participants to request by using negative politeness strategies.

In these request situations, both in Multiple Choice and Written Discourse Completion Tests, participants in all four groups (Group 1, Group 2, English Control Group, and Turkish Control Group) preferred conventionally indirect request strategies the most, which were followed by relatively little use of direct and non-conventionally indirect request strategies as in (+ P) and (= P) situations.

Further statistical analyses were carried out in order to determine whether there were statistically significant differences with regard to the way Group 1 participants perceived the request utterances in the MCDCTs and the way they produced their own requests in the WDCTs. In order to determine this, chi-square tests were employed. The results of the chi-square tests revealed that except for Situation 2, in all the other (- P) situations, there were statistically significant differences in Group 1 participants' use of conventionally indirect and direct strategies in the two test types. While the participants had a tendency to use a higher percentage of direct strategies when they were presented different request strategy options in MCDCTs, they invariably used conventionally indirect strategies in WDCTs. Such a difference in Situation 2 might probably be the result of participants' desire to be more polite as they request something- a computer, that might be considered as having a high degree of imposition from children's point of view (For χ^2 values see Figures 29, 33, 37, 41, 45, 49 and 53 below and for chi-square tests see Appendix H).

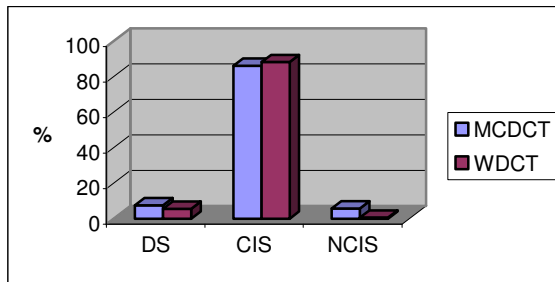
Likewise, further statistical analyses were carried out in order to determine whether there were statistically significant differences with regard to the way Group 2

participants perceived the request utterances in the MCDCTs and the way they produced their own requests in the WDCTs as well. In order to determine this, chi-square tests were applied. The results of the chi-square tests revealed that in Situation 2, 5, 6, and 11 there found no statistically significant differences in Group 2 participants' use of request strategies in the multiple choice and written discourse completion tests. However, in Situation 7, 9 and 12, there were statistically significant differences in participants' use of conventionally indirect and direct strategies. While participants had a tendency to use a higher percentage of direct strategies when they were presented different request strategy options in MCDCTs, they invariably used conventionally indirect strategies in WDCTs. It might be possible that Group 2 participants regard asking for a computer, asking to watch TV, asking for some money, and asking the teacher to re-explain something as more face threatening than other situations like asking for a pen, asking to play football outside, and asking someone to join the teacher-parent meeting. The results seem to reveal that Turkish EFL learners have some sort of sensitivity to some situational factors when requesting in English (For χ^2 values see Figures 30, 34, 38, 42, 46, 50 and 54 below and for chi-square tests see Appendix H).

In the following part, the distribution of request strategies of Groups 1 and 2, English and Turkish Control Groups in Situation 2 was explained (see Figures 29-32 below and for the distribution of request strategies of Group 1 and Group 2 participants both in the Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MCDCT) and Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT) in Situation 2 see Table 17 and Table 18 in Appendix F).

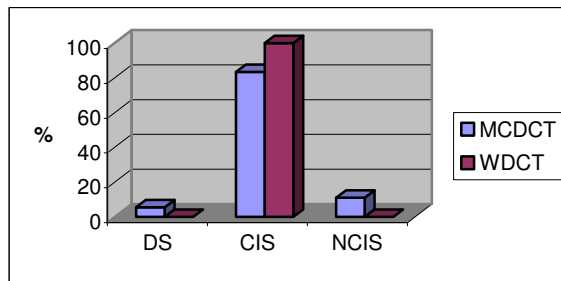
Percentage Distribution of Request Strategies in Situation 2

Figure 29. Group 1



$$\chi^2 (1)=1,27, p<.05$$

Figure 30. Group 2



$$\chi^2 (1)=2,19, p<.05$$

Figure 31. English Control Group

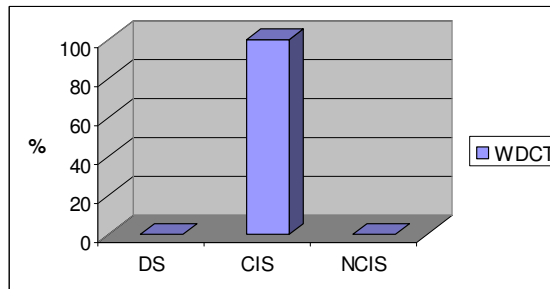
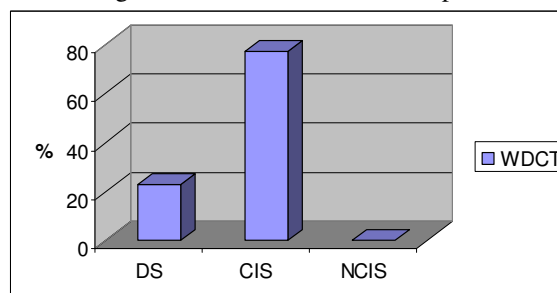


Figure 32. Turkish Control Group



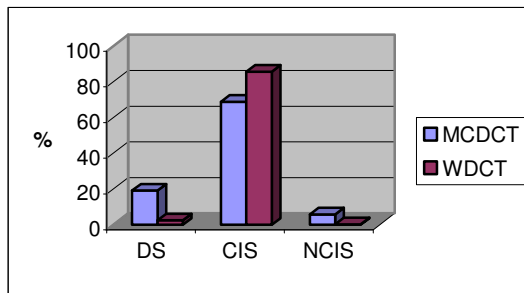
As presented in Figure 29 above, in Situation 2, when Yiğit is asking to use John's brother's computer, 86% of Group 1 participants chose conventionally indirect strategies and 7%, direct strategies, and 6%, non-conventionally indirect strategies in the multiple choice test. In the written discourse completion test the use of conventionally indirect strategies was 88% and direct strategy use, 6% and only two participants used non-conventionally indirect strategies. In this situation, the percentage distribution of request strategies of Group 1 and Group 2 participants in the multiple choice test was quite similar. Like Group 1 participants, 83% of Group 2 participants chose conventionally indirect strategies and 6%, direct strategies, and 11%, non-conventionally indirect strategies in the multiple choice test. In the written discourse completion test the use of conventionally indirect request strategies was 100% as shown in Figure 30 above. As explained above, Group 1 participants' preferring direct strategies less in this situation may perhaps be attributed to the nature of the thing they request to use- a computer, a precious item for children at that age. Yavuzer (1996) and Türküm (2001) also state that 11 to 14 year-old children love to play computer games and spending time in the internet as reported in section 3.1.

As illustrated in Figure 31, the data obtained from English Control group revealed that in Situation 2, as in all other (- P) situations, all English native speaker children preferred using conventionally indirect strategies. The request strategies of participants from Turkish Control Group in Situation 2 were as follows: While 23% of Turkish native speakers preferred using direct strategies, the majority of them used conventionally indirect strategies (77%) as shown in Figure 32 above.

Below, the request strategies of four groups of participants in Situation 5 will be discussed (For the distribution of request strategies of Group 1 and Group 2 participants both in the Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MCDCT) and Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT) in Situation 5 see Tables 19 and 20 in Appendix F). The percentage distribution of request strategies of all four groups of participants in Situation 5 is as follows (See Figures 33-36):

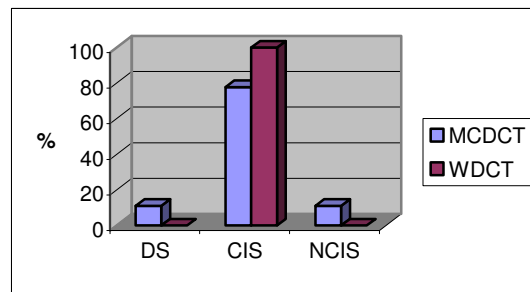
Percentage Distribution of Request Strategies in Situation 5

Figure 33. Group 1



$$\chi^2 (1)=50,32, p<.05$$

Figure 34. Group 2



$$\chi^2 (1)=4,52, p<.05$$

Figure 35. English Control Group

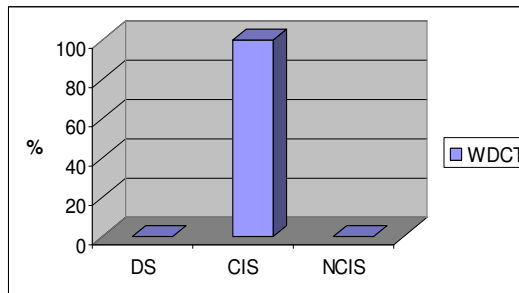
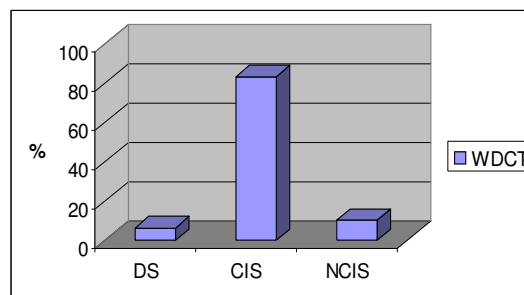


Figure 36. Turkish Control Group



As shown in Figure 33 above, in Situation 5, when asking John's father to let him watch his favourite TV program, 69% of Group 1 participants chose conventionally indirect strategies, 19%, direct strategies, and 6%, non-conventionally indirect strategies in the multiple choice test. In the written discourse completion test the use of conventionally indirect strategies was 86%, direct strategy use, 2% and only a single participant used a non-conventionally indirect strategy.

As presented in Figure 34, in the same situation, 78% of Group 2 participants chose conventionally indirect strategies and 11%, direct strategies, and the rest 11%, non-conventionally indirect strategies in the multiple choice test. In the written discourse completion test the use of conventionally indirect request strategies was 100%. Like Group 2 participants, participants of the English Control Group all used conventionally indirect strategies in this situation as illustrated in Figure 35 above.

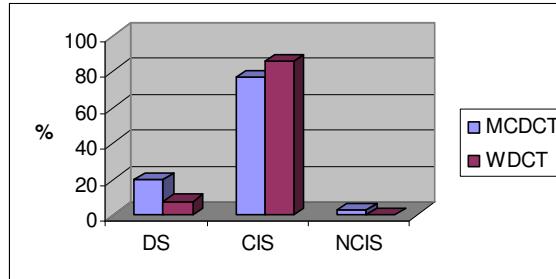
As shown in Figure 36, the distribution of request strategies of participants from Turkish Control Group in Situation 5 was as follows: While 6% of the participants in Turkish Control Group preferred using direct strategies, the majority of them used conventionally indirect strategies (83%). Unlike other situations, the use of non-conventionally indirect strategies was higher in Situation 5. That is, 11% of the participants of Turkish Control Group used non-conventionally indirect strategies in the given situation. The slightly higher use of non-conventionally indirect strategies in this situation might possibly be the result of the prompt presented in the written discourse completion test. As we emphasised in the prompt that it was Yiğit's favourite program, participants presumably preferred using non-conventionally indirect strategies both to convince the requestee to let him watch his favourite program and to be more polite to the powerful requestee.

In the following two situations- Situation 6 and Situation 7, Yiğit requests things from John's sister. In the sixth one he asks for some money and in the seventh one he asks for a pencil. In these situations, "asking for money" might be regarded as having a

higher degree of imposition when compared to “asking for a pencil” and thus we expect participants to use more polite strategies in situation 6. Below, the request strategies of four groups of participants in Situation 6 will be discussed (For the distribution of request strategies of Group 1 and Group 2 participants both in the Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MCDCT) and Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT) in Situation 6 see Tables 21 and 22 in Appendix F). The percentage distribution of request strategies of all four groups of participants in Situation 6 is as follows (See Figures 37-40):

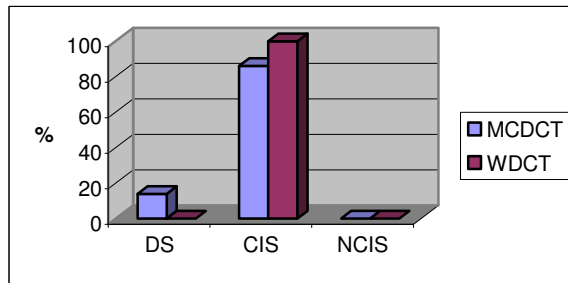
Percentage Distribution of Request Strategies in Situation 6

Figure 37. Group 1



$$\chi^2(1)=21,71, p<.05$$

Figure 38. Group 2



$$\chi^2(1)=5,09, p<.05$$

Figure 39. English Control Group

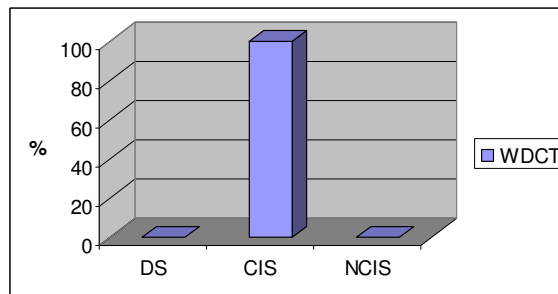
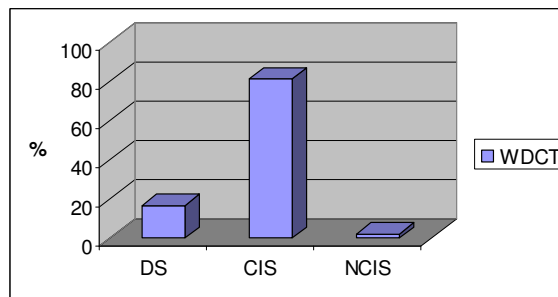


Figure 40. Turkish Control Group



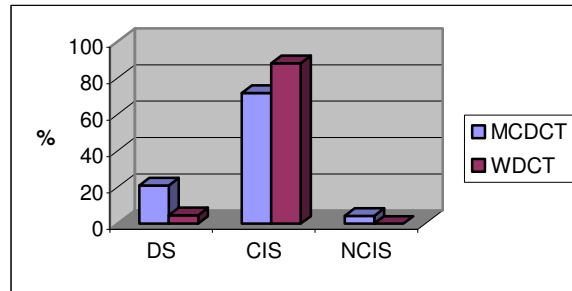
As presented in Figure 37 above, in Situation 6, when asking John's sister to give him some money, 77% of Group 1 participants chose conventionally indirect strategies, 20%, direct strategies, and 3%, non-conventionally indirect strategies in the multiple choice test. In the written discourse completion test the use of conventionally indirect strategies was 86%, direct strategy use, 7% and only a single participant used a non-conventionally indirect strategy. As shown in Figure 38 above, in the same situation, 86% of Group 2 participants chose conventionally indirect strategies and 14%, direct strategies in the multiple choice test. In the written discourse completion test the use of conventionally indirect request strategies was 100%. As in all other situations in (- P) level, all English native speakers preferred using conventionally indirect strategies (100%) as illustrated in Figure 39.

The request strategies of participants from Turkish Control Group in Situation 6 were quite similar to those of Group 1 participants. While 17% of participants in Turkish Control Group preferred using direct strategies, the majority of them used conventionally indirect strategies (81%). The use of non-conventionally indirect strategies was only 2% in Situation 6.

Below, the distribution of request strategies of four groups of participants in Situation 7 will be discussed and compared to the ones in Situation 6 (For the distribution of request strategies of Group 1 and Group 2 participants both in the Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MCDCT) and Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT) in Situation 7 see Tables 23 and 24 in Appendix F). The percentage distribution of request strategies of all four groups of participants in Situation 7 is as follows (See Figures 41-44):

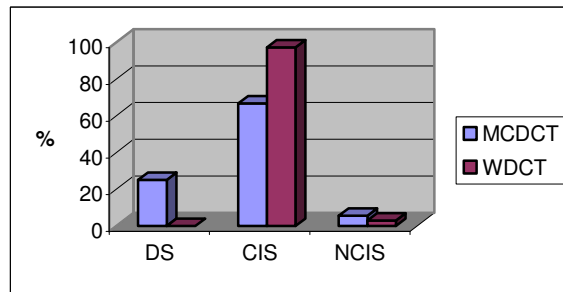
Percentage Distribution of Request Strategies in Situation 7

Figure 41. Group 1



$$\chi^2(1)=42,46, p<.05$$

Figure 42. Group 2



$$\chi^2(1)=10,42, p<.05$$

Figure 43. English Control Group

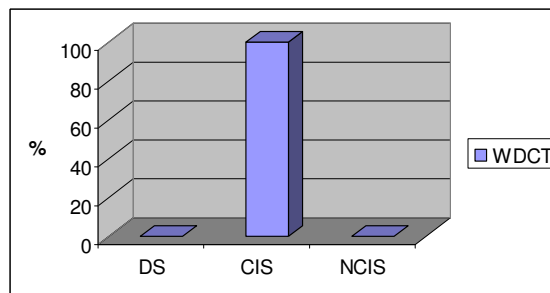
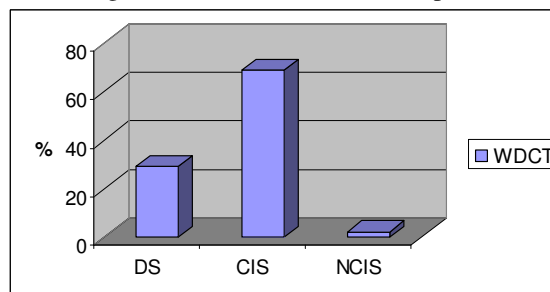


Figure 44. Turkish Control Group



As shown in Figure 41, in Situation 7, when asking John's sister to borrow her pencil, 72% of Group 1 participants preferred conventionally indirect strategies, 21%, direct strategies and 4%, non-conventionally indirect strategies in the multiple choice discourse completion test. In the written discourse completion test, however, the use of conventionally indirect strategies was 88%. The direct strategy use was limited with only the 5% of the participants and none of the participant used non-conventionally indirect strategies. As illustrated in Figure 42 above, in the same situation, 67% of Group 2 participants preferred conventionally indirect strategies, 25%, direct strategies and 6%, non-conventionally indirect strategies in the multiple choice discourse completion test. In the written discourse completion test, the use of conventionally indirect strategies was 97% and non-conventionally indirect strategy use 3%. As in all other situations in (- P) level, all English native speakers used conventionally indirect strategies in Situation 7 as shown in Figure 43 above.

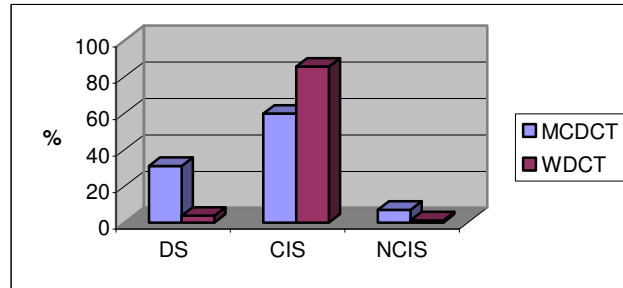
As illustrated in Figure 44, the request strategies of participants from Turkish Control Group in Situation 7 were as follows: While 29% of Turkish native speakers preferred using direct strategies, the majority of them used conventionally indirect strategies (81%). The use of non-conventionally indirect strategies was only limited with the 2% of the participants.

When we compare the participants' use of request strategies in situation 6 and Situation 7, it is evident that direct strategy use is higher in Situation 7 than it is in Situation 6, which suggests the possibility that L2 learners has developed some sort of sensitivity to situational factors. Besides, in their L1, Turkish native speakers also prefer direct strategies less in situation 6 (17%) when compared to the percentages in Situation 7 (29%), which suggests that Turkish native speakers at that age have also developed a sense of politeness in their native language.

Below, the distribution of request strategies of four groups of participants in Situation 9 will be discussed (For the distribution of request strategies of Group 1 and Group 2 participants both in the Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MCDCT) and Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT) in Situation 9 see Tables 25 and 26 in Appendix F). The percentage distribution of request strategies of all four groups of participants in Situation 9 is as follows (See Figures 45-48):

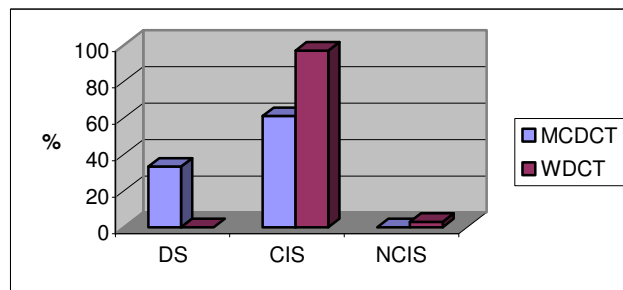
Percentage Distribution of Request Strategies in Situation 9

Figure 45. Group 1



$$\chi^2(1)=90,77, p<.05$$

Figure 46. Group 2



$$\chi^2(1)=14,19, p<.05$$

Figure 47. English Control Group

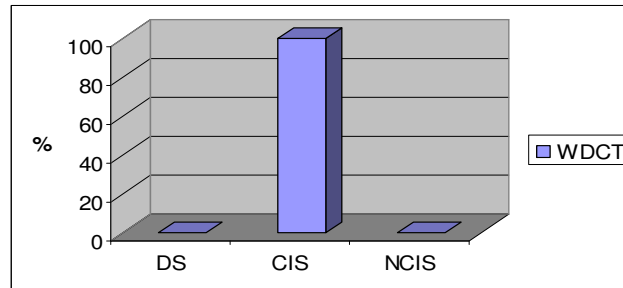
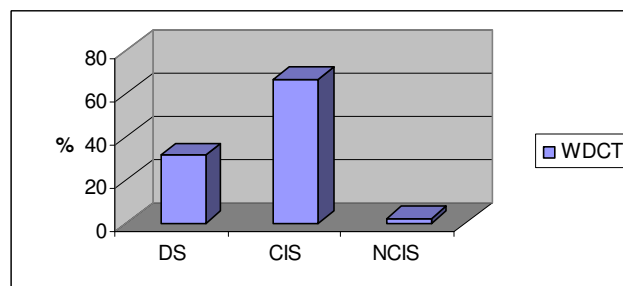


Figure 48. Turkish Control Group



As shown in Figure 45 above, in Situation 9, when asking John's mother to let him play football with his friends at the playground, 60% of Group 1 participants chose conventionally indirect strategies, 31%, direct strategies, and 7%, non-conventionally indirect strategies in the multiple choice test. In the written discourse completion test the use of conventionally indirect strategies was 86%, direct Strategy use, 4% and only four participants used non-conventionally indirect strategies. As illustrated in Figure 46, in Situation 9, the percentage distribution of request strategies of Group 2 participants' was quite similar to those of Group 1 participants. 61% of Group 2 participants chose conventionally indirect strategies, and 33%, direct strategies in the multiple choice test. In the written discourse completion test, Group 2 participants' conventionally indirect request strategy use was 97% and direct strategy use was limited with the 3% of the participants. Furthermore, all English native speakers used conventionally indirect strategies in Situation 9 as presented in Figure 47 above.

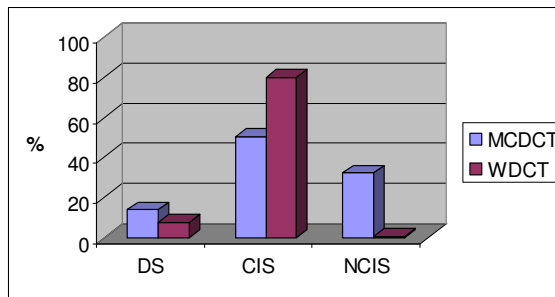
As shown in Figure 48, the request strategies of participants from Turkish Control Group in Situation 9 were as follows: While 31% of Turkish native speakers preferred using direct strategies, the majority of them used conventionally indirect strategies (68%). The use of non-conventionally indirect strategies was only limited with the 2% of the participants. Unlike English native speakers, Turkish native speakers used direct strategies quite often in their L1 and probably as a result of native language transfer they also preferred direct strategies in their responses in multiple choice tests in English.

The following situation- Situation 11 takes place in a classroom context. In this situation Yiğit is expected to ask the teacher to explain the reading text again as he couldn't understand it. Below, the distribution of request strategies of four groups of participants in Situation 11 will be discussed (For the distribution of request strategies of Group 1 and Group 2 participants both in the Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MCDCT) and Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT) in Situation 11 see

Tables 27 and 28 in Appendix F). The percentage distribution of request strategies of all four groups of participants in Situation 11 is as follows (See Figures 49-52):

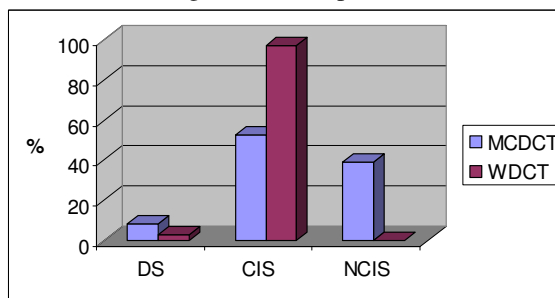
Percentage Distribution of Request Strategies in Situation 11

Figure 49. Group 1



$\chi^2(1)=19,34, p<.05$

Figure 50. Group 2



$\chi^2(1)=2,30, p<.05$

Figure 51. English Control Group

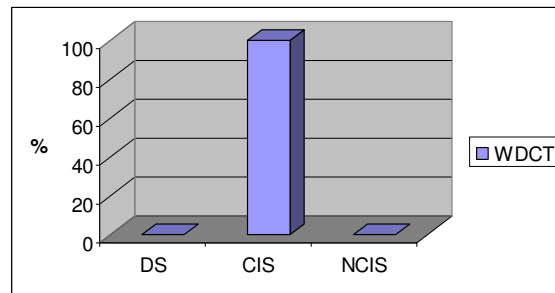
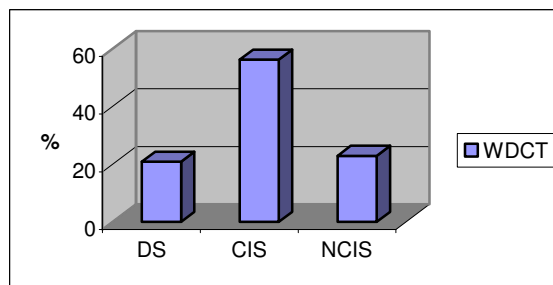


Figure 52. Turkish Control Group



As illustrated in Figure 49 above, in Situation 11, when asking the teacher to explain the reading text again, 50% of Group 1 participants chose conventionally indirect strategies, 14%, direct strategies, and 32%, non-conventionally indirect strategies in the multiple choice test. In the written discourse completion test the use of conventionally indirect strategies was 80%, direct strategy use, 7%. Unlike the quite high percentage of the use of non-conventionally indirect strategies in the multiple choice discourse completion test, only a single participant used a non-conventionally indirect strategy in the written discourse completion test. Such a difference in participants' comprehension and production data once again revealed the effect of test type in L2 learners' request strategy choice.

As shown in Figure 50, in the same situation, 53% of Group 2 participants chose conventionally indirect strategies, 8%, direct strategies, and 39%, non-conventionally indirect strategies in the multiple choice test. In the written discourse completion test the use of conventionally indirect request strategies was 97% and direct strategy use, 3%. Furthermore, all English native speakers used conventionally indirect strategies in Situation 11 as presented in Figure 51 above.

The request strategies of participants from Turkish Control Group in Situation 11 were as follows: While 2% of Turkish native speakers preferred using direct strategies, the great majority of them used conventionally indirect strategies (88%). The use of non-conventionally indirect strategies was only limited with the 6% of the participants as shown in Figure 52 above.

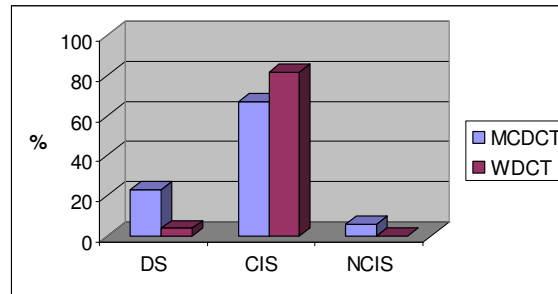
In this situation, both Group 1 and Group 2 participants' frequent use of non-conventionally indirect strategies in the multiple choice test was quite surprising. It might be probable that the prompt presented motivated participants to choose a non-conventionally indirect request strategy among the given ones in the multiple choice test. In their production of the request sequences, however, they tended to use

conventionally indirect strategies as they were accustomed to using them as a formulaic language as explained in section 4.1.1.

Like Situation 5, Situation 12 also takes place between Yiğit and John's father. In Situation 12, Yiğit is to ask John's father to join the teacher-parent meeting at school. Below, the distribution of request strategies of four groups of participants in Situation 12 will be discussed (For the distribution of request strategies of Group 1 and Group 2 participants both in the Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MCDCT) and Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT) in Situation 12 see Tables 29 and 30 in Appendix F). The percentage distribution of request strategies of all four groups of participants in Situation 12 is as follows (See Figures 53-56):

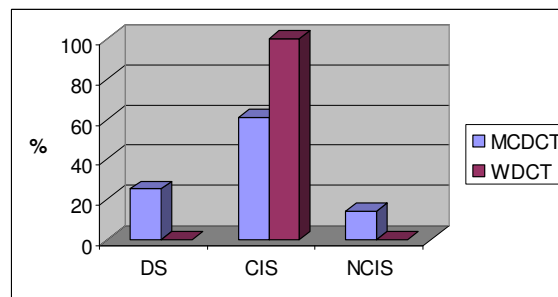
Percentage Distribution of Request Strategies in Situation 12

Figure 53. Group 1



$$\chi^2 (1)=52,64, p<.05$$

Figure 54. Group 2



$$\chi^2 (1)=11,46, p<.05$$

Figure 55. English Control Group

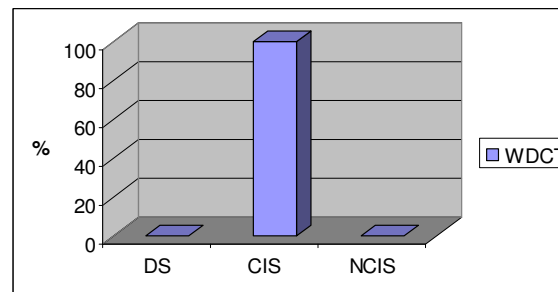
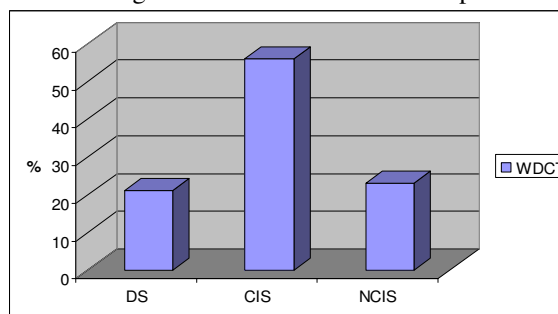


Figure 56. Turkish Control Group



As shown in Figure 53 above, in Situation 12, when asking John's father to join the teacher-parent meeting at school, 67% of Group 1 participants chose conventionally indirect strategies, 23%, direct strategies, and 6%, non-conventionally indirect strategies in the multiple choice test. In the written discourse completion test the use of conventionally indirect strategies was 82%, and direct strategy use was 4%. Besides, none of the participants used non-conventionally indirect strategies. In the same situation, 61% of Group 2 participants chose conventionally indirect strategies, 25%, direct strategies, and 14%, non-conventionally indirect strategies in the multiple choice test. In the written discourse completion test the use of conventionally indirect request strategies was 100% like English native speakers as illustrated in Figures 54 and 55 above.

As shown in Figure 56 above, the distribution of request strategies of participants from Turkish Control Group in Situation 12 were as follows: While 21% of Turkish native speakers preferred using direct strategies, 56% used conventionally indirect strategies and 23% non-conventionally indirect strategies. In this situation, the high percentage of non-conventionally indirect strategies by Turkish native speakers was quite surprising. Actually, Turkish native speakers do not use non-conventionally indirect strategies much in their request utterances. Thus, it might be probable that by using this strategy, the participants are trying to be more polite to their fathers as they are usually not fond of their visiting the teachers much. Another possibility may be participants' knowing the fact that "when there is a meeting at school parents go". Consequently, they probably just inform them about the meeting and they know that the parent will go any way.

Additionally, further statistical analyses were carried out to determine the relation between Situation 11 and Situation 12, both of which are in (- P) directness level. In Situation 11, Yiğit is asking the teacher to explain the reading text again as he couldn't understand it all and in Situation 12, Yiğit is asking John's father to join the

teacher-parent meeting at school for him. Chi-square tests were employed in order to determine the relation between the two request situations. The results revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between the two request situations, $\chi^2(1)=109, p<.05$. (For chi-square tests see Appendix I). Although the majority of the participants preferred conventionally indirect strategies in both situations, the use of direct strategies increased in Situation 12 when compared to the distribution of direct strategies in Situation 11. A possible explanation for such a difference could be attributed to the addressee-the teacher, a person of a higher social status. It might be possible that participants did not prefer choosing direct strategies that much when talking to their teachers but used negative politeness strategies instead.

4. 2. 2. Request Strategy Types

The head acts in each request utterance was coded based on 9 exclusive request strategy types (Blum-Kulka et. al., 1989): Mood Derivable (MD), Performatives (P), Hedged Performatives (HP), Obligation Statements (OS), Want Statements (WS), Suggestory Formulae (SF), Query Preparatory (QP), Strong Hints (SH), and Mild Hints (MH). A total number of 4775 request strategy types was identified in the data. Table 9 below shows the overall distribution of request strategy types for all four groups. (For the distribution of the request strategy types of all four groups of participants in each 12 situation, see Tables 31-34 in Appendix F).

Table 9. Overall Distribution of Request Strategy Types

		MD	P	HP	OS	WS	SF	QP	SH	MH	TOTAL
Group 1	n	195	61	19	1	6	3	3257	13		3555
	%	6	2	-	-	-	-	92	-		100
Group 2	n	4	3	1		4	1	393	1		407
	%	1	1	-		1	-	97	-		100
Eng. Cont. Gr.	n			1		1		238			240
	%			0,5		0,5		99			100
Tur. Cont. Gr.	n	74	31	2	3	3	9	427	24		573
	%	13	5	-	-	-	1	75	4		100
TOTAL	n	273	95	23	4	14	13	4315	38		4775
	%	6	2	1	-	-	-	90	1		100

MD: Mood Derivable, P: Performatives, HP: Hedged Performatives, OS: Obligation Statements, WS: Want Statements, SF: Suggestory Formulae, QP: Query Preparatory, SH: Strong Hints, MD: Mild Hints.

The analyses of the data revealed that there was a marked preference for conventionally indirectness (90%), namely Query Preparatory, across all participants independent of their being native speakers or foreign language learners with or without experience in an English speaking country. Mood Derivable constituted 6% of all coded request strategy type. Performatives were limited with 2% of the data and Hedged Performatives and Strong Hints each constituted 1 % of all the request strategy types. Obligation Statements, Want Statements, and Suggestory Formula were very limited in the data. Mild Hints were not used at all.

Previous studies also found “Query Preparatory” as the most commonly used request strategy among advanced learners of English (Mızıkacı, 1991; Trosborg, 1995; Hill, 1997; Otçu, 2000; Rose, 2000; Yıldız, 2001; Adak, 2003; Han, 2005, Otçu and Zeyrek, 2008). One possible reason for the participants’ concentrated use of query preparatory is presumably due to the nature of the input they were presented in their English

lessons. As Otçu and Zeyrek (2008) point out early introduction and use of Query Preparatory as the essential requesting strategy in the English classes motivates L2 learners to use it as the main request strategy type. Besides, learners quite frequently see such patterns in their course-books and learn them as routine formulas.

Furthermore, the query preparatory strategy type in each group was analysed in terms of the use of modals. In Group 1, participants expressed query preparatory using either “Can” (70%) or “May” (17%) or “Could” (11%). The distribution was quite similar for Group 2 participants as well: “Can” (71%) or “May” (19%) or “Could” (10%). English native speaker children also used the same modal verbs: “Can” (71%), “Could” (13%), or “May” (12%). Otçu (2000) and Otçu and Zeyrek (2008) also indicated the modals “*can, could*” as the most employed modal verbs by both EFL learners and native English speakers. According to Otçu and Zeyrek (2008) EFL learners, especially at lower levels, resort to this modal probably due to the fact that they quite often hear them from their English teachers or see them in their textbooks. In a way they use it as a “routine formula” (For the distribution of the modal verbs in the 12 request situations see Tables 35-37 in Appendix F).

Among the direct strategies, participants mostly preferred Mood Derivable. Actually, they are simple structures and even foreign language learners may be able to use them easily in the request utterances. However, it is probable that since the participants have already developed the concept of politeness awareness both in their L1 and the L2, they avoid using these structures on purpose. Furthermore, the participants of the present study are coming from high socio-economic backgrounds and thus the language they use may represent the characteristics of this level. For this reason, the request strategy types used by participants from lower socio-economic levels may also be investigated as a follow up study and the results may be compared in the two participant groups. The other direct strategy types Performatives and Hedged Performatives are complex structures. They are bi-clausal and cause subordination. Consequently, we do not expect foreign language learners to be able to use these structures at this language proficiency.

Like Mood Derivable, Obligation Statements and Want Statements are simple structures. It may be presumably due to the fact that Obligation Statements include imposition, participants prefer not using them much. Similarly, Want Statements are like Mood Derivables in that they are considered as impolite in request utterances and avoided.

The other conventionally indirect strategy type Suggestory Formulae is also very limited in the data. One of the reasons of participants' not preferring this request strategy type may be instrument induced. As situations requiring "invitation" have not been included much in the data collection instrument, we may not expect learners to use this request strategy type much.

The third group of request strategy type is non-conventionally indirect strategies. The two types of non-conventionally indirect strategies Strong Hint and Mild Hint are also very limited in the data. Neither foreign language learners, nor English or Turkish native speakers use them much in their native languages. Besides, Hints especially Mild Hints are difficult to understand as they require inference. Thus, they are usually not preferred much.

In the following part, the request strategy types used by all four groups of participants in the three directness levels are discussed:

4. 2. 2. 1. Request Strategy Types: (+ P)

It was found that both in Situation 4 and 8, the use of nine request strategies (MD: Mood Derivable, P: Performatives, HP: Hedged Performatives, OS: Obligation Statements, WS: Want Statements, SF: Suggestory Formulae, QP: Query Preparatory, SH: Strong Hints, MD: Mild Hints) by the four groups was concentrated on the use of "Query Preparatory". In Situation 4, Both Group 1 and Group 2 participants used Mood Derivable, Performatives, and Hedged Performatives in their

direct request strategies. As explained in the previous section, due to their simple structure, Mood Derivable request strategy type was used more than Performatives and Hedged Performatives by foreign language learners. Similarly, in their L1, Turkish native speakers used Mood Derivable and Performatives in their direct request strategies.

Below, the distribution of request strategies of four groups of participants in Situations 4 and 8 will be discussed (For the distribution of request strategy types of four groups of participants in Situation 4 see Table 38 in Appendix F). The percentage distribution of request strategy types of all four groups of participants in Situations 4 is as follows: (See Figures 57-60 for the distribution of request strategy types of four group of participants in Situation 4).

Percentage Distribution of Request Strategy Types in Situation 4

Figure 57. Group 1

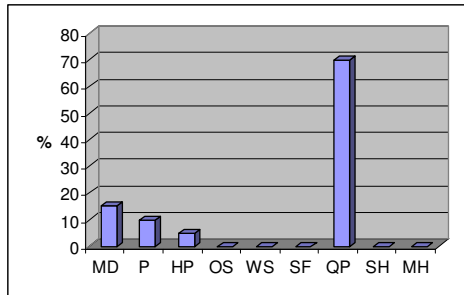


Figure 58. Group 2

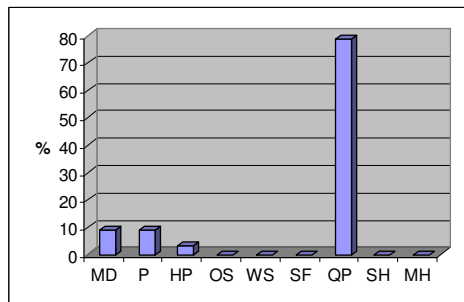


Figure 59. English Control Group

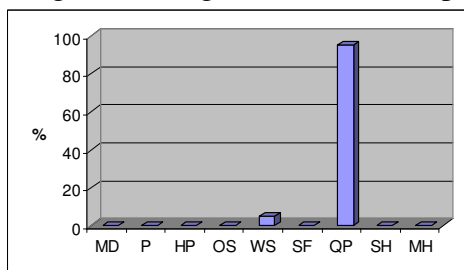
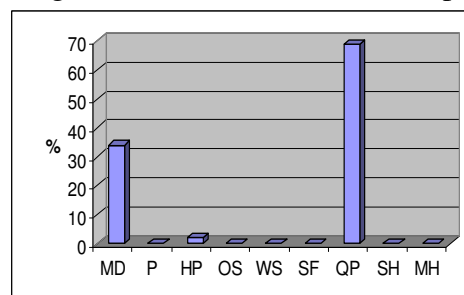


Figure 60. Turkish Control Group



The percentage distribution of request strategy types of all four groups of participants in Situations 8 is as follows: (See Figures 61-64 for the distribution of request strategy types of four group of participants in Situation 8). (For the distribution of request strategy types of four groups of participants in Situation 8 see Table 39 in Appendix F).

Percentage Distribution of Request Strategy Types in Situation 8

Figure 61. Group 1

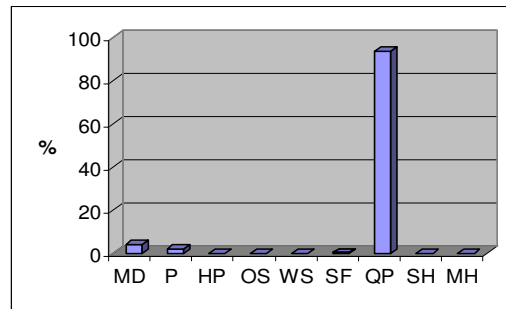


Figure 62. Group 2

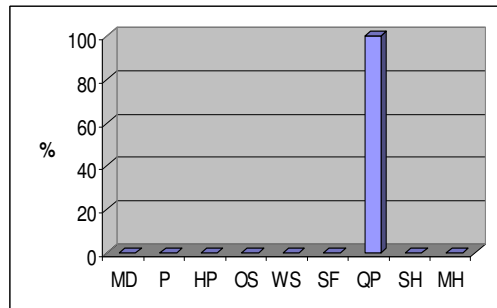


Figure 63. English Control Group

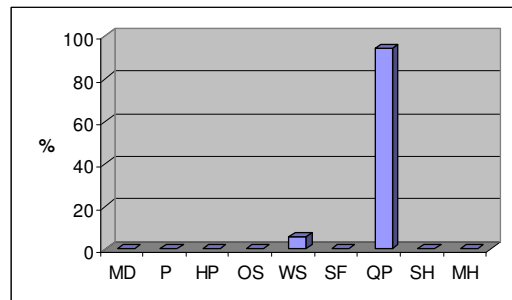
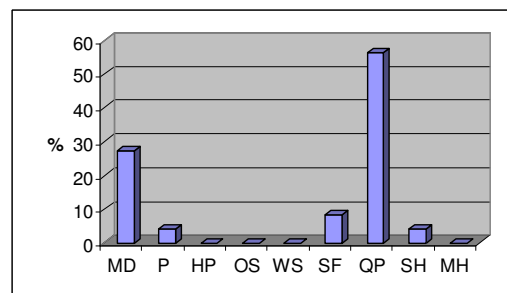


Figure 64. Turkish Control Group



The results revealed that over 95% of the participants in English Control Group preferred using “Query preparatory” strategy type in these situations (See Figures 59 and 63). 79% of the Group 2 participants and 70% of the Group 1 participants preferred using Query Preparatory strategy type in Situation 4 as shown in Figures 57 and 58 above. In Situation 8, however, both Group 1 and Group 2 participants used more Query Preparatory strategy types (over 90%) as illustrated in Figures 61 and 62 above. The lowest percentage for the use of Query Preparatory strategy type was among the participants of Turkish Control Group- 64% in Situation 4 as presented in Figure 60 and 56% in Situation 8 as shown in Figure 64. The other conventionally indirect strategy type, “Suggestory Formulae” was used by four participants (8%) from Turkish Control Group.

With regard to the use of direct strategies, Group 1 and Group 2 participants preferred Mood Derivable, Performatives, and Hedged Performatives (See Figures 57, 58 61 and 62). Unlike a single participant in the English Control Group who preferred using a Want Statement strategy type, 34% of the participants in Turkish Control Group preferred Mood Derivable strategy type in Situation 4 (See Figures 59 and 60). In Situation 8, Group 1 participants preferred Mood Derivable (4%), and Performatives (2%) as direct request strategies as shown in Figure 61. Furthermore, none of the participants in Group 2 and English Control Group used any types of direct request strategies in Situation 8 as presented in Situations 62 and 63. Besides, none of the participants in the all four groups used two non-conventionally indirect strategies: Strong Hint and Mild Hint as request strategy types in Situation 4 and Situation 8.

4. 2. 2. 2. Request Strategy Types: (= P)

It was found that in all three situations in (= P) directness level, the use of nine request strategies (MD: Mood Derivable, P: Performatives, HP: Hedged Performatives, OS: Obligation Statements, WS: Want Statements, SF: Suggestory Formulae, QP: Query Preparatory, SH: Strong Hints, MD: Mild Hints) by the four groups was concentrated on the use of “Query Preparatory”.

In the following part, the distribution of the request strategy types of four groups of participants in Situation 1 is explained (For the distribution of request strategy types of all four groups of participants in Situation 1 see Figures 65-68 below). (For the distribution of request strategy types of four groups of participants in Situation 1 see Table 40 in Appendix F).

Percentage Distribution of Request Strategy Types in Situation 1

Figure 65. Group 1

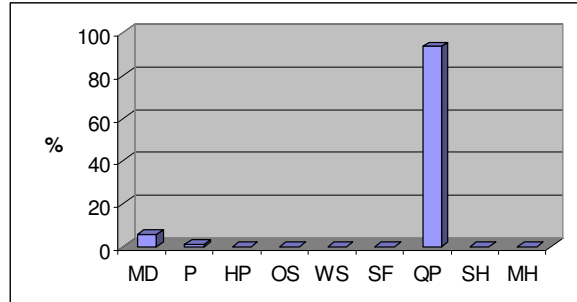


Figure 66. Group 2

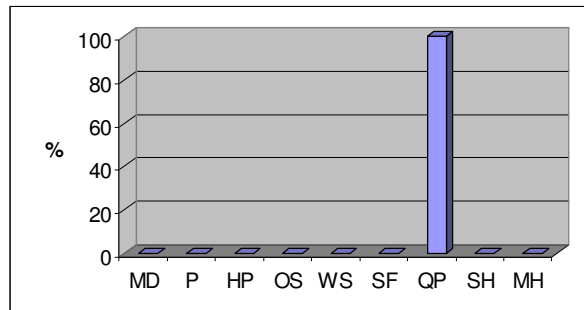


Figure 67. English Control Group

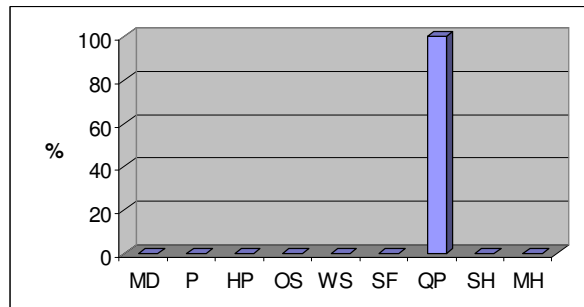
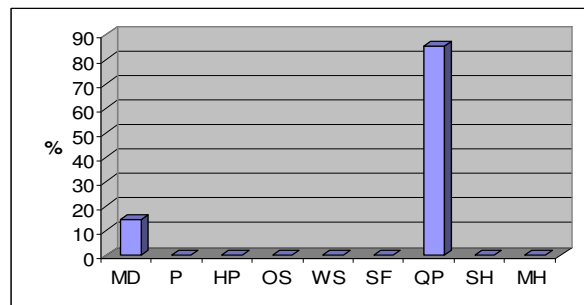


Figure 68. Turkish Control Group



All the participants both in Group 2 and in English Control Group (100%) preferred using Query Preparatory strategy type in Situation 1 as shown in Figures 66 and 67 above. Besides, a great majority of the Group 1 participants (94%) also preferred using Query Preparatory strategy type in Situation 1 as shown in Figure 65 above. As presented in Figure 68 above, the lowest percentage of the use of Query Preparatory strategy type was among the participants of Turkish Control Group (85%).

With regard to the use of direct strategies, Group 1 participants preferred Mood Derivable, and Performatives as shown in Figure 65. It is probable that foreign language learners prefer Mood Derivable request strategy type the most among other direct strategies due to its simple structure as explained in section 4.2.2. above. In their L1, Turkish native speakers also used Mood Derivable request strategy type Besides, none of the participants in the four groups used the two non-conventionally indirect Strategies: Strong Hint and Mild Hint as request strategy types in Situation 1.

Below, the distribution of the request strategy types of four groups of participants in Situation 3 is explained (For the distribution of request strategy types of all four groups of participants in Situation 3 see Figures 69-72 below). (For the distribution of request strategy types of four groups of participants in Situation 3 see Table 41 in Appendix F).

Percentage Distribution of Request Strategy Types in Situation 3

Figure 69. Group 1

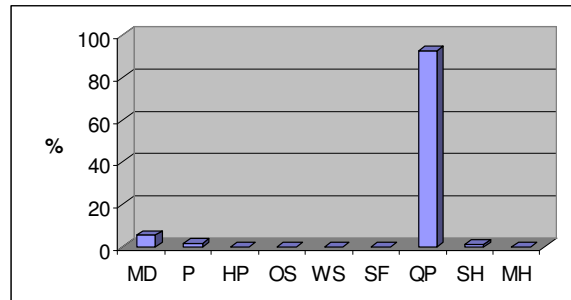


Figure 70. Group 2

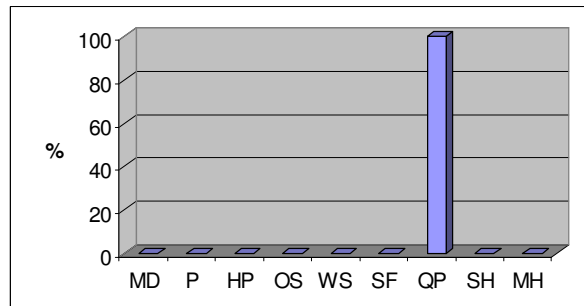


Figure 71. English Control Group

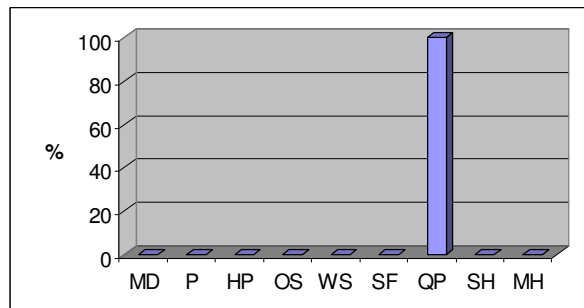
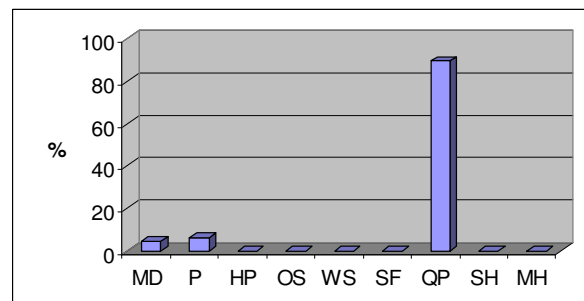


Figure 72. Turkish Control Group



As in Situation 1, all the participants both in Group 2 and in English Control Group (100%) preferred using a Query Preparatory Strategy in Situation 3 as shown in Figures 70 and 71. Besides, a great majority of the Group 1 participants (93%) also preferred using Query Preparatory strategy type in Situation 3 as illustrated in Figure 69 above. As presented in Figure 72 above, the lowest percentage for the use of Query Preparatory strategy type for Situation 3 was among the participants of Turkish Control Group (90%).

With regard to the use of direct strategies, Mood Derivable and Performatives were once again used the most among other direct strategies. Both Group 1 participants and participants of the Turkish Control Group preferred Mood Derivable, and Performatives in Situation 3 as shown in Figures 69 and 72 above. Besides, only a single participant from Group 1 used a Strong Hint in Situation 3. It is presumably due to their complex nature, hints are preferred much by neither foreign language learners nor native speakers as explained in section 4.2.2. above.

Below, the distribution of the request strategy types of four groups of participants in Situation 10 is explained (For the distribution of request strategy types of all four groups of participants in Situation 10 see Figures 73-76 below). (For the distribution of request strategy types of four groups of participants in Situation 10 see Table 42 in Appendix F).

Percentage Distribution of Request Strategy Types in Situation 10

Figure 73. Group 1

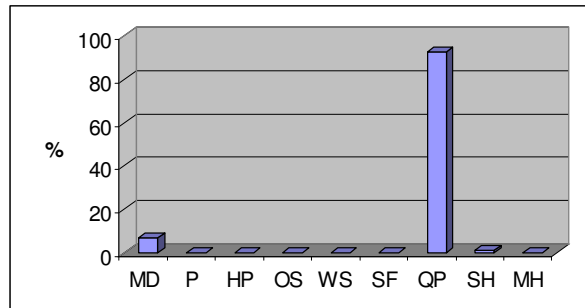


Figure 74. Group 2

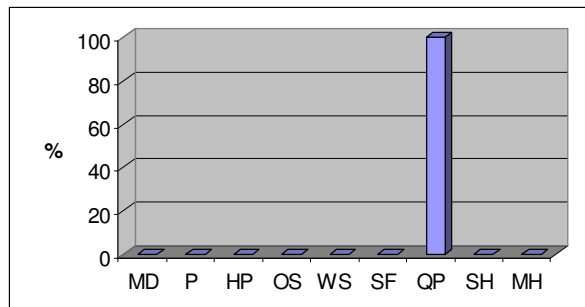


Figure 75. English Control Group

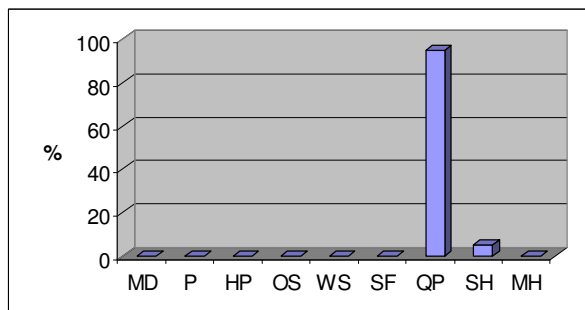
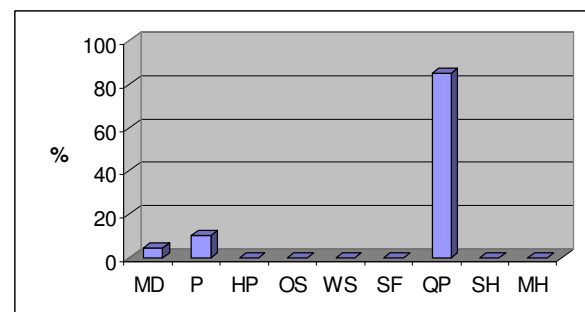


Figure 76. Turkish Control Group



The distribution of the request strategy types in Situation 10 are similar to those found in other two (= P) situations- Situation 1 and Situation 3. All the participants in Group 2 preferred using Query Preparatory strategy type in Situation 10 as shown in Figure 73 above. Besides, a great majority of the participants of English Control Group (95%) and Group 1 participants (93%) also preferred using Query Preparatory strategy type in Situation 10 as illustrated in Figures 75 and 73. As in other situations, the lowest percentage for the use of Query Preparatory strategy for Situation 10 was among the participants of Turkish Control Group (85%) as presented in Figure 76.

With regard to the use of direct strategies, Group 1 participants preferred “Mood Derivable” request strategy type (6%) and participants in the Turkish Control Group preferred Mood Derivable (4%), and “Performatives” (11%). Besides, only a single participant from English Control Group used a non-conventionally indirect strategy in Situation 10.

In the following part, the request strategy types in the (- P) directness level are explained.

4. 2. 2. 3. Request Strategy Types: (- P)

It was found that in all the situations in (- P) directness level, the use of nine request strategies (MD: Mood Derivable, P: Performatives, HP: Hedged Performatives, OS: Obligation Statements, WS: Want Statements, SF: Suggestory Formulae, QP: Query Preparatory, SH: Strong Hints, MD: Mild Hints) by the four groups was concentrated on the use of “Query Preparatory” as it was also in (+ P) and (= P) situations. When compared to the other two directness levels it was noticed that both Group 1 and Group 2 participants and English native speakers used slightly higher percentage of conventionally indirect strategies in (- P) level. It was probable that the requestee’s having a higher social status prevented learners from using direct strategies. As explained in other two directness levels (+ P) and (= P), Mood Derivable and

Performative request strategy types, which foreign language learners prefer using the most because of their simple structure, seem not convenient in this directness level as learners rely on negative politeness strategies. However, it was found that probably due to their being easy to use, foreign language learners relied on Mood Derivable and Performatives in this directness level as well. Turkish native speakers also adopted direct request strategies such as Mood Derivable, Obligation Statements, Performatives, Hedged Performatives and Want Statements in their request utterances in (- P) directness level.

Below, the distribution of the request strategy types of four groups of participants in Situation 2 is explained (For the distribution of request strategy types of all four groups of participants in Situation 2 see Figures 77-80 below). (For the distribution of request strategy types of four groups of participants in Situation 2 see Table 43 in Appendix F).

Percentage Distribution of Request Strategy Types in Situation 2

Figure 77. Group 1

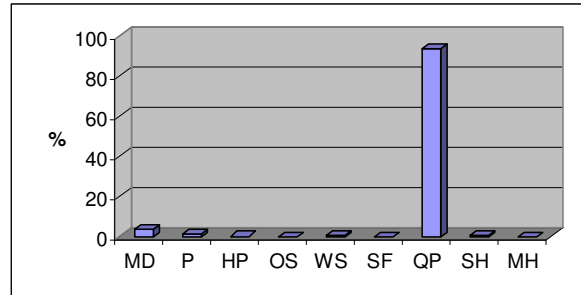


Figure 78. Group 2

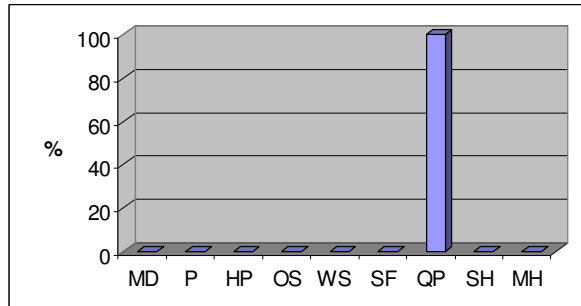


Figure 79. English Control Group

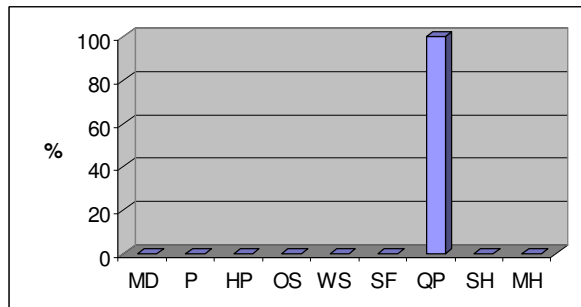
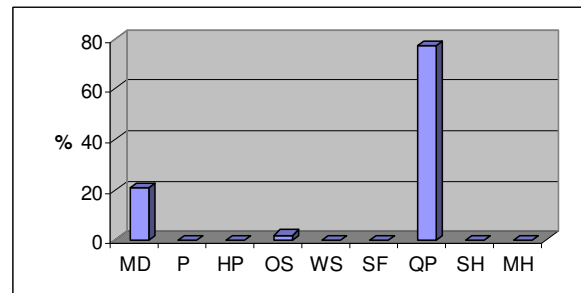


Figure 80. Turkish Control Group



As shown in Figures 78 and 79 above, all the participants both in Group 2 and in English Control Group (100%) preferred using Query Preparatory strategy type in Situation 2. Besides, a great majority of the Group 1 participants (93%) also preferred using Query Preparatory strategy type in Situation 2 as presented in Figure 77 above. As illustrated in Figure 80, once again the lowest percentage for the use of Query Preparatory strategy type was among the participants of Turkish Control Group (77%).

With regard to the use of direct strategies, Group 1 participants preferred mainly Mood Derivable (4%), Performatives (1%). Hedged Performatives and Want Statements were very limited in the data as shown in Figure 77. Similarly, the participants in Turkish Control Group preferred using two direct strategies Mood Derivable (21%) and Obligation Statements (2%) in Situation 2 as presented in Figure 80 above. Besides, only a single participant from Group 1 in the all four groups used a non-conventionally indirect strategy: “Strong Hint” as a request strategy type in Situation 2.

Below, the distribution of the request strategy types of four groups of participants in Situation 5 is explained (For the distribution of request strategy types of all four groups of participants in Situation 5 see Figures 81-84 below). (For the distribution of request strategy types of four groups of participants in Situation 5 see Table 44 in Appendix F).

Percentage Distribution of Request Strategy Types in Situation 5

Figure 81. Group 1

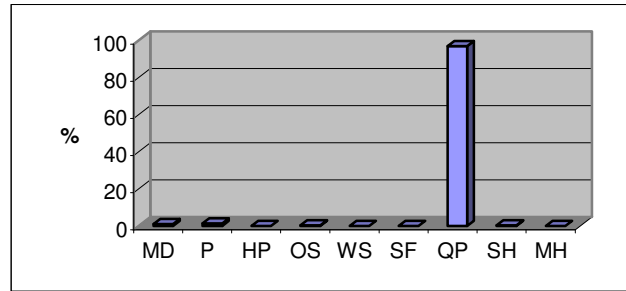


Figure 82. Group 2

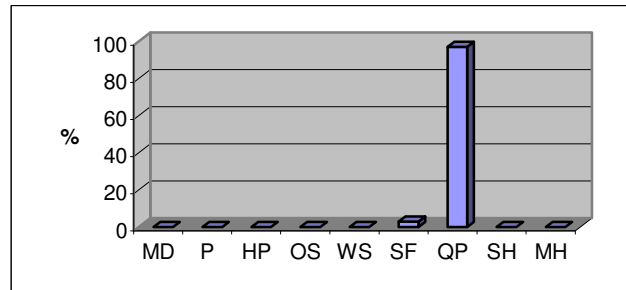


Figure 83. English Control Group

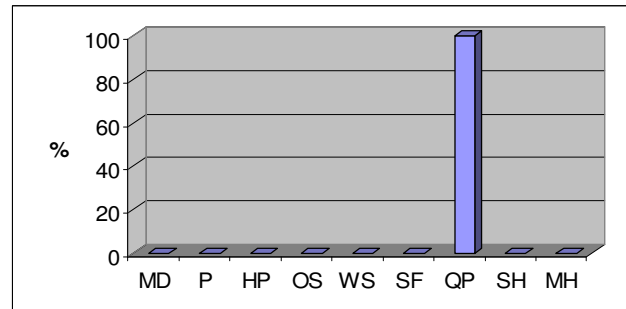
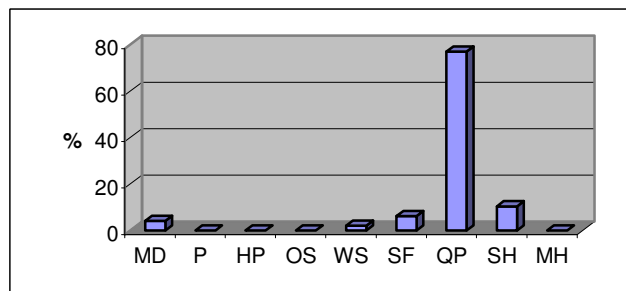


Figure 84. Turkish Control Group



In Situation 5, the use of nine request strategies by the four groups was concentrated on the use of Query Preparatory. All the participants in English Control Group (100%) preferred using Query Preparatory strategy type in Situation 5 as shown in Figure 83 above. Besides, a great majority of the Group 1 and Group 2 participants (97%) also preferred using Query Preparatory strategy type in Situation 5 as illustrated in Figures 81 and 82 above. The lowest percentage for the use of Query Preparatory strategy type was among the participants of Turkish Control Group (77%) as presented in Figure 84.

The other conventionally indirect strategy, Suggestory Formulae was used by a single participant (3%) from Group 2 and three participants (6%) from Turkish Control Group. As explained in section 4.2.2, the request situations in the discourse completion test do not let the use of Suggestory Formulae much. In this situation, however, a foreign language learners uses it correctly to suggest John's father to watch TV together.

With regard to the use of direct strategies and non-conventionally indirect strategies, the results were quite similar to those found in other situations in the (- P) directness level. As shown in Figure 81 above, Group 1 participants preferred Mood Derivable (4%) and Want Statements (2%). Besides, only a single participant from Group 1 and five students from Turkish Control Group (10%) used Strong Hint as a request strategy type in Situation 5.

Below, the distribution of the request strategy types of four groups of participants in Situation 6 is explained (For the distribution of request strategy types of all four groups of participants in Situation 6 see Figures 85-88 below). (For the distribution of request strategy types of four groups of participants in Situation 6 see Table 45 in Appendix F).

Percentage Distribution of Request Strategy Types in Situation 6

Figure 85. Group 1

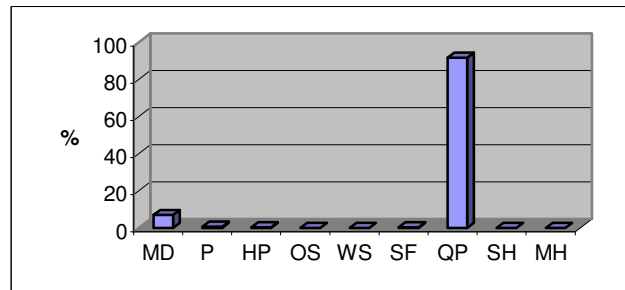


Figure 86. Group 2

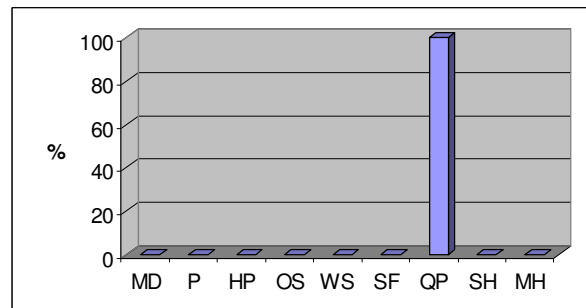


Figure 87. English Control Group

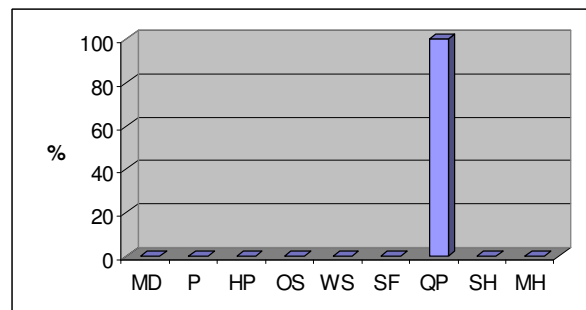
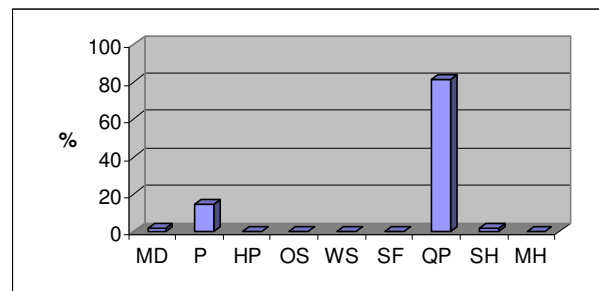


Figure 88. Turkish Control Group



It was found that in Situation 6 the use of nine request strategies by the four groups was concentrated on the use of Query Preparatory. All the participants both in Group 2 and in English Control Group (100%) preferred using Query Preparatory strategy type in Situation as shown in Figures 86 and 87. Besides, a great majority of the Group 1 participants (92%) also preferred using Query Preparatory strategy type in Situation 6 as illustrated in Figure 85. As shown in Figure 88 above, the lowest percentage for the use of Query Preparatory strategy type was among the participants of Turkish Control Group (81%). Instead of using conventionally indirect strategies, Turkish native speakers preferred using direct strategies in Situation 6.

With regard to the use of direct strategies, Group 1 participants preferred Mood Derivable (7%), Performatives and Hedged Performatives as they did in other request situations. The participants in the Turkish Control Group also preferred Mood Derivable (2%) and Performatives (15%). Besides, only a single participant from Turkish Control Group used a non-conventionally indirect strategy- “Strong Hint”, as a request strategy type in Situation 6.

Below, the distribution of the request strategy types of four groups of participants in Situation 7 is explained (For the distribution of request strategy types of all four groups of participants in Situation 7 see Figures 89-92 below). (For the distribution of request strategy types of four groups of participants in Situation 7 see Table 46 in Appendix F).

Percentage Distribution of Request Strategy Types in Situation 7

Figure 89. Group 1

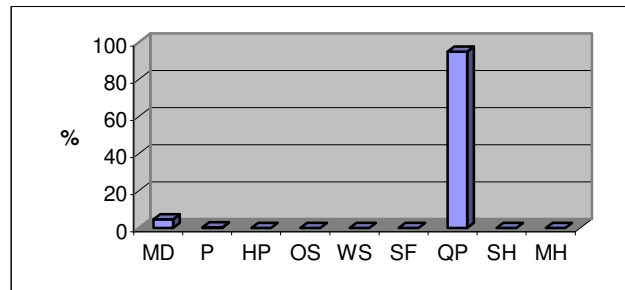


Figure 90. Group 2

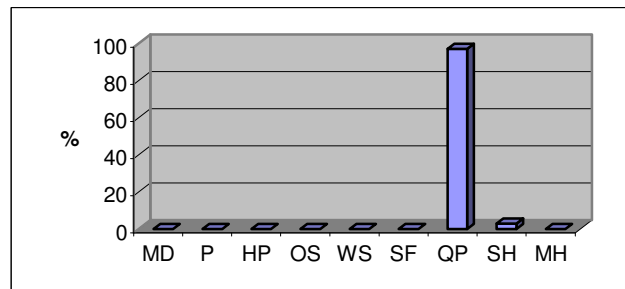


Figure 91. English Control Group

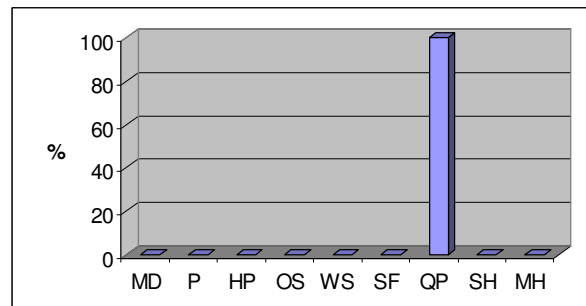
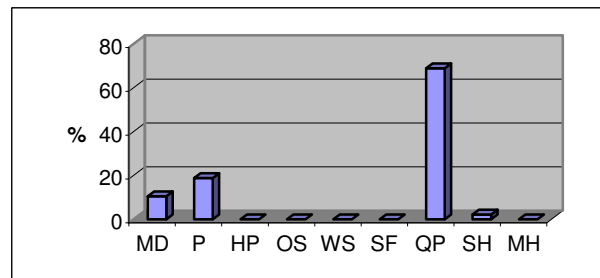


Figure 92. Turkish Control Group



It was found that in Situation 7 the use of nine request strategies by the four groups was concentrated on the use of Query Preparatory as in all other request situations in the all three directness levels. As shown in Figure 91 above, all the participants in English Control Group (100%) preferred using Query Preparatory strategy type in Situation 7. Besides, a great majority of the Group 1 participants (95%) and Group 2 participants (97%) also preferred using Query Preparatory strategy type in Situation 7 as shown in Figures 89 and 90 above. As illustrated in Figure 92 above, as in all other situations, the lowest percentage for the use of Query Preparatory strategy type was among the participants of Turkish Control Group (69%).

With regard to the use of direct strategies, Group 1 participants preferred Mood Derivable (5%) and Performatives. Likewise, the participants in the Turkish Control Group preferred the same direct strategies: Mood Derivable (10%) and Performatives (19%). Besides, only a single participant from Group 2 and Turkish Control Group in the all four groups used non-conventionally indirect Strategies- “Strong Hint” as a request strategy type in Situation 7.

Below, the distribution of the request strategy types of four groups of participants in Situation 9 is explained (For the distribution of request strategy types of all four groups of participants in Situation 9 see Figures 93-96 below). (For the distribution of request strategy types of four groups of participants in Situation 9 see Table 47 in Appendix F).

Percentage Distribution of Request Strategy Types in Situation 9

Figure 93. Group 1

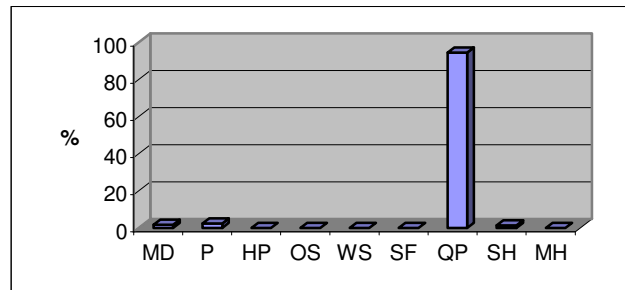


Figure 94. Group 2

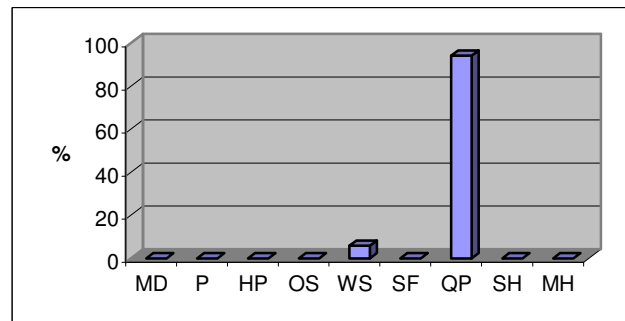


Figure 95. English Control Group

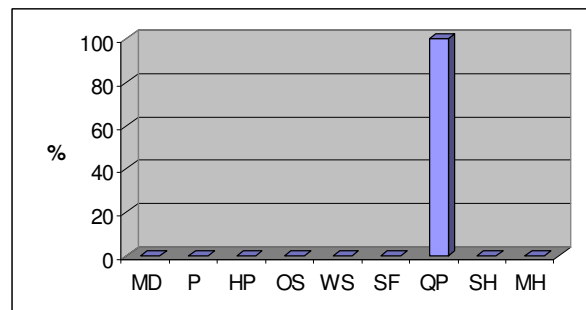
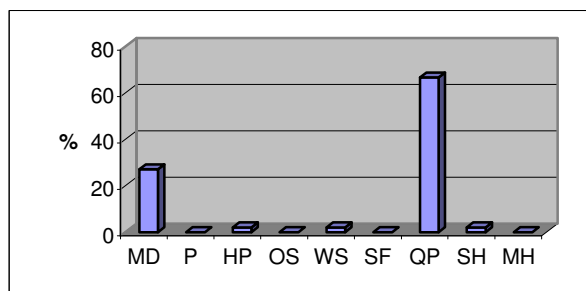


Figure 96. Turkish Control Group



In Situation 9 the use of nine request strategies by the four groups was concentrated on the use of Query preparatory. As shown in Figure 95 above, all the participants in English Control Group (100 %) preferred using Query Preparatory strategy type in Situation 9. Besides, a great majority of the Group 1 (95%) and Group 2 (94%) participants also preferred using Query Preparatory strategy type in Situation 9 as illustrated in Figure 39 and 94. The lowest percentage for the use of Query Preparatory strategy type was among the participants of Turkish Control Group (67%) as presented in Figure 96 above.

With regard to the use of direct strategies, Group 1 participants preferred “Mood Derivable” (2%), and Performatives (2%); and Group 2 participants, Want Statements (6%). The participants in the Turkish Control Group preferred Mood Derivable (27%), Hedged Performatives (2%) and Want Statements (2%). Besides, only four participants from Group 1 (1%) and a single participant from Turkish Control Group used non-conventionally indirect strategies: Strong Hint as a request strategy type in Situation 9.

In the following part, the distribution of the request strategy types of four groups of participants in Situation 11 is explained (For the distribution of request strategy types of all four groups of participants in Situation 11 see Figures 97-100 below). (For the distribution of request strategy types of four groups of participants in Situation 11 see Table 48 in Appendix F).

Percentage Distribution of Request Strategy Types in Situation 11

Figure 97. Group 1

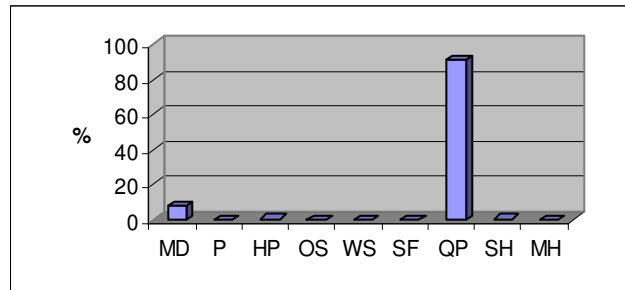


Figure 98. Group 2

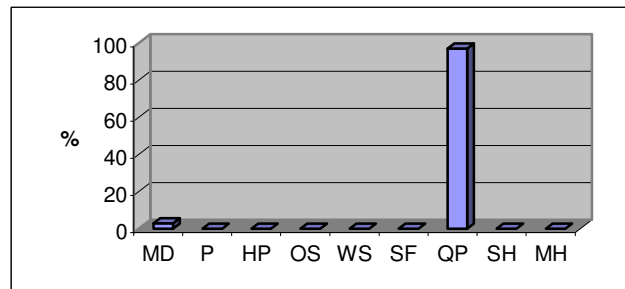


Figure 99. English Control Group

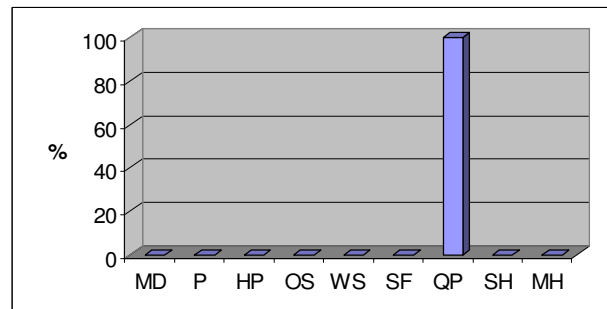
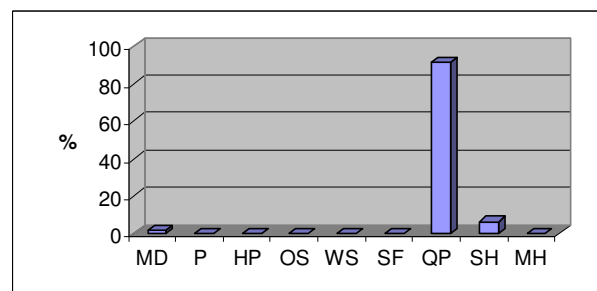


Figure 100. Turkish Control Group



In Situation 11 the use of nine request strategies by the four groups was concentrated on the use of Query Preparatory. All the participants in English Control Group (100%) preferred using Query Preparatory strategy type in Situation 11 as shown in Figure 99 above. Besides, a great majority of the Group 1 participants (91%), Group 2 (97%) participants and participants of the Turkish Control Group (91%) all preferred using Query Preparatory strategy type in Situation 11 as illustrated in Figures 97, 98 and 100 above. One of the major causes of all groups of participants' relying on Query Preparatory strategy type may perhaps be due to the nature of the request situation. In this situation, participants prefer using Query Preparatory strategy type in order to be more polite to their teachers in the classroom context.

As all four groups of participants preferred using conventionally indirect strategies, the use of direct strategies was very limited in the whole data. With regard to the use of Direct strategies, Group 1 participants preferred Mood Derivable (8%) and Hedged Performatives; Group 2 participants, Mood Derivable strategy types (3%). The participants in Turkish Control Group preferred only Mood Derivable (2%) strategy type. Besides, only a single participant from Group 1 and three participants from Turkish Control Group used non-conventionally indirect strategies- Strong Hint, as a request strategy type in Situation 11.

In the following part, the distribution of the request strategy types of four groups of participants in Situation 12 is explained (For the distribution of request strategy types of all four groups of participants in Situation 12 see Figures 101-104 below). (For the distribution of request strategy types of four groups of participants in Situation 12 see Table 49 in Appendix F).

Percentage Distribution of Request Strategy Types in Situation 12

Figure 101. Group 1

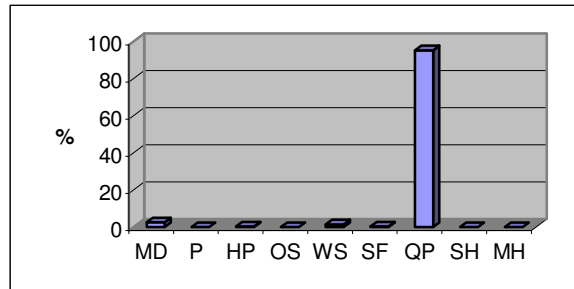


Figure 102. Group 2

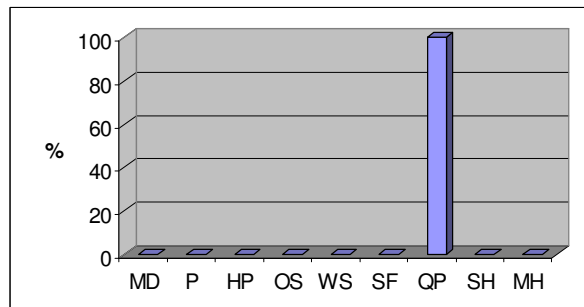


Figure 103. English Control Group

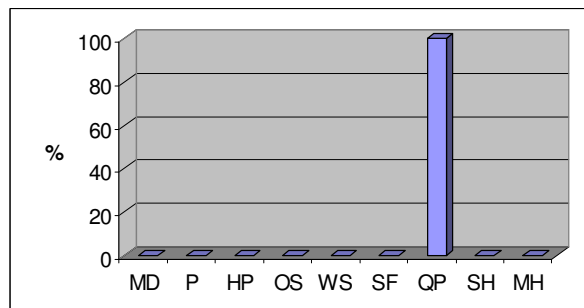
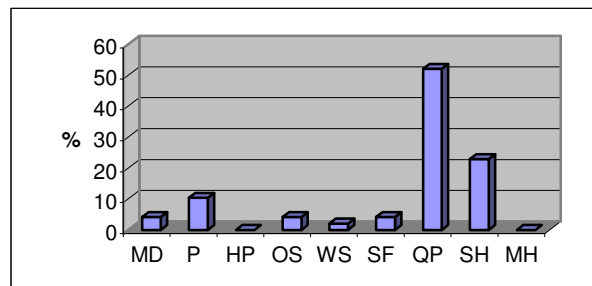


Figure 104. Turkish Control Group



It was found that in Situation 12 the use of nine request strategies by the four groups was concentrated on the use of Query Preparatory. All the participants both in Group 2 and in English Control Group (100%) preferred using Query Preparatory strategy type in Situation 12 as shown in Figures 102 and 103 above. Besides, as illustrated in Situation 101, a great majority of the Group 1 participants (95%) preferred using Query Preparatory strategy type in Situation 12. The lowest percentage for the use of Query Preparatory strategy type was among the participants of Turkish Control Group (52%) as presented in Figure 104. The other conventionally indirect strategy type, Suggestory Formulae, was used by two participants (4%) from Turkish Control Group.

With regard to the use of direct strategies, Group 1 participants preferred Mood Derivable (3%), Hedged Performatives and Want Statements (1%). The participants in the Turkish Control Group preferred Mood Derivable (4%), Performatives (10%), Obligation Statements (4%), and Want Statements (2%).

Besides, non-conventionally indirect strategies were not used at all by the participants of other three groups but Turkish Control Group. Although hints are not used so often by Turkish native speakers, the results revealed that quite a high percentage of Turkish native speakers (23%) used strong hints in their request utterances in Situation 12. As also discussed in section 4.2.1.3, participants use strong hints either to be more polite to the parent or to let him make the inference that he should go to the meeting.

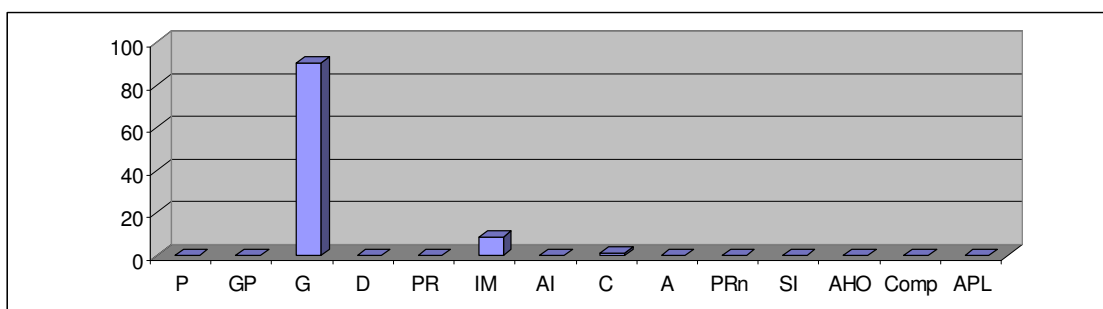
4. 2. 3. External Modifications

In the following part, the request utterances were coded according to Han's (2005: 72-73) classification of external modifications: Preparatory (P), Getting a Precommitment (GP), Grounder (G), Disarmer (D), Promise of Reward (PR), Imposition Minimizer (IM), Acknowledge of Imposition (AI), Concern (C), Appreciation (A), Promise of Return (PRn), Self Introduction/ Greeting (SI), Asking the Hearer's Opinion (AHO), Compliment/ Cojaler (Comp), Apology (APL).

With regard to the use of external modifications, Grounders were the most common type in all four groups of participants. Considering the content of request itself, in which, requesters had to give a good reason, an explanation or a justification for their requests, it was natural for participants to use grounders frequently in their requests. Grounders were also found to be the most common external modification type by other researchers such as Marquez Reiter, 2000; Otçu, 2000; Rose, 2000, Otçu and Zeyrek, 2008.

The most frequent external modifications found in the data of Group 1 participants in decreasing order were: Grounders (90%), Imposition Minimizers (9%) and Concerns (1%). As pointed out by Bayraktoroğlu and Sifianou (2021) and Zeyrek (2001), Turkish native speakers' requests are characterized by Imposition Minimizers as a consequence of collectivist and high-power distance characteristics of Turkish culture. Cultural characteristics like benevolence, supportiveness, kindness and nurture motivate Turkish native speakers to use Imposition Minimizers frequently. Figure 105 below illustrates the distribution of external modification types of Group 1 participants.

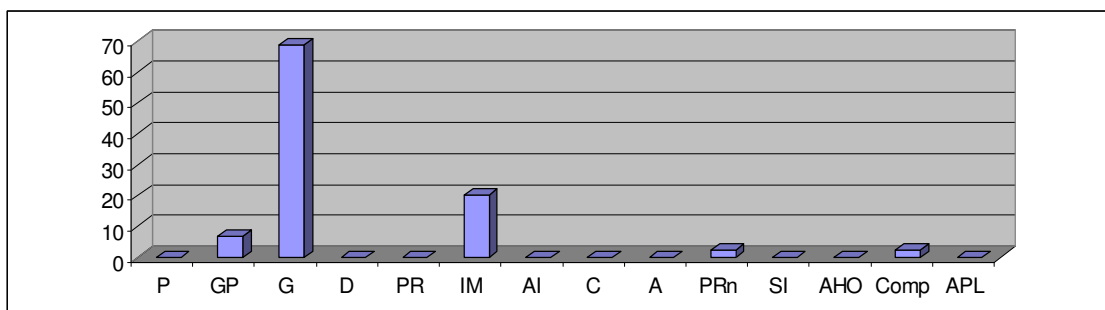
Figure 105. Percentage Distribution of External Modification Types in Group 1



For Group 2 participants, the most frequently used external modifications included the followings: Grounders (69%), Getting a Precommitment (20%), and Imposition Minimizers (7%). A possible explanation for Group 2 participants' use of Getting a Precommitment as a common external modification type might be an individual matter. It may be probable that quite shy personalities of individuals in Group 2 play a role in

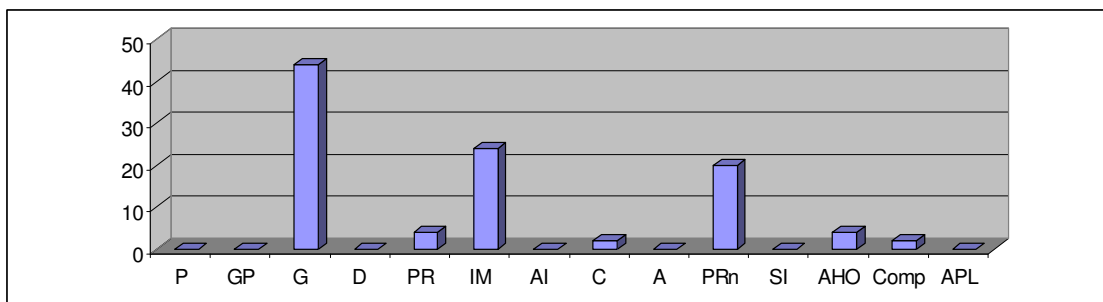
their selection of the external modification type. Figure 106 below shows the distribution of external modification types of Group 2 participants.

Figure 106. Percentage Distribution of External Modification Types in Group 2



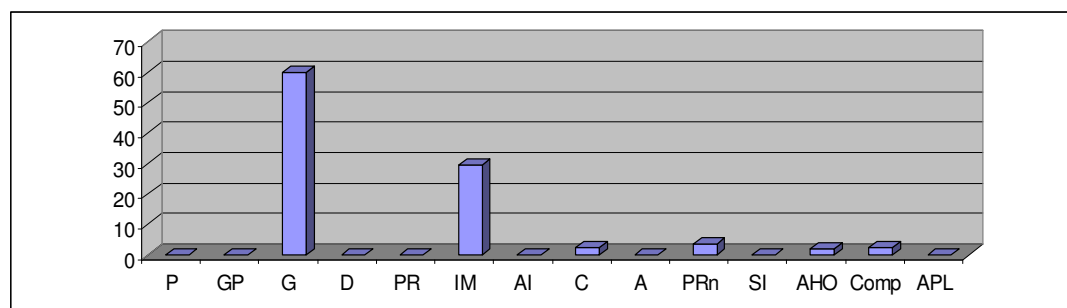
Like other groups, in their selection of the external modifications, participants in the English Control Group relied on grounders (44%). The most frequent external modifications found in the English baseline data in decreasing order were: Imposition Minimizer (24%) and Promise of Return (20%). Although, Imposition Minimizers were also commonly used by both groups of Turkish EFL learners, Promise of Return was not detected at all in the foreign language data. It might be probable that due to the collectivist cultural characteristics of Turkish people, they neglect keeping promises to give things back. English native speakers, who are known as more individualistic, however, may prefer using Promise of Return external modification type quite frequently. Even though they are claimed to be individualistic, English native speakers' use of Imposition Minimizers may be attributed to their desire to be more polite to the requestee in the request situation. Figure 107 below presents the distribution of external modification types of English Control Group.

Figure 107. Percentage Distribution of External Modification Types in English Control Group



As it was both in the English baseline data and foreign language data, Grounders were the most common external modification type in the Turkish baseline data (60%). Grounders were followed by Imposition Minimizers (30%) and the other external modification types coded in Turkish data included Concern, Promise of Return, Asking the Hearer's Opinion, and Compliment, with varying frequencies of 2 to 3% each. Figure 108 below displays the distribution of external modification types of Turkish Control Group.

Figure 108. Percentage Distribution of External Modification Types in Turkish Control Group



In the following part, the external modifications used by four groups of participants in the request situations in the three directness levels are explained.

4. 2. 3. 1. External Modifications: (+ P)

As described in CCSARP Project, external modifications are used to persuade the hearer to do something. As the Situation 4 takes place in a fast food restaurant setting and includes a request situation between a customer and a waiter, the nature of the situation itself does not require an external modification. Thus, neither of the participants in the four groups used any external modifications in Situation 4.

The results revealed that the four groups had very similar frequency patterns in their selection of the external modification strategies in Situation 8. As can be seen in Table 10 below, the external modification type most frequently used in Situation 8 was Grounder modification, followed by Imposition Minimizer and Concern. If we consider that requesters had to give a good reason for their requests, it was natural for requesters to use grounders frequently in their requests.

Table 10. Distribution of External Modifications in Situation 8

Situation 8	Grounder	Imposition Minimizer	Concern	Total
Group 1	5	3		8
Group 2		1		1
Eng. Cont. Gr.	1			1
Tur. Cont. Gr.	9	5	1	15
TOTAL	15	9	1	25

The following student responses taken from the data represent some samples on the use of available External Modification types in the (+ P) directness level. The participant group that the external modification belongs to and the external modification type are mentioned in parentheses.

In the examples 1-5 below, the requester tries to persuade the requestee to perform the request.

1. This is my favourite game. Can I play for a second? (Group 1-Grounder)
2. Hey, can I play your computer game it looks really fun. (English Control Group-Grounder)
3. Benim işim var PC'de verir misin? (Turkish Control Group-Grounder)
(I have something to do on the computer. Would you give it to me?)
4. Abla 4 saattir oturuyorsun . Ben de sıra. (Turkish Control Group-Grounder)
(Sister, you have been sitting for 4 hours. It is my turn now.)
5. Şimdi sıra bende. Ben oynayacağım. (Turkish Control Group-Grounder)
(It is my turn now. I will play with it.)

In example 6, the requester tries to reduce the imposition placed on the requestee by his request by pointing out that he will wait him until he finishes playing the game.

6. Can I play this game after you, please? (Group 1-Imposition Minimizer)

4. 2. 3. 2. External Modifications (= P)

In Situation 1 the four groups used the following external modification types: Grounder, Imposition Minimizer, Concern, Promise of Return, and Compliment. As can be seen in Table 11 below, Group 2 participants did not use any external modifications at all. Group 1 participants and participants of English Control Group used just very few external modifications. When compared to the other groups, participants of Turkish Control Group used the most number of external modifications in Situation 1.

Table 11. Distribution of External Modifications in Situation 1

Situation 1	Grounder	Imposition Minimizer	Concern	Promise of Return	Compliment	Total
Group 1		3				3
Group 2						-
Eng. Cont. Gr.				2		2
Tur. Cont. Gr.	4	6	1		1	12
TOTAL	4	9	1	2	1	17

The following student responses taken from the data represent some samples on the use of available External Modification types in Situation 1.

In the examples 7-8 below, the speaker promises the hearer to return what he has borrowed from the hearer.

7. Please could I borrow your notebook for a while? I will give it back.

(English Control Group-Promise of Return)

8. Please may I borrow your notebook? I'll give it back when I'm done.

(English Control Group-Promise of Return)

In the examples 9 below, the requester tries to persuade the requestee to perform the request.

9. Defterini verir misin? Biraz eksiklerim var da. (Turkish Control Group-Grounder)

(Could you give me your notebook? I need to complete mine.)

In the following example, the speaker compliments the requestee before a request is made.

10. Canım arkadaşım. Sen ne kadar güzelsin bugün. Defterini bana verebilir misin?

(Turkish Control Group-Compliment)

(My dear friend, how beautiful you are today. Could you give me your notebook?)

In Situation 3, the four groups used the following external modification strategies: Getting a Precommitment, Grounder, Promise of Reward, Imposition Minimizer, and Compliment. As can be seen in Table 12 below grounders were once again used most frequently by all groups. When compared to the other groups, participants of Turkish Control Group used the most number of external modifications in Situation 3.

Table 12. Distribution of External Modifications in Situation 3

Situation 3	Getting a Precom.	Grounder	Promise of Reward	Imposition Minimizer	Comp.	Concern	Total
Group 1		13					13
Group 2	1	4					5
Eng. Cont. Gr.		6	1	2		1	10
Tur. Cont. Gr.		15		3	1		19
TOTAL	1	38	1	5	1	1	47

The following student responses taken from the data represent some samples on the use of available External Modification types in Situation 3.

In the examples 11-14 below, the requester tries to persuade the requestee to perform the request.

11. Can you help me? I can't do my homework. (Group 1- Grounder)

12. Can you help my homework? It's very difficult for me. (Group 2- Grounder)

13. Here, I'm well stuck with my homework. Can you help me please?

(English Control Group- Grounder)

14. Soruyu yapamadım. Yardım edebilir misin? (Turkish Control Group- Grounder)

(I couldn't do the question. Could you help me?)

In the following example, the requester is checking on a potential refusal before requesting some help.

15. Can you do me a favour? Can you help me about my homework?

(Group 2- Getting a Precommitment)

The external modification type Promise of Reward is also associated with individualistic cultures. In example 16 below, the requester offers a reward due on fulfilment of the request.

16. Please can you help me with my homework and I will help you when you are stuck.

(English Control Group-Promise of Reward)

In Situation 10, the four groups used the following external modification types: Grounder, Promise of Reward, Imposition Minimizer, Concern, Promise of Return, and Compliment. As can be seen in Table 13 below, the external modification type most frequently used by all groups was Imposition Minimizer. When compared to the other groups, participants of Turkish Control Group used the most number of external modifications in Situation 10.

Table 13. Distribution of External Modifications in Situation 10

Situation 10	Grounder	Promise of Reward	Imposition Minimizer	Concern	Promise of Return	Comp	Total
Group 1	4		4				8
Group 2			3			1	4
Eng. Cont. Gr.		1	2		1		4
Tur. Cont. Gr.	4		11	2	6	1	24
TOTAL	8	1	20	2	7	2	40

The following student responses taken from the data represent some samples on the use of available External Modification types in Situation 10.

In the example 17 below, the requester tries to persuade the requestee to borrow his bicycle.

17. I need a bicycle. Can I use yours? (Group 1- Grounder)

In example 18, the requester offers a reward due on fulfilment of the request.

18. I will lend you my scooter if you lend me your bicycle.
(English Control Group- Promise of Reward)

In the example 19 below, the speaker promises the hearer to return the bicycle to the requestee.

19. Please may I borrow your bike? I will bring it back.
(English Control Group- Promise of Return)

4. 2. 3. 3. External Modifications: (- P)

The results revealed that the four groups had very similar frequency patterns in their selection from the external modification strategies in the (- P) directness level. As can be seen in Table 14 below the type most frequently used external modification type in Situation 2 was Grounder modification, followed by Imposition Minimizer and Concern as in Situation 2.

Table 14. Distribution of External Modifications in Situation 2

Situation 2	Grounder	Imposition Minimizer	Concern	Total
Group 1	3	1	1	5
Group 2	2			2
Eng. Cont. Gr.		4		4
Tur. Cont. Gr.	14	10		24
TOTAL	19	15	1	35

The following student responses taken from the data represent some samples on the use of available External Modification types in Situation 2.

In example 20, the requester tries to reduce the imposition placed on the requestee.

20. Please may I borrow your computer once you're done? (English Control Group-
Imposition Minimizer)

In the examples below, the requester tries to persuade the requestee.

21. Bilgisayardan kalkar mısın bana lazım da. (Turkish Control Group-Grounder)
(Could you leave the computer because I need it.)

22. Abi canım sıkıldı. Bilgisayar oynayabilir miyim? (Turkish Control Group-Grounder)
(Brother, I got bored. Can I play with the computer?)

The results revealed that in Situation 5, the four groups used the following external modification strategies: Getting a Precommitment, Grounder, Imposition Minimizer, and Concern. As can be seen in Table 15 below Grounders were once again used most frequently by all groups. We suggest that this might be due to the prompt presented in the written discourse completion test. It might be probable that participants emphasised that it was their favourite program by using grounders in their requests.

Table 15. Distribution of External Modifications in Situation 5

Situation 5	Getting a Precommitment	Grounder	Imposition Minimizer	Concern	Total
Group 1		19	1	1	21
Group 2	1	2	1		4
Eng. Cont. Gr.			1		1
Tur. Cont. Gr.		15	1		16
TOTAL	1	36	4	1	42

The following student responses taken from the data represent some samples on the use of available External Modification types in Situation 5.

In the examples below, the requester tries to persuade the requestee to watch TV.

23. There is my favourite TV program tonight. Can I watch it? (Group 1-Grounder)

24. *I finished my homework. Now, Can I watched my favourite TV program? (Group 1-Grounder)

In Situation 6, the four groups used the following external modification strategies: Grounder, Imposition Minimizer, Promise of Return, and Compliment. As can be seen in Table 16 below grounders were once again used most frequently by all groups.

Table 16. Distribution of External Modifications in Situation 6

Situation 6	Grounder	Imposition Minimizer	Promise of Return	Compliment	Total
Group 1	21				21
Group 2	3		1		4
Eng. Cont. Gr.	1		7	1	9
Tur. Cont. Gr.	9	8	1		18
TOTAL	34	8	9	1	52

The following student responses taken from the data represent some samples on the use of available External Modification types in Situation 6.

In the following situations, requesters are explaining why they needed some money.

25. I haven't got any money. Could you give me some money, please? (Group 1-Grounder)

26. I need to buy something important. Can you lend me some money? (Group 1-Grounder)

27. Could you lend me some money please I'm out. (English Control Group-Grounder)

In the examples 28 and 29 below, the speaker promises the hearer to return the money back.

28. Can you lend me some money and I will pay you back. (English Control Group- Promise of Return)

29. Please could I borrow a bit of money? Once I have enough I'll repay you.

(English Control Group-Promise of Return)

In situation 7, two external modification types were coded: Grounder and Imposition Minimizer. Table 17 below presents the distribution of external modification types of all four groups in Situation 7.

Table 17. Distribution of External Modifications in Situation 7

Situation 7	Grounder	Imposition Minimizer	Total
Group 1	3	3	6
Group 2	1	3	4
Eng. Cont. Gr.	1	2	3
Tur. Cont. Gr.	5	10	15
TOTAL	10	18	28

The following student responses taken from the data represent some samples on the use of available External Modification types in Situation 7.

In the following situations, requesters are explaining why they needed the pencil.

30. I have to do my homework but I don't have pencil. Can you give? (Group 1-Grounder)
31. I need a pencil. Can you give me? (Group 1-Grounder)
32. Can I borrow a pencil? I can't find mine. (English Control Group- Grounder)
33. Abla kalemim kırıldı. Sonra kalemini alabilir miyim? (Turkish Control Group-Grounder)
(My pencil is broken. May I take yours soon?)

The results revealed that in Situation 9, the four groups used the following external modification strategies: Grounder, Imposition Minimizer, Asking Hearer' Opinion, and Compliment. Table 18 below shows the distribution of external modification types used in Situation 9 by all the groups.

Table 18. Distribution of External Modifications in Situation 9

Situation 9	Grounder	Imposition Minimizer	Asking Hearer's Opinion	Compliment	Total
Group 1	8				8
Group 2	2	1			3
Eng. Cont. Gr.	1	1	2		4
Tur. Cont. Gr.	5	5	3	1	14
TOTAL	16	7	5	1	28

The following student responses taken from the data represent some samples on the use of available External Modification types in Situation 9.

In the following example, the requester tries to reduce the imposition placed on the requestee by his request by pointing out that he will be back soon.

34. May I go and play football with my friends if I am back for tea. (English Control Group-Imposition Minimizer)

In example 35 below, the speaker asks the hearer's opinion about the possibility of the request's being fulfilled.

35. Is it possible if I could play with my friends? (English Control Group -Asking Hearer's Opinion)

In the following example, the requester is trying to convince his mother to let him play football outside using a grounder modification.

36. Annecim arkadaşlarım dışarda. Beni de çağırıyorlar. Gidebilir miyim? (Turkish Control Group-Grounder)

(Mummy, my friends are out. They are calling me. May I go?)

The results revealed that the four groups had very similar frequency patterns in their selection from the external modification strategies in Situation 11. As can be seen in Table 19 below the type most frequently used external modification type in Situation 11 was “Grounder” modification, followed by Imposition Minimizer, Concern and Compliment as in Situation 2 and 8. The overuse of grounder modification in this situation might be due to the prompt presented in the data collection instrument. It might be possible that the given prompt: Yiğit/John could not understand the reading text, made participants explain the reason clearly.

Table 19. Distribution of External Modifications in Situation 11

Situation 11	Grounder	Imposition Minimizer	Concern	Compliment	Total
Group 1	63				63
Group 2	14				14
Eng. Cont. Gr.	9				9
Tur. Cont. Gr.	21	1	1	1	24
TOTAL	107	1	1	1	110

The following student responses taken from the data represent some samples on the use of available External Modification types in Situation 11.

In the following examples, the requester is explaining his reason for the request.

37. Mrs ..., I couldn't understand the text. Would you explain that again, please? (Group 1-Grounder)

38. * Help me! I'm an idiot. Can you explain? (Group 2-Grounder)

39. I can't say what the text says. Can you repeat it? (English Control Group-Grounder)

The results revealed that the four groups had very similar frequency patterns in their selection from the external modification strategies in Situation 12 as well. As can be

seen in Table 20 below the type most frequently used external modification type in Situation 12 was “Grounder” modification, followed by Getting a Precommitment, and Asking Hearer’s Opinion.

Table 20. Distribution of External Modifications in Situation 12

Situation 12	Getting a Precommitment	Grounder	Asking Hearer’s Opinion	Total
Group 1		16		16
Group 2	1	3		4
Eng. Cont. Gr.		3		3
Tur. Cont. Gr.		21	1	22
TOTAL	1	43	1	45

The following student responses taken from the data represent some samples on the use of available External Modification types in Situation 20.

In the following examples, the requester is explaining his reason for the request.

40. My parents are not here. Could you join to teacher-parent meeting? (Group 1-Grounder)

41. Dad, at school there is a teacher-parent meeting. Would you mind going? (English Control Group-Grounder)

In the following situation, the requester uses the external modification- Getting a Precommitment, in order to check on a potential refusal before making a request.

42. Can you do me a favour? Can you join my teacher-parent meeting? (Group 2-Getting a Precommitment)

4. 3. Pragmalinguistic Analysis of Requests of Group 1 and Group 2 Participants in the WDCT

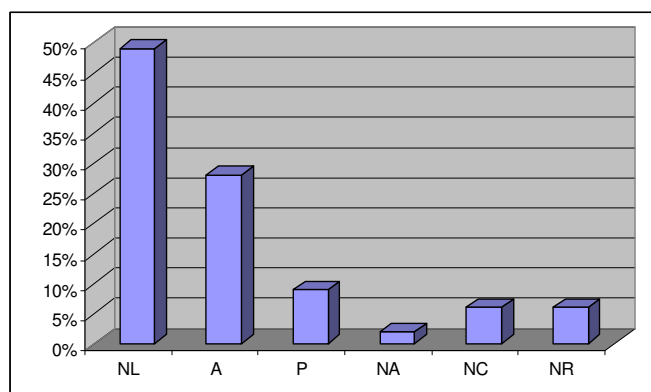
Taking Thomas's (1983) distinction between pragma-linguistic failure (errors resulting from non-native speakers knowing to correct thing to say, but not knowing how to say it correctly) and socio-pragmatic failure (errors not knowing what to say or not saying the appropriate thing as a result of L1 transfer), we also coded our non-native participants' responses to each 12 situation using the rating scale by Eisenstein and Bodman (1986:172) in order to analyse the data.

Since there were not any cases where participants tended to be resistant to any of the 12 situations, we did not include this category in the analysis. However, we counted participants' total number of missing responses and presented them under the subheading "No response". Table 21 and Figure 109 below summarize the total frequencies and percentages of "Not acceptable", "Problematic", "Acceptable", "Native-like/perfect", "Not comprehensible" and "No response" items of Group 1 Participants in each of the 12 request situations in the Written Discourse Completion Test.

Table 21. Rating Distribution of Responses of Group 1 Participants

Rating Scale	n	%
Native like/ perfect (NL)	1894	49%
Acceptable (A)	1091	28%
Problematic (P)	343	9%
Not acceptable (NA)	63	2%
Not comprehensible (NC)	242	6%
No response (NR)	231	6%
TOTAL	3864	100%

Figure 109. Percentage Distribution of Ratings of Group 1 Participants



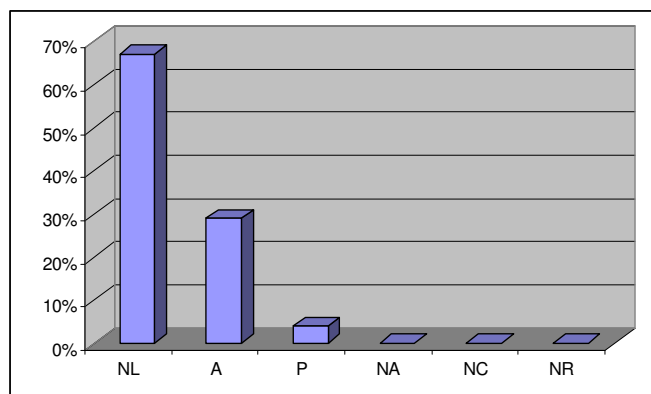
As illustrated in Table 21 above, the total number of 3864 request utterances of Group 1 participants was analysed using Eisenstein and Bodman's (1986:172) rating scale. According to the scale, 2% of the Group 1 participants' responses were rated as "Not acceptable", 9%, as "Problematic", 28%, as "Acceptable", 49%, as "Native like/perfect", and the rest 6%, as "Not comprehensible". Besides, participants did not respond to the 6% of the situations, which were rated as "No response". The overall results indicated that 77% of all responses were either "native like/ perfect" or "acceptable". However, 17% of the responses were either "Problematic" or "Not acceptable".

For Group 2, the total number of 408 request utterances was analysed using the same scale. Table 22 and Figure 110 below summarize the total frequencies and percentages of "Not acceptable", "Problematic", "Acceptable", "Native-like/perfect", "Not comprehensible" and "No response" items of Group 2 Participants in each of the 12 request situations in the Written Discourse Completion Test.

Table 22. Rating Distribution of Responses of Group 2 Participants

Rating Scale	n	%
Native like/ perfect (NL)	273	67%
Acceptable (A)	118	29%
Problematic (P)	16	4%
Not acceptable (NA)		
Not comprehensible (NC)		
No response (NR)	1	-
TOTAL	408	100%

Figure 110. Percentage Distribution of Ratings of Group 2 Participants



With regard to Group 2 participants, 4% of the responses were rated as “Problematic”, 29%, as “Acceptable”, and 67%, as “Native like/ perfect”. Furthermore, unlike in Group 1 data, there were not any “Not Acceptable”, “Not Comprehensible” and “No Response” items in Group 2 data. The rest 6% of the responses were rated as “Not comprehensible. The overall results for Group 2 participants indicated that 96% of all responses were either “Native like/ perfect” or “Acceptable”. Only the 4% of the data were coded as “Problematic”.

The rating distribution of the responses of Group 1 and Group 2 participants was analysed for each 12 situation. The results revealed that for each situation 68% to 84% of Group 1 participants' responses were "native like/ perfect" or "acceptable" and 10 to 22% as "problematic" or "not acceptable". Similarly, the results revealed that for each situation 85% to 100% of Group 2 participants' responses were "native like/ perfect" or "acceptable" and only 3 to 15% were "problematic" (For the rating distribution of Group 1 and Group 2 participants' responses to each 12 situation in the written discourse completion test see Tables 50 and 51 in Appendix F).

In the following part, we present the analysis of Group 1 and Group 2 participants' "problematic" and "acceptable" responses to each 12 request situation. To a total number of 1434 utterances of Group 1 participants and 134 utterances of Group 2 participants were grouped according to the basic syntactic and lexical problems.

The common syntactic and lexical problems appeared in the written responses of Group 1 participants are as follows:

- Omission of determiners: This is the most common type of problem appeared in the 40% of acceptable and problematic items, as follows:

In the example 1 below, the determiner "the" is missing in the NPs, notebook and computer. In example 3, "a" is missing in the NP, hamburger. The problems related to determiners may probably be due to L1 transfer.

1. * Can I borrow notebook please? (Situation 1)
2. * May I use computer? (Situation 2)
3. * May I take hamburger and coca-cola, please? (Situation 4)

- Problems with the use of verbs: This is the second most common type of problem appeared in the 30% of acceptable and problematic items:

In the examples 4 to 11 below, the problem is the extra use of prepositions. The prepositions in italics in these examples are incorrectly used:

- “to ride”

4. * Can I ride *to* your bicycle? (Situation 10)

5. * Can I ride *with* your bike? (Situation 10)

- “to play”

6. * Can I play *with* ball outside? (Situation 9)

- “to join”

7. * Can you join *to* teacher-parent meeting for me at my school?
(Situation 12)

8. * Could you join *in* teacher-parent meeting for me? (Situation 12)

- “to watch”

9. * May I watch *to* my favourite TV program please? (Situation 5)

- “to have” and “to use”

10. * Can I have *to* computer? (Situation 2)

11. * Can I use *to* your computer? (Situation 2)

Prepositions are difficult to learn for foreign language learners. Besides using extra prepositions, foreign language learners may also misuse (as in examples 12-17) or omit the prepositions (as in 18 and 19) as explained in the following examples:

- “to help”

12. * Could you help me *for* my homework? (Situation 3)

13. * Could you help me *to* my homework, please? (Situation 3)

14. * Could you help me *in* homework, please? (Situation 3)

15. * Could you help me *by* my homework? (Situation 3)

16. * Could you help me *at* my homework, please? (Situation 3)

17. * Could you help me *about* doing my homework? (Situation 3)

- “to go/to come”

18. * Could you go my school? (Situation 12)

19. * Could you come my teacher-parent meeting please? (Situation 12)

In the examples 20-24 below, the object is omitted. The problems related to the omission of objects may probably due to L1 transfer since Turkish allows the omission of objects. In the following examples objects are omitted:

- “to ride”

20. Can I ride? (Situation 10)

- “to repeat”

21. Could you repeat teacher? (Situation 11)

- “to read”

22. * Could you read, please? (Situation 11)

- “to say”

23. * Please say again for me. (Situation 11)

- “to repeat”

24. * Could you repeat teacher? (Situation 11)

In the following examples, the problems are related to the use of two-part verbs like to give, to take, to bring etc.

- “to give”, “to take”, “to bring”

25. * Can you give the notebook? (Situation 1)

26. * Can you bring hamburger and coca-cola? (Situation 4)

27. * Can you take hamburger and coca? (Situation 4)

- Misuse of verbs: This type of problem appeared in the 14% of acceptable and problematic items. In the following examples, learners misused verbs like borrow & lend, bring & take & give, ride & drive. In examples 28 and 29, they use “borrow” instead of “lend”, in 30 and 31, they use “bring” instead of “take”, in examples 32 and 33, they use “give” instead of “take” and “take” instead of “give”, as follows:

- 28. * Can you *borrow* me your notebook please? (Situation 1)
- 29. * Can you *borrow* me money please? (Situation 6)
- 30. * Can I *bring* your notebook please? (Situation 1)
- 31. * Can I *bring* a hamburger and coca cola please? (Situation 4)
- 32. * Can I *give* your notebook? (Situation 19)
- 33. * Can you *take* me money? (Situation 6)

- Overuse of Determiners: This appeared in the 8% of all acceptable and problematic items. In the following examples, learners used both definite and indefinite articles for a single noun.

- 34. * Please give me *a* your notebook. (Situation 1)
- 35. * May I watch *a* my favourite TV program? (Situation 5)
- 36. * Can I watch *the* my favourite program? (Situation 5)

- Misuse of verb forms: This type of problems constituted the 5% of all acceptable and problematic items. In the examples 37 and 38, learners used V-ing form instead of bare infinitive and in example 39, they used V-ed instead of bare infinitive.

- 37. * Can I *playing* with your computer? (Situation 2)
- 38. * May I *riding* your bicycle? (Situation 10)
- 39. * May I *watched* my favourite TV program? (Situation 5)

- Omission of verbs: This type of problems constituted the 4% of all acceptable and problematic items. In the examples below, learners omitted the verbs. As learners were provided some basic lexical clues such as notebook, homework, teacher-parent meeting etc.

in the discourse completion test, they have had no difficulties in using them. However, since they were expected to find and use the verbs themselves, they had difficulties in the following examples:

- 40. * Can I your notebook please? (Situation 1)
- 41. * Can I hamburger and coca-cola please? (Situation 4)
- 42. * Can I bicycle? (Situation 10)

- Problems with word order: This type of problems constituted the 3% of all acceptable and problematic items. In the following examples, probably due to L1 transfer, learners tended to use the verbs at the very end of the request utterance.

- 43. * Can I notebook borrow? (Situation 1)
- 44. * Can I favourite watch TV? (Situation 5)
- 45. * May I pencil borrow? (Situation 7)

- Misuse of indefinite article versus definite article and vice versa: This type of problems constituted the 3% of all acceptable and problematic items. In the example 46, learners used a definite article instead of an indefinite one. In the example 47, they used an indefinite article instead of a definite one.

- 46. * Please give me the hamburger and coca-cola. (Situation 4)
- 47. * Can I ride a bicycle? (Situation 10)

and others include:

- The use of “would like to” and “want to” instead of “would like” and “want”

- 48. * I *want to* a hamburger and coca-cola. (Situation 4)
- 49. * I *would like to* a hamburger and coca-cola. (Situation 4)

Besides, foreign language learners had some subordination problems. They had difficulties in using rather complex structures like relative clauses, “would you mind if ...? constructions and “let” structure as shown in the examples below:

- Misuse of relative clauses

- 50. * Can I watch my like TV program? (Situation 5)
- 51. * Can I watch the TV program which is I like the most. (Situation 5)
- 52. * Could you repeat the thing which is you said the last? (Situation 11)
- 53. * Can you repeat say? (Situation 11)

- Misuse of “Would you mind if ...”

- 54. * Could you mind if I use the computer? (Situation 2)
- 55. * Would you mind if I hamburger and coca-cola? (Situation 4)
- 56. * Would you mind if I TV program? (Situation 5)
- 57. * Would you mind if I watching my favourite TV program? (Situation 5)

- Misuse of “Let structure”

- 58. * Can you let me to play with the computer please? (Situation 2)
- 59. * Can you let me to watch the program? (Situation 5)
- 60. * Could you let me to play with my friend outside? (Situation 9)
- 61. * Can you let me to ride your bicycle? (Situation 10)

- Use of words in the L1

- 62. * Could you “getir” (bring) hamburger and coca-cola? (Situation 4)
- 63. * Can I play “top” (ball) ? (Situation 9)

Below, the common syntactic and lexical problems appeared in the written responses of Group 2 participants are shown:

- Problems with the use of verbs: This appeared in the 40% of all acceptable and problematic items. Like Group 1 participants, Group 2 participants also had

difficulties when using the verbs like to help, to play, to join, to repeat, to read, to say, to explain, as follows:

Prepositions are difficult to learn for foreign language learners. Foreign language learners may misuse (examples 64 to 67), omit (examples 68 and 69) or overuse (example 70) prepositions as explained in the following examples:

- to “help”

- 64. * Can you help me to my homework? (Situation 3)
- 65. * Can you help me of the homework? (Situation 3)
- 66. * Can you help me about my homework? (Situation 3)
- 67. * Can you help me for my homework? (Situation 3)

- using “play”

- 68. * Can I play the your computer? (Situation 2)
- 69. * Can I play a computer, please? (Situation 8)

- using “join”

- 70. * Can you join to my teacher-parent meeting day, please? (Situation 12)

In the examples below, the object is omitted. The problems related to the omission of objects may probably due to L1 transfer since Turkish allows the omission of objects. In the following examples objects are omitted:

- using “repeat”

- 71. * Can you repeat, please? (Situation 11)

- using “read”

- 72. * I can’t understand the paragraph. Can you read again, please?
(Situation 11)

- using “say”

73. * Teacher, I don't understand. Please can you say again? (Situation 11)

- using “explain”

74. * I can't understand the text. Can you explain again? (Situation 11)

- Omission of determiners: This appeared in the 32% of all acceptable and problematic items. In the examples 75 and 76 below, the determiner “the” is missing in the NPs, bicycle and teacher-parent meeting. The problem related to determiners may probably be due to L1 transfer.

75. * Can I ride bicycle? (Situation 10)

76. * Can you go to teacher-parent meeting for me? (Situation 12)

- Overuse of Determiners: This appeared in the 9% of all acceptable and problematic items. In the following examples, learners used both definite and indefinite articles for a single noun.

77. * Can I take *a your* pencil? (Situation 7)

78. * Can I ride *a your* bike, please? (Situation 9)

- Misuse of verbs with two objects (e.g. give): This appeared in the 5% of all acceptable and problematic items. In the example 79 below, the participant misused the two-part verb “to give”.

79. * Can you give some money, please? (Situation 6)

- Misuse of verb forms: This appeared in the 4% of all acceptable and problematic items. In the examples 80 and 81 below, participants preferred using V-ing instead of a bare infinitive. In example 82, they used V-ed instead of a bare infinitive.

80. * Can you help me to doing my homework? (Situation 3)

81. * Can I watching my best TV program? (Situation 5)

82.* Can I played your computer games? (Situation 8)

- Omission of verbs: This appeared in the 2% of all acceptable and problematic items. In the following examples, learners omitted the verbs. As learners were provided some basic lexical clues such as notebook, homework, teacher-parent meeting etc. in the discourse completion test, they have had no difficulties in using them. However, since they were expected to find and use the verbs themselves, they had difficulties in the following examples:

83. * Can I your notebook? (Situation 1)

84. * Can I hamburger and coca-cola please? (Situation 4)

85. * Can you again? (Situation 11)

- Misuse of indefinite article versus definite article and vice versa: This appeared in the 1% of all acceptable and problematic items. In the following example, the participant used an indefinite article instead of a definite one:

86. * Can I take a notebook, please? (Situation 1)

The results of pragmalinguistic analyses of the request utterances in written discourse completion tests revealed that the two groups- Group 1 and Group 2- differed significantly. Whereas the 96 % of all the requests of participants with experience in an English speaking country were rated as either native-like/perfect or acceptable, only the 77 % of the responses of learners without any experience in an English speaking country were rated as either native-like/perfect or acceptable. This suggested that exposure to the foreign language in the country where the target language is spoken is not only important for the development of pragmatic competence but also grammatical competence of foreign language learners.

It might be probable that providing learners with some basic vocabulary, such as notebook, computer, homework etc. in the cartoons, had some influence on the lexical problems appeared in the data. Besides, the pragmalinguistic analyses of request utterances were realised by two researchers, who are non-native speakers of the target language. Therefore, the common syntactic and lexical problems coded in the data might have been different if done by native speakers of the target language.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

The present study investigates the interlanguage request strategies of Turkish EFL children. In this respect, the study is an attempt to contribute the literature with data from young Turkish EFL learners by providing a preliminary understanding on how an individual Turkish child requests in English.

The participants of the study are in two main groups: 550 8th grade Turkish EFL learners attending 10 different private primary schools in Bursa, Turkey and 20 English native speaker children living at the Central London, England and attending primary schools there. The data are collected by means of a Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MCDCT) and a Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT) adapted from the Cartoon Oral Production Task (COPT) by Rose (2000). Both tests consist of 12 situations that are arranged relative to the perspective of Yiğit, a Turkish boy, attending a summer school in England. The same scenarios are also presented to Turkish and English native speaker children at the same age and they are asked to respond them in their L1 by writing down what they will say in the given situation.

In the data analyses procedure, three basic analyses are conducted. The data gathered from MCDCTs are analysed using SPSS 13 version and the data from WDCTs are analysed using the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realisation Project (CCSARP) coding scheme (Blum-Kulka et. al., 1989), which has been an established scheme of analysis. Two methods are employed in quantifying the data: frequency analysis and chi-square. Furthermore, non-native speakers' written data are also coded using Eisenstein and Bodman's (1986) rating scale in order to realise the types of pragmalinguistic failure.

The results are discussed in terms of interlanguage request strategies of 8th grade Turkish EFL learners depending on the variables like the test type, the interlocutor's status and age, and the time spent in an English speaking country. As the request situations in the data collection instruments make use of three sorts of requester-requestee relations related to social power: (a) requester with more power than requestee (+ P); (b) requester and requestee with equal power (= P); and (c) requester with less power than requestee (- P), the results are discussed in three levels according to the three degrees of directness. Subsequently, the request strategies, request strategy types, and external modifications used by 8th grade Turkish EFL learners are compared to those of English and Turkish native speakers at the same age. Finally, the pragmalinguistic analysis of request sequences is presented.

The results reveal a marked preference for conventional Indirectness by 8th grade Turkish EFL learners in twelve situations at three levels. Conventionally Indirect strategies are followed by direct strategies and non-conventionally indirect strategies are used only very rarely.

The test type is found to be a variable affecting the pragmatic comprehension and production of Turkish EFL learners. The results of the chi-square tests reveal that except for Situation 2, there are statistically significant differences in Turkish EFL learners' preference of interlanguage request strategies in the multiple choice and written discourse completion tests. It is found that while participants have a tendency to use a higher percentage of direct strategies when they are presented different request strategy options in the multiple choice test, they invariably use conventionally indirect request strategies in the written discourse completion tests. It is found that in the written discourse completion tests, 8th grade Turkish EFL learners rely on formulaic utterances such as "*Can I ?*", "*May I ?*", "*Could you ?*", which they are quite familiar with from their English classes and textbooks. A number of studies also support this finding (Blum-Kulka and Ohshtain, 1984; Eisenstein and Bodman, 1993; Doğançay-Aktuna and Kamışlı, 1997; Otçu and Zeyrek, 2008). In the multiple choice discourse

completion tests, however, they prefer direct strategies more presumably as a result of pragmatic transfer from their L1, Turkish. In Situation 2, where Yiğit is asking John's brother to use his computer, the percentages are quite similar in both tests. Such a difference in this context may be attributed to participants' desire to be more polite as they request something that might be considered as having a high degree of imposition from children's point of view. Such a finding indicated that there is little evidence that 8th grade Turkish EFL learners have some sort of sensitivity to the situational variation. This finding is in line with Rose's (2000) finding that Cantonese speaking children also develop sensitivity to the situational variation in the L2.

"Familiarity" is also found to have some influence on participants' use of request strategies. It is probable that as the requester feel that the requestee expects him to request in a direct manner as a confirmation of the "closeness" of their relationship, the participants use direct strategies more in such situations. Even though Yiğit and his two classmates are all equal in power, "John" is Yiğit's closer friend and he is sharing his home with Yiğit. Yiğit and John not only know each other but also have shared information each other. Thus, it is probably because of that reason that participants prefer using more direct strategies when talking to John rather than the other classmates. As indicated by Marquez Reiter (2000) when a speaker requests something from a person s/he is familiar with, she does so in the belief that his/her request will be granted. It is probable that the requestee expects the speaker to request in a direct manner as a confirmation of the "closeness" of their relationship.

In terms of the interlocutor's status and age, the distribution of request strategies in the three directness levels is quite similar. With regard to the interlocutor's status and age and preference of request strategies, the distribution of direct strategies indicate that there is little evidence of sensitivity to social power. The highest percentage of the direct strategy use in both tests is among the (+ P) situations and it is followed by (= P) and (- P) situations. Likewise, conventionally indirect strategies are used most in (= P)

situations and it is followed by (- P) and (+ P) situations. The use of non-conventionally indirect strategies is very limited in all the three directness levels.

The effect of experience in an English speaking country is also investigated as another variable in this study. The results reveal that conventional indirectness is the most common request strategy for EFL learners with experience in an English speaking country as well. Similarly, the results of the chi-square tests reveal that these participants also have a tendency to use a higher percentage of direct strategies in the multiple choice tests, however, they use more conventionally indirect strategies in the written discourse completion tests. The results of the chi-square tests reveal that these participants regard asking for a computer, asking to watch TV, asking for some money, and asking the teacher to re-explain something as more face threatening than other situations like asking for a pen, asking to play football outside, and asking someone to join the teacher-parent meeting. In the written discourse completion test, however, the two groups differ significantly. Participants with experience in an English speaking country employ more conventionally indirect strategies and less direct strategies when compared to those participants, who have never been in an English speaking country. In other words, the request strategies used by learners with experience in an English speaking country seem closer to those of English native speakers. Such a finding suggests that experience in an English speaking country may positively affect one's pragmatic performance as also stated by other researchers such as Röver, 1996; House, 1996; and Schauer, 2004. It is claimed that foreign language learners who even spend only 6 weeks or less abroad demonstrate a much superior knowledge of L2 pragmatics. Experience in an English speaking country enables non-native speakers to get exposed to some naturalistic input. Consequently, besides the formulaic utterances they have been exposed to in their English classes and textbooks in foreign language settings, learners acquire language for real communication.

Among the three request strategies, conventionally indirect strategies are found to be the most commonly used request strategy among English native speaker children.

Conventionally indirect strategies are preferred at least by 95% of English native speakers in all 12 request situations. With regard to the use of conventional indirectness, participants with experience in an English speaking country seem to indicate a slightly closer production (97%) to the native speaker norm when compared to those without any experience in an English speaking country (84%).

The analyses of the L1 (Turkish) data reveal that like English native speakers, Turkish native speakers have a clear preference for conventionally indirect request strategies (76%) in their L1. In their L1, Turkish native speakers use more direct strategies (20%) when compared to those of English native speakers use in their L1 and Turkish EFL learners in their L2. It is observed that when the smaller the social distance between the interlocutors, in their L1, Turkish speakers use direct strategies more.

In terms of the use of request strategy types there is a marked preference for conventional indirectness, namely query preparatory, across all participants independent of their status as native or foreign speakers with or without experience in an English speaking country. Previous studies have also found “Query Preparatory” as the most commonly used request strategy among advanced learners of English (Mızıkacı, 1991; Trosborg, 1995; Hill, 1997; Otçu, 2000; Rose, 2000; Yıldız, 2001; Adak, 2003; Han, 2005, Otçu and Zeyrek, 2008). One possible reason for the participants’ concentrated use of query preparatory is the nature of the input they are presented in their English lessons. As most of the course books present requests with “*Can you ...? / Could you ...? / May I ...?*” sort of patterns, foreign language learners learn them as routine formulas. Otçu and Zeyrek (2008) point out early introduction and use of Query Preparatory in the English classes motivates L2 learners to use it as the main request strategy type.

It is found that 8th grade Turkish EFL learners use the “Query Preparatory” strategy type by using modal verbs like “*Can*” or “*May*” or “*Could*”. The other conventionally indirect strategy type Suggestory Formulae is also very limited in the data. One of the

reasons of participants' not preferring this request strategy type may be instrument induced. As situations requiring "invitation" have not been included much in the data collection instrument, we may not expect learners to use this request strategy type much. Of all the five direct strategy types, participants basically use Mood Derivable and very limited use of Performatives, Hedged Performatives, and Obligation Statements, and Want statements are detected in the data (with an average of 1%). Mood Derivable is a simple structure and even foreign language learners may be able to use them easily in the request utterances. However, it is probable that since the participants have already developed the concept of politeness awareness both in their L1 and the L2, they avoid using these structures on purpose. Furthermore, the participants of the present study are coming from high socio-economic backgrounds and thus the language they use may represent the characteristics of this level. For this reason, the request strategy types used by participants from lower socio-economic levels may also be investigated as a follow up study and the results may be compared in the two participant groups. The other direct strategy types Performatives and Hedged Performatives are complex structures. They are bi-clausal and cause subordination. Consequently, we do not expect foreign language learners to be able to use these structures at this language proficiency. Like Mood Derivable, Obligation Statements and Want Statements are simple structures. It may be presumably due to the fact that Obligation Statements include imposition, participants prefer not using them much. Similarly, Want Statements are like Mood Derivable in that they are considered as impolite in request utterances and avoided. In a similar vein, the use of the non-conventionally indirect strategies is very rare in the overall data (below 1%). Hints especially Mild Hints are difficult to understand as they require inference. Thus, they are usually not preferred much.

Similarly, Group 2 participants used the "Query Preparatory" strategy type by using the same modal verbs: "Can" or "May" and "Could". In all the 12 request situations, participants' choice of query preparatory is very high. In the majority of the situations, all the participants prefer using a query preparatory strategy type. Only a single

participant uses a Suggestory Formulae, another type of conventionally indirect strategy in Situation 5. The total use of the all five direct strategy types is very limited in the data. A few participants use Mood Derivable, Performatives, Hedged Performatives, and Want Statements, (with an average of 1% for each direct strategy type). In a similar vein, the use of the non-conventionally indirect strategies is very rare in the overall data (below 1%).

The distribution of conventionally indirect strategies of English native speaker children is also concentrated on the use of “Query Preparatory” with either “*Can*”, “*Could*”, or “*May*”. In all of the 12 request situations, participants’ choice of query preparatory is very high ranging from 95% to 100 %, which means over 99% total distribution for conventionally indirectness in the whole baseline data.

The common request strategy type used by Turkish L1 learners is also found to be conventionally indirect strategy, more specifically “query preparatory” as also indicated by Mızıkacı (1991) in a previous study. Other request strategy types used included the following: Mood Derivable, Performatives, Obligation Statements, Want Statements, Suggestory Formulae, and Strong Hint.

The data reveal that Turkish native speakers have a clear preference for alerters. In their L2; however, Turkish EFL learners tend to use alerters even less than English native speakers. In their requests in Turkish, Turkish speakers do not use “please” often. In the data collected from English native speakers, however, “please” is used quite frequently. As previously stated by other researchers like Bayraktaroğlu and Sifianou (2001) and Zeyrek (2001) this may presumably be attributed to the collectivist nature of Turkish culture. For this reason, Turkish native speakers prefer using other external modifications such as imposition minimizers rather than politeness marker “please” in their request utterances. In their L2, Turkish EFL learners without any experience in an English speaking country use “please” more often than they did in their L1. Furthermore, probably as a result of their experience in an English speaking country,

Turkish EFL learners, who spend some time in such target language environments use “please” more.

The external modification type most frequently used by 8th grade Turkish EFL learners is “grounders”. Considering the “request” itself, in which requesters are supposed to give a good reason, an explanation, or a justification for their requests, it is natural for the participants of the study to use “grounders” as the most common external modification type. Grounders are also found as the most common external modification type by other researchers such as Marquez Reiter, 2000; Otçu, 2000; Rose, 2000, and Otçu and Zeyrek, 2008. The other external modification types used in the study include Imposition Minimizer and Concern. The external modification type most frequently used by Group 2 participants is grounders as well. The other most common external modifications of Group 2 participants are Getting a Precommitment, and Imposition Minimizers.

As in the L2 data, the most common external modification coded in the English baseline data is “grounders” (44 %). Furthermore, “Imposition Minimizer” is the second most common external modification type and “Promise of Return” is the third. The other external modification types coded in the baseline data include “Promise of Reward”, “Asking Hearer’s Opinion”, Concern, and Compliment.

As in the L2 data and English baseline data, the most common external modification coded in the L1 (Turkish) data is “grounders”. Furthermore, “Imposition Minimizer” is the second most common external modification type. Others include “Promise of Return”, “Asking Hearer’s Opinion”, Concern, and Compliment.

8th grade Turkish EFL learners’ responses in the WDCTs are also rated for pragmalinguistic failure. In terms of pragmalinguistic analyses of the requests in written discourse completion tests, the two groups differ significantly. Whereas 96% of all the requests of participants with experience in an English speaking country are rated as

either native-like/perfect or acceptable, only 77% of the responses of learners without any experience in an English speaking country are rated as either native-like/perfect or acceptable. This suggests that exposure to the foreign language in the country where the target language is spoken is not only important for the development of pragmatic competence but also grammatical competence of foreign language learners.

As can be clearly seen in the data, the most common syntactic and lexical problems appear in the data are quite similar in both groups of participants. For 8th grade Turkish EFL learners, the common syntactic and lexical problems encountered include: Omission of determiners and Problems with the use of the verbs.

5. 1. Implications and Further Research

The present study is of significance since it presents some sort of preliminary understanding on how Turkish EFL children at primary education request in English. Besides, the study has a certain role in identifying Turkish EFL children's current stage in the comprehension and production of request strategies and offers suggestions and implications on the kind of pragmatic competence Turkish EFL children in primary school settings need to acquire. Furthermore, such a study may constitute a source of knowledge for Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Teaching, and more specifically for the areas of curriculum design and materials development.

The findings of the present study show that Turkish EFL children at lower proficiency levels rely on formulaic utterances, which they are familiar with either from their English classes or textbooks. Thus, the findings of the study emphasise the need to consider the place of pragmatics in Turkish primary curriculum.

As stated by Bardovi-Harlig, Hartford, Mahan-Taylor, Morgan and Reynolds (1991), the role of pragmatics should be increased in English-language instruction. Classroom teachers can integrate pragmatics into the language curriculum by drawing on natural

conversations, students' observations, and incomplete dialogues in textbooks. They may also provide specific activities and guidelines for pragmatically-centred lessons. It is impossible to prepare students for every context, or even all of the most common situations they will face in natural language settings. They state that a position of a language teacher in a classroom is not to instruct students specifically in the intricacies of complimenting, direction-giving, or closing a conversation; however, to make students become more aware that pragmatic functions exist in language.

An even more important shortcoming is related to the course books. It is probable that the currently available materials do not refer to the underlying social strategies of speech behaviour. As pointed out by Boxer and Pickering (1995), and Billmyer and Varghese (2000) there is a mismatch between data from spontaneous speech, and data contrived through the native speaker intuitions of textbook developers. The researchers mention that the first problem is the great difference between the intuition about the speech act realization and naturalistic speech patterns. Another problem is that we often overlook entirely the important information on underlying social strategies of speech acts. Either very little or no information is given about the setting or context or relationship between speakers and addressees; and the exact nature and depth of the presentation is left in the hands of the individual teacher.

Similarly, Harlow (1990) recommends that when instructing students how to make requests for information and requests for service or express thanks, a teacher should clarify the relationship between age of the addressee and use of title of respect, as well as the effect of familiarity between speakers on the use of attention getters.

Tunçel (1999) further recommends that course books should include different usages of speech acts by considering the proficiency levels of students. It would also be a good idea to distribute speech acts to the whole book instead of handling different speech acts in a single unit.

Rose (2001) further suggests that as pragmatics teaching is one of our concern in EFL setting, where there not native speakers of the target language, it could be an idea for EFL teachers to dedicate some time for films when teaching particular speech acts.

As already suggested by Tunçel (1999), Karatepe (2001) and Atay (2005), awareness raising activities on interlanguage pragmatics might have some value in realising the various aspects of speech acts in the L1 and the target language. When possible, creating opportunities for primary school students and their teachers to spend some time in an English speaking country seems significantly important in the pragmatic development of a foreign language learner.

5. 2. Limitations of the study

The study has a number of limitations. One of the major limitations of the study is related to the participants. The findings of this study are limited with the data gathered from 8th grade Turkish EFL learners attending 10 different private primary schools in Bursa, Turkey. As a follow up study, some data may also be collected from students from other grades or from students attending state schools. Furthermore, by comparing and contrasting the comprehension and production of interlanguage request strategies of learners from different grades, we may conduct some developmental studies. The other limitation of the study is related to the data collection instrument. Although elicited data cannot fully reflect how participants would request in real life situations, such data may provide some indications of participants' request strategies. Besides, as the data collection instrument used in the present study has created a context in which all situations take place at school or family settings, it may be necessary to include some other situations that require different relations among speakers. Furthermore, as discussed in the results and discussion section, some of the findings such as the use of external modifications may be instrument induced. The other limitation is related to the data collection procedure. As the participants of the study are young learners, the study did not do situation assessment analysis about the

characteristics of the request situations focused on in the research. However, we tried to compensate it during the data collection of the pilot studies. Depending on the feedback and comments we obtained from the participants, we modified the data collection instrument. Another important limitation is about data triangulation. Besides written data, some oral data may be collected through role-plays etc. Finally, this research focused on interlanguage request strategies. Other speech acts may also be investigated in future studies. Despite these limitations, the present study contributed the literature with data from young Turkish EFL learners.

APPENDIX A
(The Research Permission)

T.C.
MİLLÎ EĞİTİM BAKANLIĞI
Eğitimi Araştırma ve Geliştirme Dairesi Başkanlığı

Sayı : B.08.0.EGD.0.33.05.311-**913/2948**
Konu : Araştırma İzni

03/06/2006

ANADOLU ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜNE


İlgi : 2106.2006 tarih ve B.30.2.ANA.0.70.00.01.400-527/6527 sayılı yazınız.

Üniversiteniz Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği Programı doktora öğrencisi Ayşegül ZINGİR GÜLTEN'in "İngilizce'de Rica Yapılarının Öğrenimi: İngilizce'yi Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğrenen Türk Çocuklarının Pragmatik Farkındalığı" konulu araştırmada veri toplama aracı olarak kullanılacak anketlerin, Bursa İli özel ilköğretim okullarında uygulama izin talebi incelenmiştir.

Üniversiteniz tarafından kabul edilen onaylı bir örneği Bakanlığımızda muhafaza edilen (4 sayfa - 18 sorudan oluşan) anketin belirtilen okullarda uygulanmasında bir sakınca görülmemektedir.

Araştırmanın bitiminde sonuç raporunun iki örneğinin Bakanlığımıza gönderilmesi gerekmektedir.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.


Cumaali DEMİRTAŞ
Bakan a.
Müsteşar Yardımcısı

Anadolu Üniversitesi Rektörlüğü	
Evrak Kayıt Servisi	
K. TARİHİ:	06 Temmuz 2006
K. NOSU:	8683

EKLER :
EK-1: Anket Örneği (1 Adet-4 Sayfa)
EK-2: Okul Listesi (1 Adet-1 Sayfa)

Eğitim Bil. Ens.
Yapı İşl. Md.

G.6.

GELEN EVRAK	
Kayıt Tarihi :	10.7.2006
Kayıt No su :	948

APPENDIX B

(The Multiple Choice Discourse Completion
Test for Group 1 and Group 2 Participants)

Cinsiyeti: Kız: Erkek:
 Doğum yılı:
 İngiltere/Amerika'da bulundunuz mu?
 Evet: Hayır: Süre:

Yiğit is a primary school student. Now, he is in England for a month. In England, he is staying with John and his family- John's mother, father, brother, sister, brother and his 7-year-old sister, Janet. He is going to a summer school there.

Please read the situations carefully and decide what Yiğit would say by choosing only one of the responses given below.

1. Yiğit asks to borrow his classmate's notebook.

- a) Give me your notebook.
- b) Could you give me your notebook, please?
- c) I would like to ask you to borrow your notebook.
- d) I don't want your notebook.
- e) I didn't come to class yesterday.

2. Yiğit asks John's brother to use his computer.

- a) Can you do me a favour? I need your computer.
- b) I would like to ask you to use your computer.
- c) Could I use your computer, please?
- d) I must send an e-mail to my parents.
- e) Computers are really fast nowadays.

3. Yiğit asks his classmate to help him with his homework.

- a) I can't solve this problem. Can you help me with my homework, please?
- b) Help me with my homework, please.
- c) I finished all my homework.
- d) I cannot do my homework.
- e) Would you mind helping me with my homework?

4. Yiğit asks the waiter for a hamburger and a coke.

- a) I would like to have a hamburger and a coke, please.
- b) Can I have a hamburger and a coke, please?
- c) I'm really hungry. Would you mind bringing me a hamburger and a coke?
- d) Give me a hamburger and a coke, please.
- e) I'm sorry. Where is the WC, please?

5. Yiğit asks John's father to watch his favourite TV program?

- a) I would like to watch this movie.
- b) Could you please let me watch the movie? It is holiday tomorrow.
- c) My favourite TV programs are documentaries and cartoons.
- d) How about watching TV together?
- e) This is my favourite movie.

6. Yiğit asks John's sister to give him some money.

- a) Can you do me a favour? I need some money.
- b) Give me some money, please.
- c) I don't have any money. Do you think you could give me some?
- d) Would you mind giving me some money?
- e) We are going to the cinema with my friends today.

7. Yiğit asks John's sister to borrow her pencil.

- a) Give me your pencil, please.
- b) I forgot my pencil at school.
- c) Would you mind giving me a pencil?
- d) Could I borrow your pencil, please?
- e) How about studying English together?

8. Yiğit asks Janet to play with her computer game.

- a) I'm sorry but I don't like this game at all.
- b) Could you please let me play the computer game?
- c) This is my favourite computer game.
- d) I want to play this computer game.
- e) Let me play the game, please.

9. Yiğit asks John's mother to play football with his friends at the play ground.

- a) All my friends are playing football at the play ground.
- b) Mum, please let me play football with my friends.
- c) Would you please let me play football with my friends?
- d) I want to play football with my friends.
- e) The weather is really cold today.

10. Yiğit asks John to borrow his bicycle.

- a) Lend me your bicycle, please.
- b) What a nice bicycle.
- c) I really wish to ride your bicycle.
- d) Could I borrow your bicycle, please?
- e) I love playing tennis very much.

11. Yiğit couldn't understand the reading text. He asks the teacher to explain it again.

- a) Excuse me, teacher. I couldn't understand the text.
- b) Could you please explain it again, teacher?
- c) Repeat it again, please.
- d) Teacher, I would like to ask you to repeat it.
- e) I will go out with my friends during the break.

12. Yiğit asks John's father to join the teacher-parent meeting at school for him.

- a) I love school.
- b) Could you join the meeting for me, please?
- c) There is a teacher-student meeting tomorrow.
- d) Join the meeting for me.
- e) I would like to ask you to join the teacher-parent meeting for me.

APPENDIX C
(The Written Discourse Completion Test
for Group 1 and Group 2 Participants)



Cinsiyeti: kız erkek

Doğum yılı:

İngiltere/ Amerika' da bulundunuz mu?

evet hayır süre:

Yiğit bir ilköğretim öğrencisidir.

Yaz okuluna katılmak üzere bir aylığına İngiltere' de John ve ailesinin misafirdir. John' un annesi, babası, ablası, ağabeyi ve küçük kız kardeşi Janet ile birlikte yaşamaktadır.

Lütfen resme dikkatle bakıp, verilen durumda Yiğit' in ne diyeceğini İngilizce olarak yazınız..



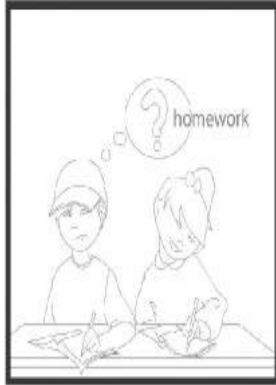
Yiğit sınıf arkadaşından defterini ödünç almak istiyor.

.....



Yiğit John' un ağabeyinden bilgisayarını kullanmak için izin istiyor..

.....



Yiğit sınıf arkadaşından ödevine yardımcı olmasını istiyor.

.....



Yiğit garsondan hamburger ve coca cola getirmesini istiyor.

.....



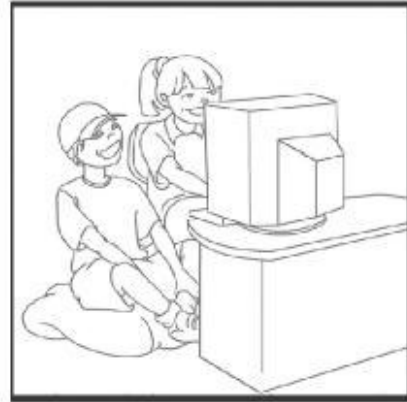
Yigit John'un babasından en sevdiği TV programını izlemek için izin istiyor.



Yigit John'un ablasından kendisine para vermesini istiyor.



Yigit John'un ablasından kalemını ödünç almak istiyor.



Yigit Janet'ten bilgisayar oyunu oynamak için izin istiyor.

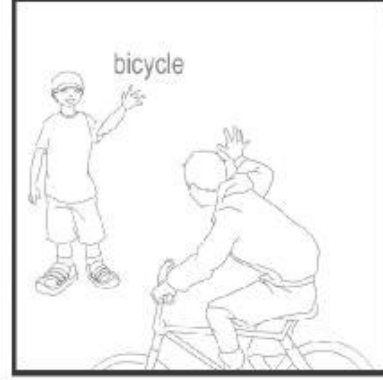


Yiğit John'un annesinden dışarıda arkadaşlarıyla top oynamak için izin istiyor.

.....

.....

.....



Yiğit John'ın bisikletine binmek için istiyor.

.....

.....

.....



Yiğit okuma parçasını anlayamadı. Öğretmenin birkez daha açıklamasını istiyor.

.....

.....

.....



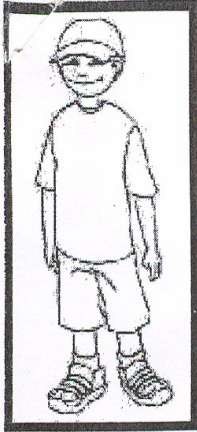
Yiğit John'ın babasından okuldaki veli toplantısına katılmasını istiyor.

.....

.....

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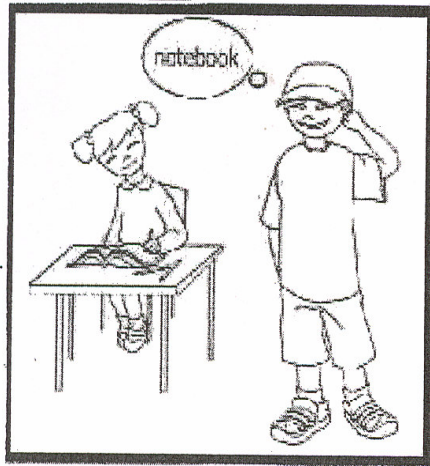
APPENDIX D
(The Written Discourse Completion Test
for English Control Group)



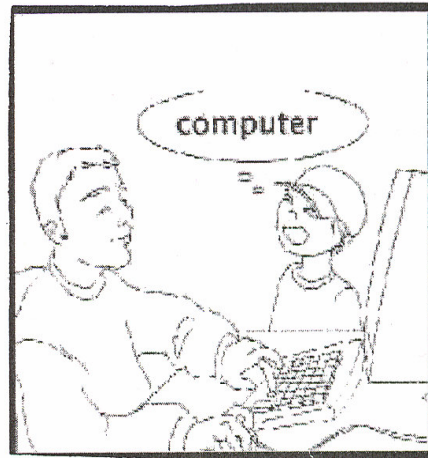
Gender: Female: Male:
Date of Birth:
Grade:

John is a 12-year-old primary school student.

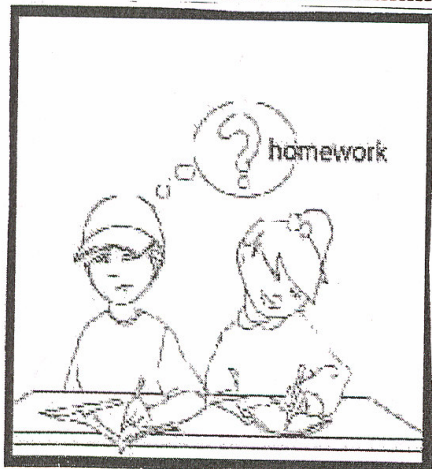
Please look at the cartoons and read the situations carefully and write down what John would say in the given situation.



John asks to borrow his classmate's notebook.



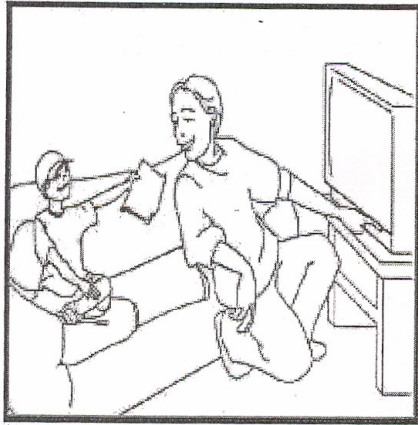
John asks his brother to use his computer.



John asks his classmate to help him with his homework.



John is at McDonald's and he asks the waiter for a hamburger and a coke.



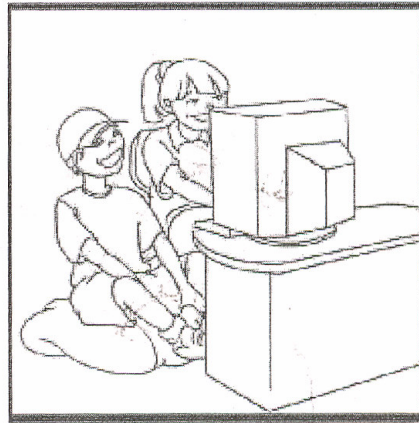
John asks his father to watch his favourite TV program.



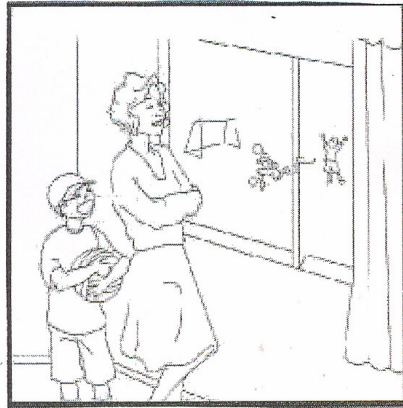
John asks his elder sister to give him some money.



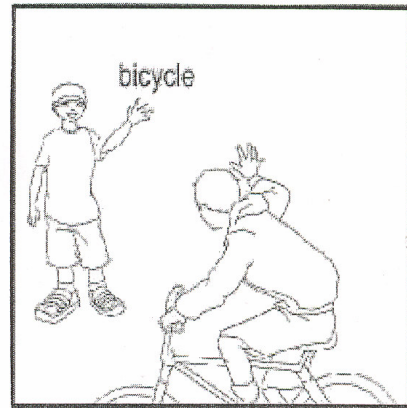
John asks his elder sister to borrow her pencil.



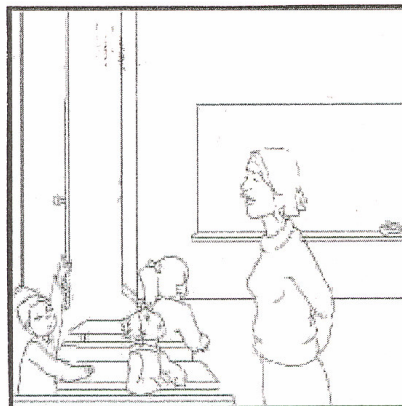
John asks his younger sister to play with her computer game.



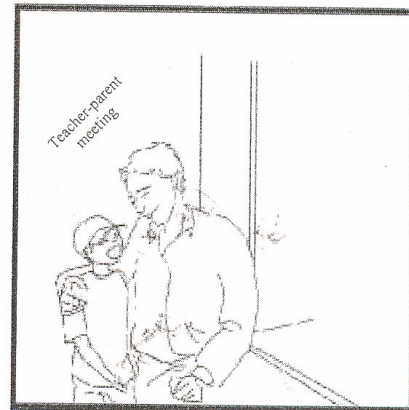
John asks his mother to play football with his friends at the playground.



John asks his friend to borrow his bicycle.



John couldn't understand the reading text. He asks the teacher to explain it again.



John asks his father to join the teacher-parent meeting at school for him.

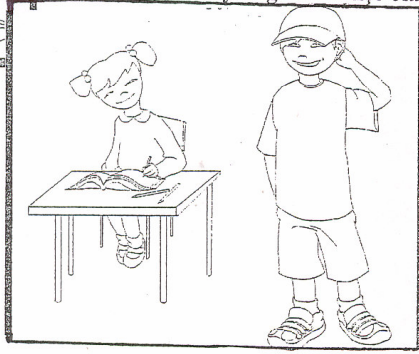
APPENDIX E
(The Written Discourse Completion Test
for Turkish Control Group)



Cinsiyeti:
Doğum Yılı:

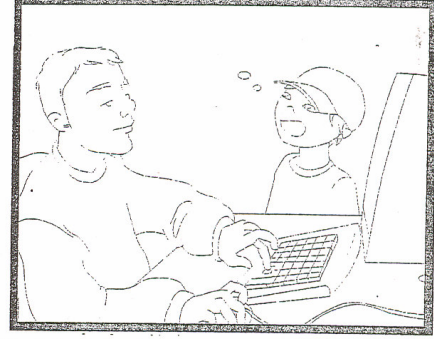
Yiğit bir ilköğretim okulu öğrencisidir.

Lütfen resme dikkatlice bakıp, verilen durumda Yiğit'in ne diyeceğini Türkçe olarak yazınız.



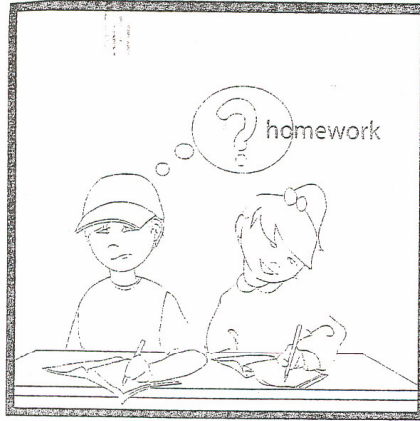
Yiğit sınıf arkadaşından defterini ödünç almak istiyor.

.....
.....
.....



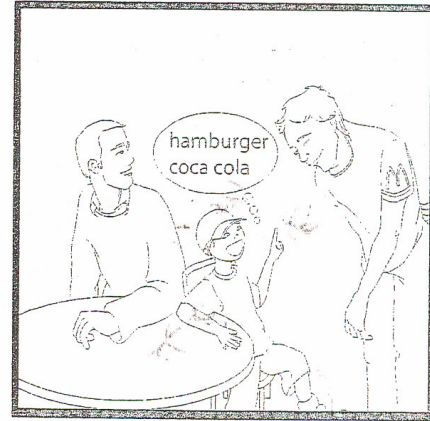
Yiğit ağabeyinden bilgisayarını kullanmak için izin istiyor.

.....
.....
.....



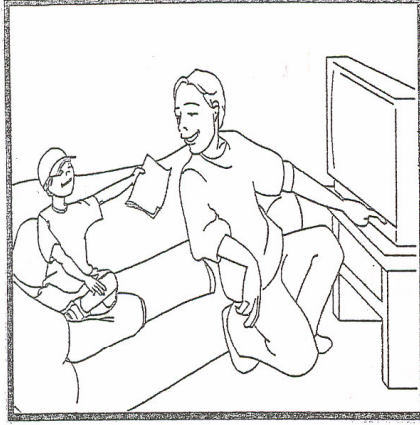
Yiğit sınıf arkadaşından ödevine yardımcı olmasını istiyor.

.....
.....
.....

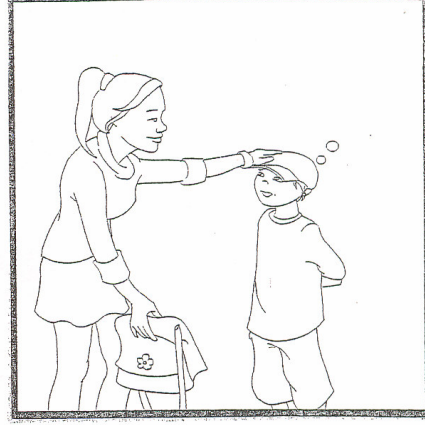


Yiğit garsondan hamburger ve coca-cola getirmesini istiyor.

.....
.....
.....



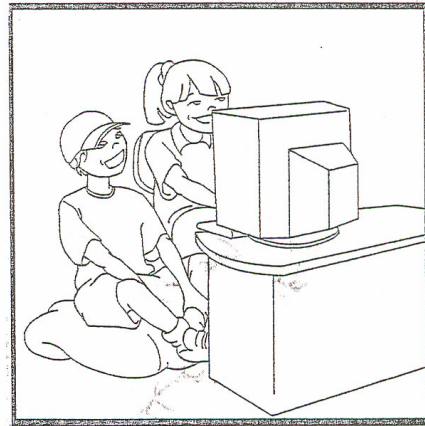
Yiğit babasından en sevdiği TV programını izlemek için izin istiyor.



Yiğit ablasından kendisine para vermesini istiyor.



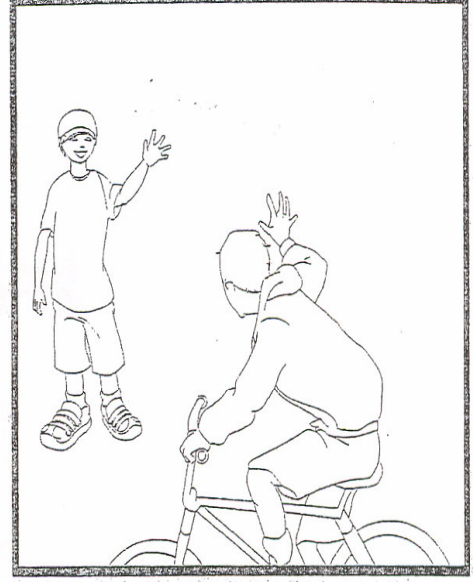
Yiğit ablasından kalemını ödünç almak istiyor.



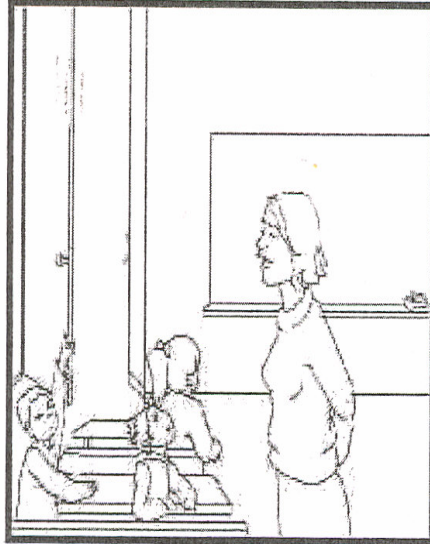
Yiğit kız kardeşinden bilgisayar oyunu ile oynamak için izin istiyor.



Yiğit annesinden dışarıda arkadaşları ile oynamak için izin istiyor.



Yiğit arkadaşının bisikletine binmek istiyor.



Yiğit okuma parçasını anlayamadı. Öğretmenin bir kez daha açıklamasını istiyor.



Yiğit babasından okullarında yapılacak olan veli toplantısına katılmasını istiyor.

APPENDIX F
(Tables)

Table1. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 Participants in MCDCTs

Situations		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
S1	n	66	407	3	9	485
	%	14	84	-	2	100
S2	n	37	418	28	2	485
	%	8	86	6	-	100
S3	n	99	365	4	17	485
	%	20	75	1	4	100
S4	n	195	283		7	485
	%	40	58		2	100
S5	n	93	334	28	30	485
	%	19	69	6	6	100
S6	n	96	372	13	4	485
	%	20	77	2	1	100
S7	n	102	348	21	14	485
	%	21	72	4	3	100
S8	n	124	315	29	17	485
	%	26	65	6	3	100
S9	n	151	290	34	10	485
	%	31	60	7	2	100
S10	n	106	343	20	16	485
	%	22	71	4	3	100
S11	n	67	244	156	18	485
	%	14	50	32	4	100
S12	n	111	324	29	21	485
	%	23	67	6	4	100
Total	n	1247	4043	365	165	5820
	%	21	70	6	3	100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 2. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 Participants in WDCTs

Situations		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
S1	n	20	294		8	322
	%	6	91		3	100
S2	n	18	284	2	18	322
	%	6	88	-	6	100
S3	n	20	284	3	15	322
	%	6	88	1	5	100
S4	n	92	215		15	322
	%	28	67		5	100
S5	n	8	276	1	37	322
	%	2	86	-	12	100
S6	n	24	276		22	322
	%	7	86		7	100
S7	n	15	284		23	322
	%	5	88		7	100
S8	n	18	275		29	322
	%	6	85		9	100
S9	n	12	276	4	30	322
	%	4	86	1	9	100
S10	n	19	275	2	26	322
	%	6	85	1	8	100
S11	n	24	258	1	39	322
	%	8	80	-	12	100
S12	n	12	263		47	322
	%	4	82		14	100
Total	n	282	3260	13	309	3864
	%	7	84	1	8	100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 3. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 2 Participants in MCDCTs

Situations		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
S1	n	5	30		1	36
	%	14	83		3	100
S2	n	2	30	4		36
	%	6	83	11		100
S3	n	2	29	3	2	36
	%	6	80	8	6	100
S4	n	18	18			36
	%	50	50			100
S5	n	4	28	4		36
	%	11	78	11		100
S6	n	5	31			36
	%	14	86			100
S7	n	9	24	2	1	36
	%	25	67	5	3	100
S8	n	9	27			36
	%	25	75			100
S9	n	12	22		2	36
	%	33	61		6	100
S10	n	5	30		1	36
	%	14	83		3	100
S11	n	3	19	14		36
	%	8	53	39		100
S12	n	9	22	5		36
	%	25	61	14		100
Total	n	83	310	32	7	432
	%	19	72	7	2	100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 4. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 2 Participants in WDCTs

Situations		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
S1	n %		34 100			34 100
S2	n %		34 100			34 100
S3	n %		34 100			34 100
S4	n %	7 21	26 76		1 3	34 100
S5	n %		34 100			34 100
S6	n %		34 100			34 100
S7	n %		33 97	1 3		34 100
S8	n %		34 100			34 100
S9	n %		33 97	1 3		34 100
S10	n %		34 100			34 100
S11	n %	1 3	33 97			34 100
S12	n %		34 100			34 100
Total	n %	8 2	397 97	2 1	1 -	408 100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 5. Distribution of Request Strategies of English Control Group

Situations		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
S1	n %		20 100			20 100
S2	n %		20 100			20 100
S3	n %		20 100			20 100
S4	n %	1 5	19 95			20 100
S5	n %		20 100			20 100
S6	n %		20 100			20 100
S7	n %		20 100			20 100
S8	n %		20 100			20 100
S9	n %		20 100			20 100
S10	n %		19 95	1 5		20 100
S11	n %		20 100			20 100
S12	n %		20 100 %			20 100
Total	n %	1 0,5	238 99	1 0,5		240 100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 6. Distribution of Request Strategies of Turkish Control Group

Situations		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
S1	n	7	41			48
	%	15	85			100
S2	n	11	37			48
	%	23	77			100
S3	n	5	43			48
	%	10	90			100
S4	n	17	30		1	48
	%	35	63		2	100
S5	n	3	40	5		48
	%	6	83	11		100
S6	n	8	39	1		48
	%	17	81	2		100
S7	n	14	33	1		48
	%	29	69	2		100
S8	n	15	31	2		48
	%	31	65	4		100
S9	n	15	32	1		48
	%	31	67	2		100
S10	n	7	41			48
	%	15	85			100
S11	n	1	42	3	2	48
	%	2	88	6	4	100
S12	n	10	27	11		48
	%	21	56	23		100
Total	n	113	436	24	3	576
	%	20	76	4	-	100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 7. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 Participants in Situation 4

Situation 4		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	195	283		7	485
	%	40	58		2	100
WDCT	n	92	215		15	322
	%	29	67		4	100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 8. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 2 Participants in Situation 4

Situation 4		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	18	18			36
	%	50	50			100
WDCT	n	7	26		1	34
	%	21	76		3	100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 9. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 Participants in Situation 8

Situation 8		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	124	315	29	17	485
	%	26	65	6	3	100
WDCT	n	18	275		29	322
	%	6	85		9	100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 10. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 2 Participants in Situation 8

Situation 8		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	9	27			36
	%	25	75			100
WDCT	n		34			34
	%		100			100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 11. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 Participants in Situation 1

Situation 1		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	66	407	3	9	485
	%	14	84	-	2	100
WDCT	n	20	294		8	322
	%	6	91		3	100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 12. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 2 Participants in Situation 1

Situation 1		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	5	30		1	36
	%	14	83		3	100
WDCT	n		34			34
	%		100			100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 13. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 Participants in Situation 3

Situation 3		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	99	365	4	17	485
	%	20	75	1	4	100
WDCT	n	20	284	3	15	322
	%	6	88	1	5	100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 14. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 2 Participants in Situation 3

Situation 3		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	2	29	3	2	36
	%	6	80	8	6	100
WDCT	n		34			34
	%		100			100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 15. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 Participants in Situation 10

Situation 10		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	106	343	20	16	485
	%	22	71	4	3	100
WDCT	n	19	275	2	26	322
	%	6	85	1	8	100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 16. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 2 Participants in Situation 10

Situation 10		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	5	30		1	36
	%	14	83		3	100
WDCT	n		34			34
	%		100			100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 17. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 Participants in Situation 2

Situation 2		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	37	418	28	2	485
	%	8	86	6	-	100
WDCT	n	18	284	2	18	322
	%	6	88	-	6	100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 18. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 2 Participants in Situation 2

Situation 2		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	2	30	4		36
	%	6	83	11		100
WDCT	n		34			34
	%		100			100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 19. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 Participants in Situation 5

Situation 5		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	93	334	28	30	485
	%	19	69	6	6	100
WDCT	n	8	276	1	37	322
	%	2	86	1	11	100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 20. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 2 Participants in Situation 5

Situation 5		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	111	324	29	21	485
	%	23	67	6	4	100
WDCT	n	12	263		47	34
	%	3	82		15	100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 21. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 Participants in Situation 6

Situation 1		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	96	372	13	4	485
	%	20	77	3	-	100
WDCT	n	24	276		22	322
	%	7	86		7	100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 22. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 2 Participants in Situation 6

Situation 6		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	5	31			36
	%	14	86			100
WDCT	n		34			34
	%		100			100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 23. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 Participants in Situation 7

Situation 7		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	102	348	21	14	485
	%	21	72	4	3	100
WDCT	n	15	284		23	322
	%	5	88		7	100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 24. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 2 Participants in Situation 7

Situation 7		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	9	24	2	1	36
	%	25	67	5	3	100
WDCT	n		33	1		34
	%		97	3		100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 25. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 Participants in Situation 9

Situation 9		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	151	290	34	10	485
	%	31	60	7	2	100
WDCT	n	12	276	4	30	322
	%	4	86	1	9	100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 26. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 2 Participants in Situation 9

Situation 9		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	12	22		2	36
	%	33	61		6	100
WDCT	n		33	1		34
	%		97	3		100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 27. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 Participants in Situation 11

Situation 11		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	67	244	156	18	485
	%	14	50	32	4	100
WDCT	n	24	258	1	39	322
	%	8	80	1	11	100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 28. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 2 Participants in Situation 11

Situation 11		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	3	19	14		36
	%	8	53	39		100
WDCT	n	1	33			34
	%	3	97			100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 29. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 Participants in Situation 12

Situation 12		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	111	324	29	21	485
	%	23	67	6	4	100
WDCT	n	12	263		47	322
	%	3	82		15	100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 30. Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 2 Participants in Situation 12

Situation 12		DS	CIS	NCIS	Missing	Total
MCDCT	n	111	324	29	21	485
	%	23	67	6	4	100
WDCT	n		34			34
	%		100			100

DS: Direct Strategy, CIS: Conventionally Indirect Strategy, NCIS: Non-Conventionally Indirect Strategy

Table 31. Overall Distribution of Request Strategy Types of Group 1

Situations		MD	P	HP	OS	WS	SF	QP	SH	MH	Total
S1	n	17	3					294			314
	%	5	1					94			100
S2	n	11	4	1		2		284	2		304
	%	4	1	-		1		93	1		100
S3	n	16	4					284	3		307
	%	5	1					93	1		100
S4	n	47	30	15				215			307
	%	15	10	5				70			100
S5	n	3	4		1			276	1		285
	%	1	2		-			97	-		100
S6	n	21	2	1			1	275			300
	%	7	1	-			-	92			100
S7	n	14	1					284			299
	%	5	-					95			100
S8	n	12	6				1	274			293
	%	4	2				-	94			100
S9	n	5	7					276	4		292
	%	1	2					96	1		100
S10	n	19						275	2		296
	%	6						93	1		100
S11	n	23		1				258	1		283
	%	8		-				92	-		100
S12	n	7		1		4	1	262			275
	%	3		-		2	-	95			100
Total	n	195	61	19	1	6	3	3257	13		3555
	%	6	2	-	-	-	-	92	-		100

MD: Mood Derivable, P: Performatives, HP: Hedged Performatives, OS: Obligation Statements, WS: Want Statements, SF: Suggestory Formulae, QP: Query Preparatory, SH: Strong Hints, MD: Mild Hints.

Table 32. Overall Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 2

Situations		MD	P	HP	OS	WS	SF	QP	SH	MH	Total
S1	n							34			34
	%							100			100
S2	n							34			34
	%							100			100
S3	n							34			34
	%							100			100
S4	n	3	3	1				26			33
	%	9	9	3				79			100
S5	n						1	33			34
	%						3	97			100
S6	n							34			34
	%							100			100
S7	n							33	1		34
	%							97	3		100
S8	n					2		32			34
	%					6		94			100
S9	n					2		32			34
	%					6		94			100
S10	n							34			34
	%							100			100
S11	n	1						33			34
	%	3						97			100
S12	n							34			34
	%							100			100
Total	n	4	3	1		4	1	393	1		407
	%	1	1	-		1	-	97	-		100

MD: Mood Derivable, P: Performatives, HP: Hedged Performatives, OS: Obligation Statements, WS: Want Statements, SF: Suggestory Formulae, QP: Query Preparatory, SH: Strong Hints, MD: Mild Hints.

Table 33. Distribution of Request Strategies of English Control Group

Situations		MD	P	HP	OS	WS	SF	QP	SH	MH	Total
S1	n %							20 100			20 100
S2	n %							20 100			20 100
S3	n %							20 100			20 100
S4	n %					1 5		19 95			20 100
S5	n %							20 100			20 100
S6	n %							20 100			20 100
S7	n %							20 100			20 100
S8	n %							20 100			20 100
S9	n %							20 100			20 100
S10	n %							19 95	1 5		20 100
S11	n %							20 100			20 100
S12	n %							20 100			20 100
Total	n %					1 0,5		238 99	1 0,5		240 100

MD: Mood Derivable, P: Performatives, HP: Hedged Performatives, OS: Obligation Statements, WS: Want Statements, SF: Suggestory Formulae, QP: Query Preparatory, SH: Strong Hints, MD: Mild Hints.

Table 34. Distribution of request strategies of Turkish Control Group

Situations		MD	P	HP	OS	WS	SF	QP	SH	MH	Total
S1	n	7						41			48
	%	15						85			100
S2	n	10			1			37			48
	%	21			2			77			100
S3	n	2	3					43			48
	%	4	6					90			100
S4	n	16		1				30			47
	%	34		2				64			100
S5	n	2				1	3	37	5		48
	%	4				2	6	77	11		100
S6	n	1	7					39	1		48
	%	2	15					81	2		100
S7	n	5	9					33	1		48
	%	10	19					69	2		100
S8	n	13	2				4	27	2		48
	%	27	4				9	56	4		100
S9	n	13		1		1		32	1		48
	%	27		2		2		67	2		100
S10	n	2	5					41			48
	%	4	10					86			100
S11	n	1						42	3		46
	%	2						91	7		100
S12	n	2	5		2	1	2	25	11		48
	%	4	11		4	2	4	52	23		100
Total	n	74	31	2	3	3	9	427	24		573
	%	13	5	-	1	1	1	75	4		100

MD: Mood Derivable, P: Performatives, HP: Hedged Performatives, OS: Obligation Statements, WS: Want Statements, SF: Suggestory Formulae, QP: Query Preparatory, SH: Strong Hints, MD: Mild Hints.

Table 35. Distribution of Modal Verbs of Group 1

Situations		Can	May	Could	Would	Shall	Would Mind	Should	Might	Others	Total
S1	n %		18 6	15 5	2 1					3 1	294 100
S2	n %	172 61	95 33	13 4		2 1				2 1	284 100
S3	n %	262 92	2 1	12 4	2 1		1 -			5 2	284
S4	n %	150 70	26 12	27 13	7 3	1 -	2 1			2 1	215
S5	n %	136 49	118 43	14 5	2 1		6 2				276 100
S6	n %	191 69	23 8	48 18	10 4	1 -				3 1	276 100
S7	n %	191 67	78 28	10 4	3 1	1 -				1 -	284 100
S8	n %	243 88	25 10	4 2	1 -		1 -	1 -			275 100
S9	n %	148 54	107 39	15 6	1 -	1 -	4 1				276 100
S10	n %	256 93	15 6	3 1			1 -				275 100
S11	n %	125 48	22 9	93 36	10 4	1 -	6 3		1 -		258
S12	n %	137 52	16 6	94 36	8 3	1 -	7 3				263 100
Total	n %	2267 70	545 17	348 11	46 1	8 -	28 1	1 -	1 -	16 -	3260

Table 36. Distribution of Modal Verbs of Group 2

Situations		Can	May	Could	Would	Shall	Total
S1	n	29	3	2			34
	%	85	9	6			100
S2	n	18	15			1	34
	%	53	44			3	100
S3	n	34					34
	%	100					100
S4	n	16	7	2	1		26
	%	61	27	8	4		100
S5	n	18	13	3			34
	%	53	38	9			100
S6	n	23	8	3			34
	%	68	23	9			100
S7	n	19	13	1			33
	%	58	39	3			100
S8	n	34					34
	%	100					100
S9	n	19	13	1			33
	%	58	39	3			100
S10	n	34					34
	%	100					100
S11	n	20	2	11			33
	%	61	6	33			100
S12	n	18		15	1		34
	%	53		44	3		100
Total	n	282	74	38	2	1	397
	%	71	19	10	-	-	100

Table 37. Distribution of Modal Verbs of English Control Group

Situations		Can	Could	May	Would Would it be possible	Will	Is it ok if...?	Am I allowed to...?	Total
S1	n %	14 70	1 5	4 20	1 5				20 100
S2	n %	11 55	3 15	6 30					20 100
S3	n %	17 85	2 10		1 5				20 100
S4	n %	10 53	3 16	6 31					19 100
S5	n %	13 65	4 20	3 15					20 100
S6	n %	16 80	3 15	1 5					20 100
S7	n %	13 65	5 25	2 10					20 100
S8	n %	15 75	3 15	2 10					20 100
S9	n %	16 80		1 5			2 10	1 5	20 100
S10	n %	18 95		1 5					19 200
S11	n %	16 80	4 20						20 100
S12	n %	9 45	4 20	2 10	2 10	3 15			20 100
Total	n %	168 71	32 13	28 12	4 2	3 1	2 1	1 -	238 100

Table 38. Distribution of Request Strategy Types in Situation 4

Situation 4		MD	P	HP	OS	WS	SF	QP	SH	MH	Total
Group 1	n	47	30	15				215			307
	%	15	10	5				70			100
Group 2	n	3	3	1				26			33
	%	9	9	3				79			100
Eng. Cont.Gr.	n					1		19			20
	%					5		95			100
Tur. Cont. Gr.	n	16		1				30			47
	%	34		2				64			100
Total	n	66	33	17		1		290			407
	%	16	8	4		-		72			100

MD: Mood Derivable, P: Performatives, HP: Hedged Performatives, OS: Obligation Statements, WS: Want Statements, SF: Suggestory Formulae, QP: Query Preparatory, SH: Strong Hints, MD: Mild Hints.

Table 39. Distribution of Request Strategy Types in Situation 8

Situation 8		MD	P	HP	OS	WS	SF	QP	SH	MH	Total
Group 1	n	12	6				1	274			293
	%	4	2				-	94			100
Group 2	n					2		32			34
	%					6		94			100
Eng. Cont.Gr.	n							20			20
	%							100			100
Tur. Cont. Gr.	n	13	2				4	27	2		48
	%	27	4				9	56	4		100
Total	n	25	8			2	5	353	2		395
	%	7	2			-	1	90	-		100

MD: Mood Derivable, P: Performatives, HP: Hedged Performatives, OS: Obligation Statements, WS: Want Statements, SF: Suggestory Formulae, QP: Query Preparatory, SH: Strong Hints, MD: Mild Hints.

Table 40. Distribution of Request Strategy Types in Situation 1

Situation1		MD	P	HP	OS	WS	SF	QP	SH	MH	Total
Group 1	n	17	3					294			314
	%	5	1					94			100
Group 2	n							34			34
	%							100			100
Eng. Cont.Gr.	n							20			20
	%							100			100
Tur. Cont. Gr.	n	7						41			48
	%	15						85			100
Total	n	24	3					389			416
	%	6	-					94			100

MD: Mood Derivable, P: Performatives, HP: Hedged Performatives, OS: Obligation Statements, WS: Want Statements, SF: Suggestory Formulae, QP: Query Preparatory, SH: Strong Hints, MD: Mild Hints.

Table 41. Distribution of Request Strategy Types in Situation 3

Situation 3		MD	P	HP	OS	WS	SF	QP	SH	MH	Total
Group 1	n	16	4					284			304
	%	5	1					93			100
Group 2	n							34			34
	%							100			100
Eng. Cont.Gr.	n							20			20
	%							100			100
Tur. Cont. Gr.	n	2	3					43			48
	%	4	6					90			100
Total	n	18	7					381			406
	%	4	2					94			100

MD: Mood Derivable, P: Performatives, HP: Hedged Performatives, OS: Obligation Statements, WS: Want Statements, SF: Suggestory Formulae, QP: Query Preparatory, SH: Strong Hints, MD: Mild Hints.

Table 42. Distribution of Request Strategy Types in Situation 10

Situation 10		MD	P	HP	OS	WS	SF	QP	SH	MH	Total
Group 1	n	19						275	2		296
	%	6						93	1		100
Group 2	n							34			34
	%							100			100
Eng. Cont.Gr.	n							19	1		20
	%							95	5		100
Tur. Cont. Gr.	n	2	5					41			48
	%	4	10					85			100
Total	n	21	5					369	3		398
	%	5	1					93	1		100

MD: Mood Derivable, P: Performatives, HP: Hedged Performatives, OS: Obligation Statements, WS: Want Statements, SF: Suggestory Formulae, QP: Query Preparatory, SH: Strong Hints, MD: Mild Hints.

Table 43. Distribution of Request Strategies in Situation 2

Situation 2		MD	P	HP	OS	WS	SF	QP	SH	MH	Total
Group 1	n	11	4	1		2		284	2		304
	%	4	1	-		1		93	1		100
Group 2	n							34			34
	%							100			100
Eng. Cont.Gr.	n							20			20
	%							100			100
Tur. Cont. Gr.	n	10			1			37			48
	%	21			2			77			100
Total	n	21	4	1	1	2		375	2		406
	%	5	1	-	-	1		92	1		100

MD: Mood Derivable, P: Performatives, HP: Hedged Performatives, OS: Obligation Statements, WS: Want Statements, SF: Suggestory Formulae, QP: Query Preparatory, SH: Strong Hints, MD: Mild Hints.

Table 44. Distribution of Request Strategies in Situation 5

Situation 5		MD	P	HP	OS	WS	SF	QP	SH	MH	Total
Group 1	n	3	4		1			276	1		285
	%	1	1		-			98	-		100
Group 2	n						1	33			34
	%						3	97			100
Eng. Cont.Gr.	n							20			20
	%							100			100
Tur. Cont. Gr.	n	2				1	3	37	5		48
	%	4				2	6	77	11		100
Total	n	5	4		1	1	4	366	6		387
	%	1	1		-	-	1	95	2		100

MD: Mood Derivable, P: Performatives, HP: Hedged Performatives, OS: Obligation Statements, WS: Want Statements, SF: Suggestory Formulae, QP: Query Preparatory, SH: Strong Hints, MD: Mild Hints.

Table 45. Distribution of Request Strategies in Situation 6

Situation 6		MD	P	HP	OS	WS	SF	QP	SH	MH	Total
Group 1	n	21	2	1			1	275			300
	%	7	1	-			-	92			100
Group 2	n							34			34
	%							100			100
Eng. Cont.Gr.	n							20			20
	%							100			100
Tur. Cont. Gr.	n	1	7					39	1		48
	%	2	15					81	2		100
Total	n	22	9	1			1	368	1		402
	%	6	2	-			-	92	-		100

MD: Mood Derivable, P: Performatives, HP: Hedged Performatives, OS: Obligation Statements, WS: Want Statements, SF: Suggestory Formulae, QP: Query Preparatory, SH: Strong Hints, MD: Mild Hints.

Table 46. Distribution of Request Strategies in Situation 7

Situation 7		MD	P	HP	OS	WS	SF	QP	SH	MH	Total
Group 1	n	14	1					284			299
	%	5	-					95			100
Group 2	n							33	1		34
	%							97	3		100
Eng. Cont.Gr.	n							20			20
	%							100			100
Tur. Cont. Gr.	n	5	9					33	1		48
	%	10	19					69	2		100
Total	n	19	10					370	2		401
	%	5	3					92	-		100

MD: Mood Derivable, P: Performatives, HP: Hedged Performatives, OS: Obligation Statements, WS: Want Statements, SF: Suggestory Formulae, QP: Query Preparatory, SH: Strong Hints, MD: Mild Hints.

Table 47. Distribution of Request Strategies in Situation 9

Situation 9		MD	P	HP	OS	WS	SF	QP	SH	MH	Total
Group 1	n	5	7					276	4		292
	%	2	2					95	1		100
Group 2	n					2		32			34
	%					6		94			100
Eng. Cont.Gr.	n							20			20
	%							100			100
Tur. Cont. Gr.	n	13		1		1		32	1		48
	%	27		2		2		67	2		100
Total	n	18	7	1		3		360	5		394
	%	5	2	-		1		91	1		100

MD: Mood Derivable, P: Performatives, HP: Hedged Performatives, OS: Obligation Statements, WS: Want Statements, SF: Suggestory Formulae, QP: Query Preparatory, SH: Strong Hints, MD: Mild Hints.

Table 48. Distribution of Request Strategies in Situation 11

Situation 11		MD	P	HP	OS	WS	SF	QP	SH	MH	Total
Group 1	n	23		1				258	1		283
	%	9		-				91	-		100
Group 2	n	1						33			34
	%	3						97			100
Eng. Cont.Gr.	n							20			20
	%							100			100
Tur. Cont. Gr.	n	1						42	3		46
	%	2						91	7		100
Total	n	25		1				353	4		383
	%	7		-				92	1		100

MD: Mood Derivable, P: Performatives, HP: Hedged Performatives, OS: Obligation Statements, WS: Want Statements, SF: Suggestory Formulae, QP: Query Preparatory, SH: Strong Hints, MD: Mild Hints.

Table 49. Distribution of Request Strategies in Situation 12

Situation 12		MD	P	HP	OS	WS	SF	QP	SH	MH	Total
Group 1	n	7		1		4	1	262			275
	%	3		-		2	-	95			100
Group 2	n							34			34
	%							100			100
Eng. Cont.Gr.	n							20			20
	%							100			100
Tur. Cont. Gr.	n	2	5		2	1	2	25	11		48
	%	4	11		4	2	4	52	23		100
Total	n	9	5	1	2	5	3	341	11		377
	%	3	1	-	1	1	1	90	3		100

MD: Mood Derivable, P: Performatives, HP: Hedged Performatives, OS: Obligation Statements, WS: Want Statements, SF: Suggestory Formulae, QP: Query Preparatory, SH: Strong Hints, MD: Mild Hints.

Table 50. Rating Distribution of Responses of Group 1 Participants

Situations		Not accept.	Problematic	Acceptable	Native- like	Not comp.	No response	Total
S1	n	10	32	55	217	6	2	322
	%	3	10	17	67	2	1	100
S2	n	7	11	72	200	22	10	322
	%	2	4	22	62	7	3	100
S3	n	9	15	127	119	41	11	322
	%	3	5	39	37	13	3	100
S4	n		56	129	113	16	8	322
	%		17	40	35	5	3	100
S5	n	3	24	86	164	19	26	322
	%	1	7	27	51	6	8	100
S6	n	9	51	50	180	14	18	322
	%	3	16	15	56	4	6	100
S7	n	4	40	36	211	20	11	322
	%	1	12	11	66	6	4	100
S8	n	3	22	117	138	18	24	322
	%	1	7	36	43	6	7	100
S9	n	5	10	93	172	17	25	322
	%	2	3	29	53	5	8	100
S10	n	7	30	72	181	13	19	322
	%	2	9	23	56	4	6	100
S11	n	3	36	103	116	28	36	322
	%	1	11	32	36	9	11	100
S12	n	3	16	151	83	28	41	322
	%	1	5	47	26	9	12	100
Total	n	63	343	1091	1894	242	231	3864
	%	2	9	28	49	6	6	100

Table 51. Rating Distribution of Responses of Group 2 Participants

Situations	Not accept.	Problematic	Acceptable	Native- like	Not comp.	No response	Total
S1	n %	1 3	2 6	31 91			34 100
S2	n %		8 24	26 76			34 100
S3	n %	1 3	17 50	16 47			34 100
S4	n %	2 6	15 44	16 47		1 3	34 100
S5	n %	5 15	2 6	27 79			34 100
S6	n %	1 3	6 18	27 79			34 100
S7	n %	1 3	2 6	31 91			34 100
S8	n %	1 3	16 47	17 50			34 100
S9	n %		8 24	26 76			34 100
S10	n %	1 3	7 21	26 76			34 100
S11	n %	1 3	13 38	20 59			34 100
S12	n %	2 6	22 65	10 29			34 100
Total	n %	16 4	118 29	273 67		1 -	408 100

APPENDIX G
(Figures)

Figure 1. Percentage Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 1 Participants in the MCDCT and WDCT

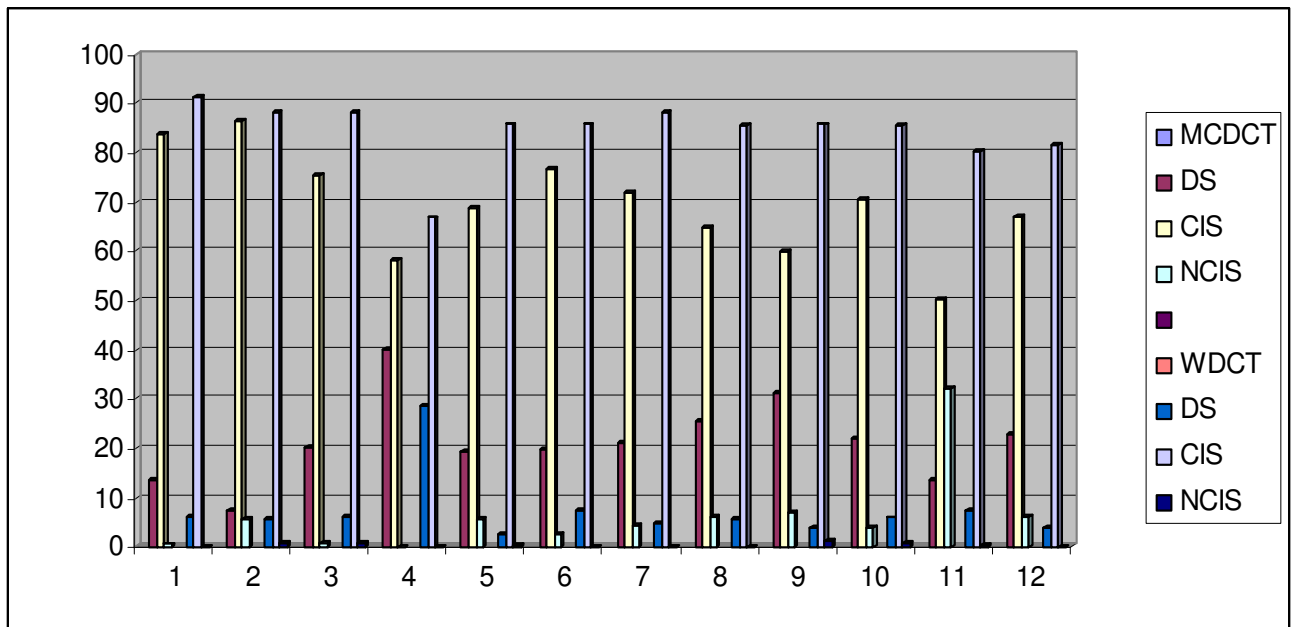
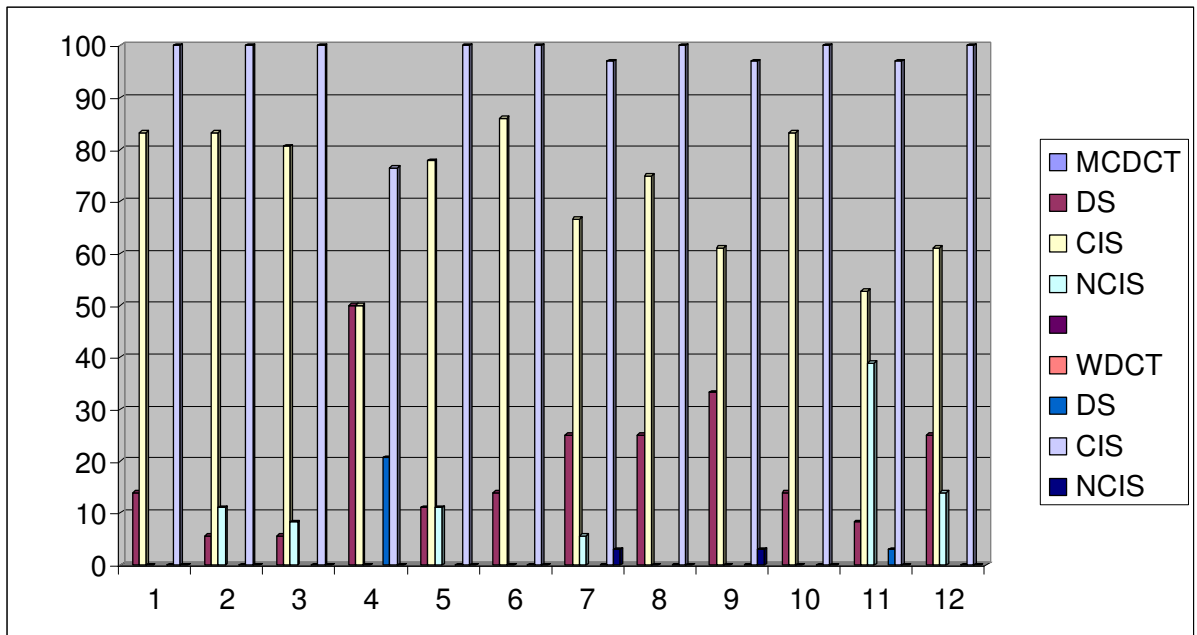


Figure 2. Percentage Distribution of Request Strategies of Group 2 Participants in the MCDCT and WDCT



APPENDIX H
(Statistical Results)

SRT_1 * S_1 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 1		TOTAL
		MCDCT	WDCT	
SRT_1	Direct	66	20	86
	C. Indirect	407	294	701
Total		473	314	787

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11,152(b)	1	,001		
Continuity Correction(a)	10,386	1	,001		
Likelihood Ratio	11,887	1	,001		
Fisher's Exact Test				,001	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	11,138	1	,001		
N of Valid Cases	787				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 34,31.

SRT_2 * S_2 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 2		TOTAL
		MCDCT	WDCT	
SRT_2	Direct	37	18	55
	C. Indirect	418	284	702
Total		455	302	757

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1,271(b)	1	,260		
Continuity Correction(a)	,969	1	,325		
Likelihood Ratio	1,299	1	,254		
Fisher's Exact Test				,317	,163
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,269	1	,260		
N of Valid Cases	757				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 21,94.

SRT_3 * S_3 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 3		TOTAL
		MCDCT	WDCT	
SRT_3	Direct	99	20	119
	C. Indirect	365	284	649
Total		464	304	768

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	30,547(b)	1	,000		
Continuity Correction(a)	29,431	1	,000		
Likelihood Ratio	33,758	1	,000		
Fisher's Exact Test				,000	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	30,508	1	,000		
N of Valid Cases	768				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 47,10.

SRT_4 * S_4 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 4		TOTAL
		MCDCT	WDCT	
SRT_4	Direct	195	92	287
	C. Indirect	283	215	498
Total		478	307	785

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9,449(b)	1	,002		
Continuity Correction(a)	8,988	1	,003		
Likelihood Ratio	9,567	1	,002		
Fisher's Exact Test				,002	,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	9,437	1	,002		
N of Valid Cases	785				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 112,24.

SRT_5 * S_5 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 5		TOTAL
		MCDCT	WDCT	
SRT_5	Direct	93	8	101
	C. Indirect	334	276	610
Total		427	284	711

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	50,324(b)	1	,000		
Continuity Correction(a)	48,780	1	,000		
Likelihood Ratio	60,661	1	,000		
Fisher's Exact Test				,000	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	50,253	1	,000		
N of Valid Cases	711				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 40,34.

SRT_6 * S_6 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 6		TOTAL
		MCDCT	WDCT	
SRT_6	Direct	96	24	120
	C. Indirect	372	276	648
Total		468	300	768

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	21,711(b)	1	,000		
Continuity Correction(a)	20,772	1	,000		
Likelihood Ratio	23,485	1	,000		
Fisher's Exact Test				,000	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	21,683	1	,000		
N of Valid Cases	768				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 46,88.

SRT_7 * S_7 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 7		TOTAL
		MCDCT	WDCT	
SRT_7	Direct	102	15	117
	C. Indirect	348	284	632
Total		450	299	749

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	42,457(b)	1	,000		
Continuity Correction(a)	41,128	1	,000		
Likelihood Ratio	48,424	1	,000		
Fisher's Exact Test				,000	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	42,400	1	,000		
N of Valid Cases	749				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 46,71.

SRT_8 * S_8 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 8		TOTAL
		MCDCT	WDCT	
SRT_8	Direct	124	18	142
	C. Indirect	315	275	590
Total		439	293	732

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	54,903(b)	1	,000		
Continuity Correction(a)	53,498	1	,000		
Likelihood Ratio	62,280	1	,000		
Fisher's Exact Test				,000	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	54,828	1	,000		
N of Valid Cases	732				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 56,84.

SRT_9 * S_9 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 9		TOTAL
		MCDCT	WDCT	
SRT_9	Direct	151	12	163
	C. Indirect	290	276	566
Total		441	288	729

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	90,767(b)	1	,000		
Continuity Correction(a)	89,043	1	,000		
Likelihood Ratio	108,255	1	,000		
Fisher's Exact Test				,000	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	90,643	1	,000		
N of Valid Cases	729				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 64,40.

SRT_10 * S_10 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 10		TOTAL
		MCDCT	WDCT	
SRT_10	Direct	106	19	125
	C. Indirect	343	275	618
Total		449	294	743

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	37,323(b)	1	,000		
Continuity Correction(a)	36,108	1	,000		
Likelihood Ratio	41,670	1	,000		
Fisher's Exact Test				,000	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	37,273	1	,000		
N of Valid Cases	743				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 49,46.

SRT_11 * S_11 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 11		TOTAL
		MCDCT	WDCT	
SRT_11	Direct	67	24	91
	C. Indirect	244	258	502
Total		311	282	593

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	19,337(b)	1	,000		
Continuity Correction(a)	18,347	1	,000		
Likelihood Ratio	20,123	1	,000		
Fisher's Exact Test				,000	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	19,305	1	,000		
N of Valid Cases	593				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 43,27.

SRT_12 * S_12 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 12		TOTAL
		MCDCT	WDCT	
SRT_12	Direct	111	12	123
	C. Indirect	324	263	587
Total		435	275	710

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	52,639(b)	1	,000		
Continuity Correction(a)	51,172	1	,000		
Likelihood Ratio	61,853	1	,000		
Fisher's Exact Test				,000	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	52,565	1	,000		
N of Valid Cases	710				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 47,64

srt_1 * s_1 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 1		TOTAL
		MCDCT	WDCT	
srt_1	Direct	5	0	5
	C. Indirect	30	34	64
Total		35	34	69

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5,237(b)	1	,022		
Continuity Correction(a)	3,327	1	,068		
Likelihood Ratio	7,167	1	,007		
Fisher's Exact Test				,054	,029
Linear-by-Linear Association	5,161	1	,023		
N of Valid Cases	69				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 2 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2,46.

srt_2 * s_2 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 2		TOTAL
		MCDCT	WDCT	
srt_2	Direct	2	0	2
	C. Indirect	30	34	64
Total		32	34	66

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2,191(b)	1	,139		
Continuity Correction(a)	,581	1	,446		
Likelihood Ratio	2,962	1	,085		
Fisher's Exact Test				,231	,231
Linear-by-Linear Association	2,158	1	,142		
N of Valid Cases	66				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 2 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,97.

srt_3 * s_3 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 3		TOTAL
		MCDCT	WDCT	
srt_3	Direct	2	0	2
	C. Indirect	29	34	63
Total		31	34	65

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2,263(b)	1	,132		
Continuity Correction(a)	,617	1	,432		
Likelihood Ratio	3,031	1	,082		
Fisher's Exact Test				,224	,224
Linear-by-Linear Association	2,228	1	,135		
N of Valid Cases	65				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 2 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,95.

srt_4 * s_4 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 4		TOTAL
		MCDCT	WDCT	
srt_4	Direct	18	7	25
	C. Indirect	18	26	44
Total		36	33	69

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6,176(b)	1	,013		
Continuity Correction(a)	4,993	1	,025		
Likelihood Ratio	6,342	1	,012		
Fisher's Exact Test				,023	,012
Linear-by-Linear Association	6,086	1	,014		
N of Valid Cases	69				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11,96.

srt_5 * s_5 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 5		TOTAL
		MCDCT	WDCT	
srt_5	Direct	4	0	4
	C. Indirect	28	34	62
Total		32	34	66

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4,524(b)	1	,033		
Continuity Correction(a)	2,595	1	,107		
Likelihood Ratio	6,066	1	,014		
Fisher's Exact Test				,050	,050
Linear-by-Linear Association	4,456	1	,035		
N of Valid Cases	66				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 2 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,94.

srt_6 * s_6 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 6		TOTAL
		MCDCT	WDCT	
srt_6	Direct	5	0	5
	C. Indirect	31	34	65
Total		36	34	70

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5,085(b)	1	,024		
Continuity Correction(a)	3,207	1	,073		
Likelihood Ratio	7,013	1	,008		
Fisher's Exact Test				,054	,031
Linear-by-Linear Association	5,013	1	,025		
N of Valid Cases	70				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 2 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2,43.

srt_7 * s_7 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 7		TOTAL
		MCDCT	WDCT	
srt_7	Direct	9	0	9
	C. Indirect	24	33	57
Total		33	33	66

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10,421(b)	1	,001		
Continuity Correction(a)	8,234	1	,004		
Likelihood Ratio	13,904	1	,000		
Fisher's Exact Test				,002	,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	10,263	1	,001		
N of Valid Cases	66				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 2 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4,50.

srt_8 * s_8 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 8		TOTAL
		MCDCT	WDCT	
srt_8	Direct	9	0	9
	C. Indirect	27	34	61
Total		36	34	70

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9,754(b)	1	,002		
Continuity Correction(a)	7,650	1	,006		
Likelihood Ratio	13,225	1	,000		
Fisher's Exact Test				,002	,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	9,615	1	,002		
N of Valid Cases	70				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 2 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4,37.

srt_9 * s_9 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 9		
		MCDCT	WDCT	TOTAL
srt_9	Direct	12	0	12
	C. Indirect	22	33	55
Total		34	33	67

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	14,188(b)	1	,000		
Continuity Correction(a)	11,889	1	,001		
Likelihood Ratio	18,836	1	,000		
Fisher's Exact Test				,000	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	13,976	1	,000		
N of Valid Cases	67				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5,91.

srt_10 * s_10 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 10		
		MCDCT	WDCT	TOTAL
srt_10	Direct	5	0	5
	C. Indirect	30	34	64
Total		35	34	69

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5,237(b)	1	,022		
Continuity Correction(a)	3,327	1	,068		
Likelihood Ratio	7,167	1	,007		
Fisher's Exact Test				,054	,029
Linear-by-Linear Association	5,161	1	,023		
N of Valid Cases	69				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 2 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2,46.

srt_11 * s_11 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATON 11		
		MCDCT	WDCT	TOTAL
srt_11	Direct	3	1	4
	C. Indirect	19	33	52
Total		22	34	56

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2,304(b)	1	,129		
Continuity Correction(a)	,973	1	,324		
Likelihood Ratio	2,271	1	,132		
Fisher's Exact Test				,289	,162
Linear-by-Linear Association	2,262	1	,133		
N of Valid Cases	56				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 2 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,57.

srt_12 * s_12 Crosstabulation

Count

		SITUATION 12		
		MCDCT	WDCT	TOTAL
srt_12	Direct	9	0	9
	C. Indirect	22	34	56
Total		31	34	65

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11,457(b)	1	,001		
Continuity Correction(a)	9,153	1	,002		
Likelihood Ratio	14,930	1	,000		
Fisher's Exact Test				,001	,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	11,281	1	,001		
N of Valid Cases	65				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 2 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4,29.

APPENDIX I
(Statistical Results)

Faktor * Evaluation1 Crosstabulation

Count		Evaluation1				Total
		DS	CIS	-	NCIS	
Faktor	Question1	66	407	7	3	483
	Question10	106	343	15	20	484
Total		172	750	22	23	967

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	30,237(a)	3	,000
Likelihood Ratio	31,905	3	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,579	1	,209
N of Valid Cases	967		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10,99.

Notes**Faktor * Evaluation2 Crosstabulation**

Count		Evaluation2				Total
		DS	NCIS	CIS	-	
Faktor	Question5	93	28	334	21	476
	Question7	102	21	348	13	484
Total		195	49	682	34	960

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3,519(a)	3	,318
Likelihood Ratio	3,540	3	,316
Linear-by-Linear Association	,695	1	,404
N of Valid Cases	960		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16,86.

Notes

Faktor * Evaluation3 Crosstabulation

Count

		Evaluation3				Total
		NCIS	CIS	DS	-	
Faktor	Question11	156	244	67	17	484
	Question12	29	324	111	19	483
Total		185	568	178	36	967

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	109,438(a)	3	,000
Likelihood Ratio	118,196	3	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	42,892	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	967		

a 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 17,98.

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