

**A Cross-cultural Investigation of Refusals by
Turkish-speaking EFL Learners: A Case Study**

Yasemin AKSOYALP

Submitted to the
Institute of Graduate Studies and Research
in partial fulfillment for the Degree of

Master of Arts
in
English Language Teaching

Eastern Mediterranean University
June, 2009
Gazimağusa, North Cyprus

ABSTRACT

The present study aimed to identify the refusal strategies used by the Turkish-speaking EFL teacher trainees, and also find out if there was any evidence of pragmatic transfer in their refusal realisations. For this purpose, two research questions were formulated. The first question aimed to investigate the strategies used by the Turkish-speaking EFL learners while performing the speech act of refusal, and the second question aimed to find out if there was any evidence of pragmatic transfer in their refusal responses.

This research study was designed as a qualitative case study which aimed to describe the current situation of the phenomena in terms of the Turkish-speaking EFL learners' pragmatic behaviour. To this end, three groups of subjects participated in the study. Two of them were the control groups, which included 16 native speakers of English (NSEs) for the English baseline data, 16 native speakers of Turkish (NSTs) for the Turkish baseline data. The third group of participants involved 150 Turkish-speaking EFL teacher trainees who were studying in the Department of ELT of the Faculty of Education at Eastern Mediterranean University.

The data were collected by means of a Discourse Completion Task (DCT) which was developed by Beebe et al. (1990). The original version of the DCT was given to the NSEs, the back-translated version of it was given to the NSTs and finally, the interlanguage (IL) data were elicited via the adapted version, which was distributed to the Turkish-speaking EFL teacher trainees. In order to gain more insight into the IL group's level of pragmatic competence, interviews were conducted with the three

instructors who were offering courses at the BA level and the course policy sheets and course materials were examined.

In order to identify the refusal strategies utilised by the IL group, the collected data were coded and categorised according to the refusal taxonomy proposed by Beebe et al. (1990) and Kwon (2003). In order to find out whether there was any evidence of pragmatic transfer in the refusal behaviours of the IL group, their refusal responses were compared to those of the baseline groups.

The results of the study showed cross-cultural differences and similarities between the research groups in performing the speech act of refusal with regard to the choice and frequency of strategies. Besides this, the type of eliciting speech act and the refuser's social status were also found to influence the refusal responses of the research groups. As for the pragmatic transfer, it was found out that the IL group exhibited three different patterns in their refusal responses. In other words, they were observed to converge with and/or divert from the NSEs regarding the choice and frequency of refusal strategies. In addition to these two patterns, the results pointed out that they also performed the speech act of refusal in a manner different from the baseline groups, which indicated they did not blindly copy the target or native pragmatic norms all the time but they were engaged in a creative construction process in interlanguage pragmatic development.

In light of the results, this study proposed some pedagogical implications which may help language teachers to enhance their students' level of pragmatic competence and minimise pragmatic failure regarding the use of speech acts, more specifically, the speech act of refusal.

Finally, it is hoped that the present study provides suggestions for further research. Some useful areas which are left open for further investigation include expanding the scope of inquiry by focusing on other speech acts such as complaints, apologies and suggestions, etc., collecting more authentic data, examining the content and order of semantic formulas and the relationship between the degree of pragmatic transfer and the learners' level of target language proficiency. The researchers may also aim to investigate the effects of instruction on developing the language learners' level of pragmatic competence. Such kinds of studies can make it possible to gain detailed insights into the pragmatic behaviours of the language learners in the target language.

Key words: pragmatic competence, pragmatic transfer, the speech act of refusal, refusal strategies, interlanguage pragmatics.

ÖZET

Bu çalışma, anadili Türkçe olan ve İngilizce öğrenen öğrencilerin kullandığı reddetme stratejilerini saptamayı hedeflemiştir, ayrıca bu araştırmanın diğer hedefi, aynı grup katılımcıların reddetme sözeylemini içeren yanıtlarında edimbilimsel aktarım olup olmadığını bulmaktır. Bu amaçla, iki araştırma sorusu oluşturulmuştur. İlk araştırma sorusu, Türkçe konuşan İngilizce öğrencilerin, reddetme sözeylemini gerçekleştirirken kullandıkları stratejileri tespit etmek ve reddetme sözeylemini içeren yanıtlarında edimbilimsel aktarım olup olmadığını bulmaktır.

Bu araştırma, anadili Türkçe olan ve İngilizce öğrenen öğrencilerin edimbilimsel davranışları bakımından mevcut durumun incelenmesini hedefleyen nitel bir durum çalışması olarak düzenlenmiştir. Bu amaçla, çalışmaya üç grup katılmıştır. İlk iki grup katılımcı, İngilizce ve Türkçe kaynak veriyi sağlamak üzere, 16 kişilik gruplardan oluşan ve anadili İngilizce ve Türkçe olan kontrol gruplarıdır. Üçüncü grup katılımcı ise, Doğu Akdeniz Üniversitesi, Eğitim Fakültesi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümü’de okuyan 150 İngilizce öğretmeni adayından oluşmaktadır.

Veriler, Beebe ve arkadaşları tarafından 1990 yılında geliştirilen söylem tamamlama aracı ile toplanmıştır. Bu veri toplama aracının özgün biçimi, anadili İngilizce olan katılımcılara, geri çeviri tekniği kullanılarak çevrilmiş biçimi ise, anadili Türkçe olan katılımcılara verilmiştir ve son olarak, aradil verisi, değişiklik yapılmış biçimiyle Türkçe konuşan İngilizce öğretmen adaylarına dağıtılmıştır. Adayların, edimbilimsel yeterliklerine ilişkin daha fazla bilgi almak için lisans programında dil

geliştirme dersi veren üç öğretim elemanı ile görüşmeler yapılmış, ders tanıtım formları ve ders materyalleri incelenmiştir.

İngilizce öğretmen adaylarının kullandığı reddetme stratejilerini saptamak için, toplanan veriler, Beebe ve arkadaşları (1990) ve Kwon (2005) tarafından geliştirilen reddetme sınıflamasına göre kodlanmış ve kategorilere yerleştirilmiştir. Ara dil verisinde edimbilimsel aktarım olup olmadığını bulmak için, İngilizce öğretmen adaylarından alınan veriler, kontrol gruplarından toplanan verilerle karşılaştırılmıştır.

Çalışmanın sonuçları, araştırma gruplarının reddetme söylemini gerçekleştirirken, strateji seçiminde ve kullanım sıklığında, kültürlerarası farklılıklar ve benzerlikler olduğunu göstermiştir. Bunun yanı sıra, sonuçlar, reddetmeyi gerektiren söylemin türünün ve reddeden kişinin sosyal statüsünün, katılımcıların reddetme biçimlerini etkilediğini ortaya koymuştur. Edimbilimsel aktarım konusunda ise, aradil grubunun, reddetme yanıtlarında üç farklı biçim sergiledikleri saptanmıştır. Bir başka ifadeyle, aradil grubu, reddetme stratejilerinin seçimi ve sıklığı bakımından, anadili İngilizce olan katılımcılara benzerlik ve/veya onlardan farklılık gösterdiği gözlenmiştir. Bu iki biçime ek olarak, sonuçlar, aradil grubunun, kontrol grubundan farklı bir biçimde reddettiğini de saptamıştır. Bu saptama, onların her zaman hedef ya da kaynak dilin edimbilimsel kurallarını kopya etmediğini ve edimbilimsel açıdan aradil gelişimlerinde yaratıcı bir süreç kullandıklarını göstermiştir.

Elde edilen sonuçlar ışığında, bu çalışma, dil öğretmenlerine, öğrencilerinin söylem, özellikle de reddetme söylemi bakımından, edimbilimsel yeterlik düzeylerinin gelişmesine ve edimbilimsel hataları en aza indirmelerine yardımcı olabilecek eğitsel uygulamalar önermiştir.

Sonuç olarak, bu çalışmanın, ileride yapılacak arařtırmalara öneriler sunması umulmaktadır. İleriki çalışmalar, řıkayet, özür dileme ve öneri gibi diđer söylemlere odaklanarak, gerçeđe daha yakın veri toplayarak, toplanan veriyi içerik ve kullanım sırası bakımından inceleyerek ve edimbilimsel aktarım oranı ile hedef dildeki yeterlik seviyesi arasındaki ilişkiye odaklanarak arařtırmanın boyutlarını genişletebilir. Ayrıca, arařtırmacılar öğretim etkisinin, dil öğrencilerinin edimbilimsel yeterlik düzeyi üzerindeki etkisini de arařtırabilirler. Bu tür çalışmalar, dil öğrencilerinin, hedef dilde sergiledikleri edimbilimsel davranıřlar hakkında daha detaylı bilgi edinilmesini mümkün kılabılır.

Anahtar kelimeler: edimbilimsel yeterlik, edimbilimsel aktarım, reddetme söylemi, reddetme stratejileri, dillerarası edimbilim.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am gratefully indebted to Assist. Prof. Dr. Javanshir Shibliyev and Assist. Prof. Dr. Fatoş Erozan for their genuine interest, constructive feedback. I deeply appreciate their intellectual and psychological contributions throughout the process of writing this thesis.

I would also like to express my sincere gratitude to the examining committee members, Prof. Dr. Sabri Koç, Prof. Dr. Ülker Vancı Osam, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Gülşen Musayeva Vefalı, and Assist. Prof. Dr. Sıtkiye Kuter for their invaluable feedback on the final draft of my thesis.

I am also grateful to the ELT Department administration for giving me the permission to conduct this study. Furthermore, I would like to thank the participants who contributed to this study and the students at Eastern Mediterranean University, Department of ELT for their cooperation.

My appreciation is also extended to Mr. John Sutherland, the principal of St. Giles College in Eastbourne in the UK, for allowing me to collect the English baseline data from the English teachers working there.

Finally, I would like to dedicate this thesis to my mother, who has made sacrifices to give me an opportunity to finish writing this thesis. Her unfailing love, understanding and support over time and distance certainly helped me to endure the difficult times away from home.

To my beloved mother...

Table of Contents

ABSTRACT.....	iii
ÖZET.....	vi
Acknowledgements.....	ix
Dedication.....	x
List of Tables.....	xiv
List of Figures.....	xv
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.0 Presentation.....	1
1.1 Background of the Study.....	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem.....	3
1.3 Purpose of the Study.....	4
1.4 Significance of the Study.....	5
1.5 Assumptions.....	6
1.6 Definition of Terms.....	7
CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	10
2.0 Presentation.....	10
2.1 The Concept of Pragmatics.....	10
2.1.1 Speech Act Theory.....	12
2.1.1.1 Felicity Conditions.....	13
2.1.1.2 Locutionary, Illocutionary and Perlocutionary Acts.....	15
2.1.1.3 Taxonomy of Speech Acts.....	16
2.1.1.4 Criticism of Speech Act Theory.....	17
2.1.2 Politeness Theory.....	18
2.2 Pragmatic Competence as Part of the Communicative Competence Construct.....	24
2.3 Interlanguage Pragmatics.....	32
2.3.1 Pragmatic Transfer.....	33

2.3.2 Studies on Pragmatic Transfer	35
2.3.3 Studies on the Speech Act of Refusals	41
2.4 Summary.....	45
CHAPTER 3 METHOD	47
3.0 Presentation	47
3.1 Overall Research Design	47
3.2 Context	48
3.3 Participants	50
3.3.1 Native Speakers of English and Turkish	50
3.3.2 Turkish-speaking EFL Learners.....	50
3.4 Data Collection Instrument.....	51
3.5 Data Collection Procedures	53
3.6 Data Analysis.....	54
3.7 Limitations and Delimitations of the Study.....	56
3.8 Summary.....	57
CHAPTER 4 RESULTS	58
4.0 Presentation.....	58
4.1 Results.....	58
4.1.1 Distribution of Refusal Strategies across the Research Groups.....	59
4.1.2 Refusals of Requests (situations 12, 2, 1).....	60
4.1.3 Refusals of Invitations (situations 4, 10, 3).....	71
4.1.4 Refusals of Suggestions (situations 6, 5, 8)	80
4.1.5 Refusals of Offers (situations 11, 9, 7).....	93
4.2 Summary.....	104
CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSION	105
5.0 Presentation.....	105
5.1 Discussion of Results.....	105
5.1.1 Research Question 1	105
5.1.2 Research Question 2	111
5.1.2.1 Distribution of Refusal Strategies across the Research Groups.....	111
5.1.2.2 The Use of Individual Refusal Strategies.....	112

5.1.2.2.1 Refusals of Requests	112
5.1.2.2.2 Refusals of Invitations.....	117
5.1.2.2.3 Refusals of Suggestions.....	120
5.1.2.2.4 Refusals of Offers	124
5.2 Summary.....	127
5.3 Pedagogical Implications.....	127
5.4. Suggestions for Further Research.....	133
REFERENCES.....	136
APPENDICES.....	144
APPENDIX A: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS.....	145
APPENDIX B: DISCOURSE COMPLETION TASK.....	146
APPENDIX C: DISCOURSE COMPLETION TASK (Turkish version).....	152
APPENDIX D: INFORMED CONSENT FORM.....	158
APPENDIX E: INFORMED CONSENT FORM (Turkish version)	159
APPENDIX F: DISCOURSE COMPLETION TASK FOR THE IL GROUP.....	160
APPENDIX G: TAXONOMY OF REFUSALS	167
APPENDIX H: L1 DATA COLLECTION WORKSHEET.....	170
APPENDIX I: AWARENESS-RAISING QUESTIONS WORKSHEET.....	171
APPENDIX J: A SAMPLE LIST OF REFUSALS GIVEN BY THE NSEs.....	172

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1 Total numbers and frequencies of direct refusals, indirect refusals and adjuncts to refusals	59
Table 4.2 Frequency of semantic formulas in refusals of requests	60
(situations 12, 2, 1)	
Table 4.3 Frequency of semantic formulas in refusals of invitations	71
(situations 4, 10, 3)	
Table 4.4 Frequency of semantic formulas in refusals of suggestions.....	81
(situations 6, 5, 8)	
Table 4.5 Frequency of semantic formulas in refusals of offers.....	93
(situations 11, 9, 7)	
Table 5.1 Types of strategies used by the IL group in their refusals of request..	106
(situations 12, 2, 1)	
Table 5.2 Types of strategies used by the IL group in refusals of invitations.....	107
(situations 4, 10, 3)	
Table 5.3 Types of strategies used by the IL group in refusals of suggestion.....	108
(situations 6, 5, 8)	
Table 5.4 Types of strategies used by the IL group in refusals of offers	109
(situations 11 , 9, 7)	

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 A schematic representation of Brown and Levinson's politeness.....	20
model	
Figure 2.2 Savignon's components of communicative competence.....	28
Figure 2.3 Bachman's model of communicative competence.....	29
Figure 2.4 Celce-Murcia et al.'s model of communicative competence.....	30

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Presentation

This chapter is composed of five sections. The first section provides background information of the study. The second section introduces the statement of the problem. In the third section, the aim is to mention the significance of the study. The fourth section presents the assumptions which this study is based on. Finally, the last section provides the definitions of the terms used throughout the study.

1.1 Background of the Study

Recent decades have witnessed major shifts in our understanding of knowledge about language learning and teaching, which have resulted in a new focus in the way the languages are learned and taught. One of the most consequential incentives behind this shift of focus has been considered to be the fundamental departure from earlier theoretical frameworks toward a more communicative point of view, which regards language more than an isolated set of grammatical rules.

In parallel with this paradigm shift, education policy passed through a drastic change, as well. As Galvin (2003) states, individuals came to realize the need to be educated and learn different languages to take advantage of the opportunities available in today's fast-paced world.

In line with this changing pedagogical landscape in the field of language teaching, the notion of communicative competence, which was coined by the sociolinguist Dell Hymes in 1972, was anchored in the field in the late 1970s. This term paved the way for different models of communicative competence, which involved not only grammatical competence but also pragmatic competence as one of its crucial components (Bachman, 1990; Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell, 1995). The second component, pragmatic competence, refers to the language learners' ability to manipulate available linguistic resources and sociocultural knowledge about the target language in accordance with a given context (Rose and Kasper, 2001).

The notion of pragmatic competence led to the growing recognition in the literature of the need to examine language learners' development of pragmatic competence from cross-sectional and longitudinal perspectives. Increasing amount of interest in the language learners' pragmatic development has given rise to a new area of research known as interlanguage pragmatics, which receives due attention throughout the study.

In response to the aforementioned changes experienced in the field of language teaching across the world, English language policy implemented in the Turkish context started to focus on the development of the learners' communicative capacity to prepare them to use the language in pragmatically appropriate ways (Kırkgöz, 2007). As Kırkgöz (2007) indicates, especially the 1997 education reform marked the beginning of a new phase in which the English language teaching policy aimed to enhance the communicative capacity of Turkish learners of English. Furthermore, the curriculum was revised in accordance with the communicative view to English language teaching.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The field of foreign language teaching methodology has always been in search of finding better ways to maximise the outcome of learning and teaching process. Therefore, this field has experienced the rise and fall of many teaching methods dating back to the 19th century when the Grammar Translation Method was enthusiastically embraced. However, the need for using the target language in an appropriate way levelled the criticisms at the structural view, which is mainly based on the mastery of grammatical rules. This alteration in the way the languages were viewed and taught resulted in the birth of a functional view, which laid the foundation of communicative language teaching.

The birth of the functional view in the field drew scholarly attention to the significance of culture in the language learning and teaching process. For this reason, there has been an increased amount of attention paid to the inextricable link between language and culture. In Mitchell and Myles's words, researchers and teachers have started to recognize the fact that "language and culture are not separable but acquired together, with each providing support for the development of the other" (1998, p. 183).

Despite the fact that the field has seen a significant migration toward using the language in socially and culturally appropriate ways, the pragmatic component of the language has often been relegated to a subsidiary position in English language classes in general and Turkish EFL teacher education programmes in particular (Karatepe, 2001). However, as Karatepe (2001) points out, what is neglected here is that this shift of focus is unlikely to be achieved in an EFL context since exposure to authentic language use is very restricted. Therefore, in most cases, EFL learners

complain that although they can produce grammatically and syntactically well-formed sentences, they still fail to use pragmatically appropriate linguistic expressions.

In order to minimise pragmatic violations on part of our students and enhance our students' pragmatic competence in instructional settings, first of all, we need to be aware of the current stage in respect to the interlanguage pragmatics continuum on which our students are presently located. Then, we need to enrich the approaches, methods and techniques which we use in the classroom by theory and research on interlanguage pragmatics.

To achieve the aims mentioned above, the present study aspires to examine the pragmatic productions of the Turkish-speaking EFL learners (i.e., strategies used in realising the speech act of refusal) and find out if there is any evidence of pragmatic transfer in their refusal performances.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The present study aims to (i) investigate the strategies used by Turkish learners of English while performing the speech act of refusal and (ii) search for evidence of pragmatic transfer in the refusal strategies used by Turkish learners of English. Based on the aims mentioned above, the present research attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the strategies used by Turkish-speaking EFL learners while performing the speech act of refusal?
2. Is there any evidence of pragmatic transfer in the refusal strategies used by Turkish-speaking EFL learners?

1.4 Significance of the Study

The present study can be considered significant in several aspects. First of all, existing literature on pragmatic behaviour of language learners has been confined to a rather small set of speech acts such as requests, thanking, and greeting. Although the speech act of refusal may be more challenging for language learners, it has remained an under-researched area (Chang, 2008). It is, therefore, necessary that more research be conducted to shed light on the refusal behaviour of language learners, thus supplementing and broadening the existing body of research on the speech act of refusal.

Secondly, when compared to the substantial body of research carried out to explore the pragmatic competence of students learning English as a second language, it is possible to notice that the studies performed in EFL settings which bring about serious challenges to the teaching of pragmatics are limited (Rose, 1994). Hence, it is hoped that this study may add to the cross-sectional interlanguage pragmatics research by investigating the refusal strategies used by Turkish-speaking EFL learners.

Thirdly, the participants of the study make it significant. Unlike the previous studies conducted so far, this study involves Turkish-speaking EFL learners who are studying at the undergraduate programme of the English Language Teaching Department of Eastern Mediterranean University. For this reason, such a study may have a contribution to identifying prospective teachers' current stage in interlanguage pragmatics.

Finally, the study seems to have practical significance since findings may provide valuable insights into the field of second language acquisition, second/foreign

language education, and more specifically, into the field of English language teaching.

1.5 Assumptions

The present study is based on the assumptions indicated below:

1. Native speakers across different language backgrounds resort to similar formulas to perform a specific speech act; however, the form and choice of these formulas which vary from one culture to another are governed by different socio-cultural constraints such as the relationships between interlocutors, age, gender, etc.
2. It is assumed that a native speaker of a language develops grammatical and pragmatic competence simultaneously, but students who learn English in an EFL setting develop a higher awareness regarding the grammatical features of English and, therefore, they tend to experience more difficulty in using English in pragmatically appropriate ways.
3. Although foreign language learners attain or are supposed to attain a good command of the target language (i.e., English) at the levels of syntax, pronunciation, lexis and grammar, they may still depend on the socio-cultural norms of their native language while performing speech acts in the target language (i.e., pragmatic transfer).
4. When the students are informed about the purpose of the study, it is assumed that they will cooperate and agree to complete the discourse completion task and pay attention to the role given to them and use the actual words that they think might use in an actual conversation.

1.6 Definition of Terms

The terms adopted throughout the study are used to refer to the definitions specified in the following way:

Pragmatics:

Pragmatics is “the study of language from the point of view of users, especially the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication” (Crystal, 1997, cited in Rose and Kasper, 2001, p. 2).

Interlanguage pragmatics:

Interlanguage pragmatics is defined as “the branch of second language research which studies how non-native speakers understand and carry out linguistic action in a target language and how they acquire L2 pragmatic knowledge” (Kasper, 1992, p. 203).

Communicative competence:

Communicative competence refers to “the knowledge of not only if something is formally possible in a language, but also the knowledge of whether it is feasible, appropriate or done in a particular speech community” (Hymes, 1972, p. 284).

Pragmatic competence:

Pragmatic competence which is a significant component of the construct of communicative competence signifies the knowledge which learners employ in order to perform a speech act successfully when interacting with the native speakers of the target language in a particular cultural and social setting. It involves the knowledge of the linguistic resources required to realize a speech act and of socio-cultural constraints which govern the use of these linguistic resources (Bachman, 1990).

Pragmatic transfer:

Pragmatic transfer refers to “the influence exerted by learners’ pragmatic knowledge of languages other than the target language on their comprehension, production and learning of pragmatic information in the target language” (Kasper, 1992, p. 207).

Speech act:

Speech act can be defined as the action performed by means of utterances. In other words, speech acts are the core units of human communication. Requests, apologies, complaints, refusals are among the examples of speech acts (Thomas, 1995).

The concept of face:

Central to the politeness theory proposed by Brown and Levinson in 1987, the concept of face is composed of a person’s feeling of self-worth or self-image. It is examined in two parts: positive face which refers to the desire to be approved of and appreciated by other people, and negative face which consists of the desire not to be imposed on by others (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

Face-threatening act:

It is an act which runs contrary to the addressee’s self-image. For instance, the speech act of refusal is regarded as a potential face-threatening act since the risk of offending the addressee is inherent in the act itself (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

Discourse completion task:

It is a type of written data collection instrument used in interlanguage pragmatics research. It consists of brief descriptions of several situations followed by a short dialogue with an open response. To complete the unfinished dialogue, the participants are asked to write what is coherent and appropriate for them in a particular context (Yuan, 2001). In the present study, the situations presented by the

discourse completion task require the participants to refuse requests, invitations, offers and suggestions.

Pragmalinguistic realisation of speech acts:

Pragmalinguistic realisation of speech acts refers to the knowledge and ability of using linguistic resources available in the target language for performing particular communicative intentions (Hinkel, 2005).

Sociopragmatic constraints:

Sociopragmatic constraints refer to the factors such as social distance, dominance, amount of imposition which influence interlocutors' interpretation and performance of communicative actions (Byon, 2004).

Pragmatic failure:

Pragmatic failure is defined as "the inability to understand what is meant by what is said" (Thomas, 1983, p. 91).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 Presentation

This chapter reviews the theoretical and empirical literature pertinent to the present study. It consists of three main sections. Firstly, the concept of pragmatics (2.1) is investigated through two related theories: Speech Act Theory (2.1.1) and Politeness Theory (2.1.2). Then, the concept of pragmatic competence is thoroughly discussed and clarified in relation to the framework of communicative competence (2.2). Finally, the last part of this chapter provides a detailed account of interlanguage pragmatics (2.3) under three subsections: the notion of pragmatic transfer (2.3.1), a review of related studies on pragmatic transfer (2.3.2) and studies on the speech act of refusals (2.3.3).

2.1 The Concept of Pragmatics

The concept of pragmatics was first introduced by Charles Morris (1938 cited in Levinson, 1983), who distinguished it along with other two categories, namely, syntax and semantics. Arguing that neither syntax nor semantics takes into account its users, Morris (1938) proposed the concept of pragmatics, which studies “the relations of signs to interpreters” (cited in Levinson, 1983, p.1).

Although pragmatics had its roots in semiotics, it was not until the 1970s that this area of research came to be recognised as a separate discipline. Before the contribution of key figures such as Austin (1962), Searle (1969) and Grice (1975), researchers such as Chomsky (1957) and Saussure (1959) had merely focused on isolated linguistic structures. Both Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance and Saussure's concepts of *langue* and *parole* did not take the notion of communication into account. In other words, the real use of language in a particular context was left aside. For this reason, as Levinson (1983) points out, in the 1970s, interest in pragmatics appeared as a counterattack to Chomsky's use of language as an abstract system. Particularly, As Huang (2007) points out, Levinson's (1983) seminal work entitled *Pragmatics* systematised the field and marked the coming of the age of pragmatics as a linguistic discipline in its own right. Since then pragmatics has been defined differently by several scholars as discussed below.

According to Levinson (1983), pragmatics is "the study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with the context in which they would be appropriate" (p. 24). Similarly, Mey (1993) regards pragmatics as "the study of the conditions of human language uses as these are determined by the context of society" (p. 42). The importance of context was also emphasised by Jaszczolt (2002), who states "pragmatics is the study of how hearers add contextual information to the semantic structure and how they draw inferences from what is said" (p. 1).

As Kasper (1997) indicates, one of the most elaborate and appealing definition of pragmatics was put forward by David Crystal (1985), who considered pragmatics as "the study of language from the point of view of users, especially the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the

effects of using the language has on other participants in the act of communication” (p. 240).

When we examine the definitions given by various researchers, it is possible to detect two crucial features of pragmatics which differentiate this branch of linguistics from other disciplines such as semantics and syntax. First of all, in contrast to semantics and syntax, pragmatics pays attention to the users of the language. Secondly, this field places utmost emphasis on the context in which these users interact with each other. This situation is summed up by Yule (1996), who defines pragmatics as “the study of contextual meaning” (p.3).

2.1.1 Speech Act Theory

Speech act theory was formulated by the British philosopher John Langshaw Austin in his posthumously published book entitled *How To Do Things With Words* in 1962. John R. Searle, who was one of Austin’s students in the 1950s, further developed the theory (Jaszczolt, 2002).

The emergence of speech act theory is attributed to a growing dissatisfaction with the assumed deficiencies of logical positivism and truth conditional semantics (Huang, 2007). Logical positivism claims that if a sentence can be verified, or objectively assessed as true or false, then that sentence is said to be meaningful. Similarly, truth-conditional semantics considers sentences to be true if they correctly describe states of affairs and false if their description is incorrect (Thomas, 1995). Austin (1962) was among the first to disagree with this approach in a series of lectures in which he argued that sentences like (1) to (3) are used to *do* (emphasis mine) certain things and not to describe correctly or incorrectly the states of affairs: (1) *I apologize for being late*, (2) *I sentence you to five years in prison*, (3) *I name this ship the Princess*

Elizabeth. He labelled these acts of apologizing, passing sentence, and naming as *speech acts* because they are performed through speech.

Austin (1962) refers to sentences given above as performative sentences. He further observes that even though these utterances cannot be assessed as true or false, they depend on appropriate circumstances or conditions in order to take effect. He calls such conditions felicity conditions.

2.1.1.1 Felicity Conditions

In order for a performative utterance to ‘work’, there are certain conditions that have to be met. These social conventions are called by Austin (1962) as felicity conditions, which refer to the conditions that must be in place for the speech act in question to be performed successfully or felicitously. Austin (1962) enumerated these felicity conditions as follows:

- A. (i) There must be a conventional procedure having a conventional effect.
(ii) The circumstances and persons must be appropriate.
- B. The procedure must be executed (i) correctly and (ii) completely.
- C. (i) The persons must have the requisite thoughts, feelings and intentions.
(ii) If consequent conduct is specified, then the relevant parties must do it
(pp. 14-15).

He also noted that violation of any of these conditions will render a performative act infelicitous or unsuccessful.

Drawing on Austin’s ideas, Searle (1969) proposes four basic types of conditions that have to be met in order for an act to be performed non-defectively. The first type of condition includes propositional content conditions which specify the kind of meaning expressed by the propositional part of an utterance. In other words, the conditions in this category are concerned with what the speech act is about. For

instance, the propositional content condition for an apology involves a past action done by the speaker. For a promise, the propositional content condition is to predicate a future act of the speaker.

The second category is composed of preparatory conditions which state the real-world requirements for the speech act. For example, in the case of a request, the preparatory condition is that the speaker has the reason to believe that the addressee has the ability to perform the action requested (Searle, 1969).

As Searle (1969) indicates, the following category involves sincerity conditions which relate to the degree of sincerity with which a speech act is performed. Thus, for a promise to be sincere, the speaker must genuinely intend to keep the promise. As Huang (2008) indicates, if the sincerity condition is not satisfied, the speech act can be still carried out, but there occurs an abuse, to use Austin's term.

Finally, essential conditions specify "what the speech act must conventionally count as" (Searle, 1969, p.59). To illustrate, the uttering of 'Please close the door' counts as a request for the hearer to shut the door.

When two different linguists' views regarding felicity conditions for speech acts are compared and contrasted, it is possible to note that Austin (1962) is concerned with the procedure and the framing of a speech act with reference to his felicity conditions, whereas Searle is more concerned with the content of different types of conditions (i.e., propositional content conditions, preparatory conditions, sincerity conditions and essential conditions).

2.1.1.2 Locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts

According to the speech act theory (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969), a speaker also performs certain actions in making an utterance which is characterized by a specific communicative force. Austin (1962) developed his three-fold distinction among the acts which the interlocutor simultaneously performs when saying something. Hence, according to Austin (1962) a speech act has three facets which comprise the following acts:

- (a) Locutionary act: The conveyance of a propositional meaning; in other words, the act of saying something that has a meaning.
- (b) Illocutionary act: The performance of a particular language function; that is, saying something by means of some kind of conventional force associated with it either explicitly or implicitly.
- (c) Perlocutionary act: The production of certain intentional consequential effects on the participants or the speaker or other persons.

In other words, the locutionary act conveys the literal meaning of the utterance while the illocutionary and perlocutionary acts serve to change the conditions in which the sentence is uttered. While explaining the difference between these three acts, Austin (1962) uses the utterance: He said to me 'Shoot her!'. The locution is basically the literal meaning of the two words 'shoot' and 'her'. The illocution has the *force* of urging, ordering, advising, etc.: He urged me to shoot her. 'Shoot her' is therefore an utterance that contains an illocutionary force ordering the hearer to shoot. The perlocution persuades, forces, or frightens the hearer into performing the action: He persuaded (made, got, etc.) me to shoot her.

2.1.1.3 Taxonomy of Speech Acts

When the literature is reviewed, it is possible to see that Austin (1962) and Searle (1969) aimed to systematise the types of speech acts and proposed different but related taxonomies, which are the main focus of this subsection.

Austin (1962) focused on the second type of acts, that is, illocutionary acts, by grouping them into five types, namely, verdictives, exercitives, commissives, behabitives and expositives. Verdictives involve the giving of a verdict or judgment (i.e., acquits, convict, diagnose). Exercitives refer to the exercising power, right or influence (i.e., appoint, order, name). Commissives are illocutionary acts which entail the assuming of obligation or giving of an undertaking (i.e., promise, agree, bet). Behabitives are related to displaying attitudes and social behaviour (i.e., apologise, compliment, welcome) and as for expositives, these speech acts address the clarifying of reasons, arguments and expounding of views (i.e., concede, deny, inform).

On the basis of the Austian taxonomy, Searle (1969) made a distinction between propositional content and illocutionary force, which in Austin's (1962) words referred to 'locution' and 'illocution'. Focusing on the illocutionary force or purpose of the act from the speaker's point of view, Searle (1977) proposed a taxonomy of illocutionary acts. Searle's (1977) taxonomy constitutes five major categories: representatives, directives, expressives, commissives, and declaratives.

The first category includes representatives. Representatives are speech acts which convey information. Speakers commit themselves to the truth of the expressed proposition. Representatives express the speaker's belief. That is to say, the speaker represents the world as he or she believes it is. Asserting, claiming, stating, reporting,

concluding, announcing are among the examples in this category. The second category involves directives. Directives refer to speech acts in which the speaker's aim is to get the addressee to do something as in advice, commands, questions, requests etc. The following category is made up of expressives which are expressions of the speaker's psychological state or attitude such as apologising, praising, congratulating, regretting etc. The fourth category consists of commissives which are used to commit the speaker to some action in the future. This category includes speech acts such as promises, offers, threats, pledges etc. The speech act of refusal, which is the focus of the present study, falls into the category of commissives since it commits the refuser (not) to performing an action (Searle, 1977). The last category entails declaratives. Declaratives refer to words and expressions which bring about changes in the world as in declaring war, nominating a presidential candidate, marrying two single people, etc (Searle, 1977).

2.1.1.4 Criticism of Speech Act Theory

Although Austin and Searle's theory of speech act had a long lasting impact on functional aspects of pragmatic theory, various criticisms have been levelled against the speech act theory. For example, according to Geis (1995), both Austin (1962) and Searle (1969) based their work primarily on their intuitions, focusing mainly on sentences devoid of their context. Likewise, Cutting (2002) states that speech act theory accounts for formal considerations and fail to accommodate utterances such as 'So there you go' and 'You know' since they are neither representatives nor expressives.

In line with Leech (1983), who focuses on meaning and proposes a functional perspective of speech acts, Thomas (1995) stresses the influence of functional,

psychological and affective factors on the use of speech acts. Similarly, LoCastro (2003) claims that the analysis of speech acts should be carried out in context since the pragmatic meaning embedded in speech act can be best comprehended when not only the linguistic forms but also the other aforementioned factors (i.e., functional, psychological and affective factors) are taken into account.

Besides these considerations and criticisms, Yule (1996), who pays attention to the structure of speech acts, suggests a different kind of classification. Yule (1996) claims that there is a relationship between the three structural forms, namely, declarative, imperative and interrogative and the three general communicative functions such as statement, question, command or request respectively.

According to Yule (1996), this situation entails the distinction between a direct and indirect speech act since a direct speech act indicates a direct relationship between a structure and a function; on the other hand, an indirect speech act consists of an indirect relationship between a structure and a function. These two pragmatic strategies (i.e., direct and indirect speech acts) are claimed by Kasper and Schmidt (1996) to be universally available as they are related to the politeness theory, which is going to be addressed in the next section.

2.1.2 Politeness Theory

The notion of politeness as a universal, social and linguistic phenomenon has constituted the centre of increasing attention and interest in the last decades. Politeness is generally regarded as a significant controlling mechanism in human interaction (Huang, 2007). As Longcope (1995, cited in Haugh, 2005) points out, due to the constraining function of politeness in the language we use, interlocutors consciously or subconsciously started to take into account certain variables which

determine the form that the language will take while interacting. Goffman (1955) examined these variables under the rubric 'face', and defined this term as "the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact. Face is an image of self delineated in terms of approved social attributes" (Goffman, 1955, p. 213).

Brown and Levinson (1987), using Goffman's (1955) sociological notion of face as a starting point, proposed politeness theory in their seminal work entitled 'Politeness: Some universals in language usage'. According to Brown and Levinson (1987) theory of politeness consists of three fundamental notions which include face, face threatening acts, and politeness strategies.

Brown and Levinson (1987) define the concept of face as "the public self-image that every member [of a society] wants to claim for himself" (p.61). The researchers also indicate that face comes in two variations which they claim to be universal: positive and negative. While positive face refers to the hearer's desire to be appreciated or approved of (e.g., by seeking agreement, solidarity, reciprocity), negative face "represents the basic claim to territories, personal preserves, rights to non-distraction, i.e., freedom of action and freedom from imposition" (p.61). Interlocutors attend to each other's negative face by being indirect, apologetic or by giving deference. They further argue that face is invested; it is something that can be lost, and it must be constantly attended to in interaction. From this perspective, politeness can be regarded as an activity, which serves to enhance, maintain or protect both the speaker's and hearer's face.

This concept of face is closely related to commissive type of speech act (e.g., refusals), since, as claimed by Brown and Levinson (1987), some speech acts such as

refusals, complaints, disagreements, criticisms etc., can intrinsically threaten face. Hence, they are called face-threatening acts (FTAs). This assumption is directly relevant to the present study as politeness approach adopted by these researchers is speech-act based. Therefore, conversational participants are expected to engage in some form of face-work, in relation to which they may behave in two ways: either they may avoid the FTA or they may decide to perform the FTA. These two decisions and other politeness strategies involved in interaction are better illustrated in the figure displayed below.

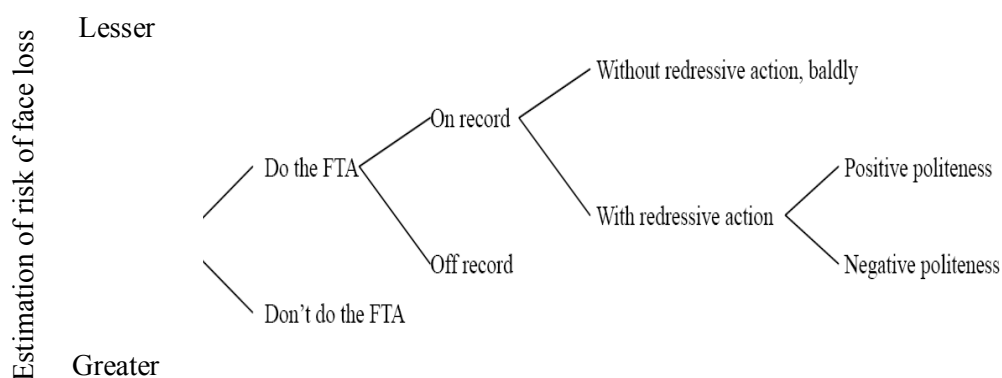


Figure 2.1: A schematic representation of Brown and Levinson's (1987, p. 60) politeness model.

The figure illustrated above shows that in performing a particular speech act, interlocutors encounter a series of strategies to go through and at each juncture they are required to make a decision. As already noted, first, they may choose to do the FTA or avoid it. If they decide on the first option, that is, to do the FTA, they have to make the second decision since they can either go on record or off record. If the decision is to go on record, the interlocutors express their intentions directly and unambiguously. However, if they go off record, they try to convey their communicative intents indirectly through hints, metaphor and irony.

In the former case (i.e., doing the FTA on record), there are two further options. The interlocutors may perform the FTA with or without redressive action (e.g., ‘turn off the light, please’ versus ‘turn off the light’). Redressive action refers to the effort made by the participants to soften the force of the speech act (Brown and Levinson, 1987). Finally, if the interlocutor opts to act the FTA with redressive action, they are required to do it either using positive or negative politeness strategies. In using positive politeness strategies, the participants appeal to positive face of their interlocutors by desiring that the others approve of them. Strategies in this group stress closeness between speaker and hearer by confirming or establishing a common ground, referring to desirable attributes in the hearer or using in-group identity markers or markers of affection. In contrast to this type of strategies, if participants employ a speech act that poses a threat to the other’s face as in refusals, which this study aims to investigate, they may resort to negative politeness strategies. The strategies in this category help to minimise the imposition of the FTA. Examples of this type of strategies involve indirect formulas, hedging or mitigation. Brown and Levinson (1987) also indicate that the more threatening the FTA, the more polite the strategy the speaker is required to employ to mitigate its effects.

These five strategies can be illustrated in the example given below (Huang, 2007):

Situation: John, a student, asks Mary, another student, to lend him her lecture notes.

1. *On record, without redress, baldly:*
Lend me your lecture notes.
2. *On record, with positive politeness redress:*
How about letting me have a look at your lecture notes?
3. *On record, with negative politeness redress:*
Could you please lend me your lecture notes?
4. *Off-record:*
I didn’t take any notes for the last lecture.
5. *Don’t perform the FTA:*

[John silently looks at Mary's lecture notes]
(p.118).

As the sentences mentioned above exemplify, there are possible strategies which participants adopt in order to preserve hearers' face. It is also worth mentioning that the choice of which strategy to use depends on the speakers' assessment of the size of the FTA (Brown and Levinson, 1987). In assessing the seriousness of FTAs, Brown and Levinson (1987, p.73) point out that speakers take into consideration three factors: the variables of social distance (D); relative power (P); and absolute ranking (R) as perceived by the interlocutors.

The first variable refers to the social distance between the speaker and the hearer, that is, the degree of familiarity that exists between the interlocutors. In this sense, as social distance increases, the degree of politeness is expected to increase, as well. As for the second social variable, the relative power of the speaker over the hearer, it is assumed that the more powerful the hearer, the more polite the speaker is expected to be. Finally, the ranking of imposition implies that the greater the imposition on the hearer, the more polite the speaker is required to be. These factors are of great significance for the present study since the situations in the questionnaires are formulated with these different social parameters.

Brown and Levinson's theory, though remaining the most influential theory to date, is not, however, without criticism. The most often cited criticism relates to their claim for the universality of their theory. First, it is doubtful whether 'face' or the notion of self operates similarly across cultures since cultures are not homogeneous (Barron, 2002; Kasper, 1994). Indeed, much of the recent non-Western politeness research has indicated the inadequacy of Brown and Levinson's ethnocentrically

Anglo-Saxon negative politeness for explaining speech act performance in non-Western cultures (Blum-Kulka, 1987; Ide, 1989; Hill et al., 1986; Matsumoto, 1989; Clancy, 1989). For example, Japanese researchers such as Ide (1989) and Matsumoto (1989) argue that given the lack of individualistic orientation in Japanese culture, negative face seems to be of little importance and cannot explain politeness behaviour. Another concern is whether the claim of the direct relationship between face and politeness is universally valid (Barron, 2002) since, for some cultures such as Japanese, saving face is not as important as social indexing (i.e., marking social standing) (Matsumoto, 1989). Thus, critics have argued that individualistic orientation of Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory clashes with cultural orientations outside the Anglo-American society, where *face* is associated predominantly with recognition of interactants' status in social hierarchies (Ide, 1989; Matsumoto, 1994).

As indicated by Huang (2007), in spite of its shortcomings, Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness framework has paved the way for a wide range of research on politeness. Additionally, it is particularly important to the present study as the taxonomy used to analyse the speech act under scrutiny (i.e., refusals) has been constructed on the basis of this politeness theory. This theory also distinguishes between on record (direct strategies) and off record (indirect strategies) and it provides a useful framework to detect cross-cultural differences and similarities with regard to politeness strategies. Furthermore, this theory has also been employed in various studies which concentrated on the politeness phenomena in Turkish language (Doğançay-Aktuna and Kanişlı, 1997). These researchers have pointed out that Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory can be applicable to Turkish context.

2.2 Pragmatic Competence as Part of the Communicative Competence Construct

As already mentioned earlier in this chapter, there was a paradigm shift from an almost exclusive concern with the structural analysis of grammar in the 1960s to a growing interest in language use in the 1970s and 1980s (Brown, 2000). Thus, instead of considering the language in isolation, researchers from different fields such as psychology, sociolinguistics and discourse analysis started to explore extralinguistic variables as well as the nature of communication.

This new realisation paved the way for the rise of communicative language teaching, which was revolved around the communicative competence as a key concept. For this reason, the construct of communicative competence gained prominence in the field of second language acquisition since the ultimate goal was to help the language learner to become communicatively competent in the target language.

A historical overview of the issue under scrutiny reveals that the concept of communicative competence was an indirect effect of the Chomskian revolution in linguistics that gave a somewhat limiting definition to the scope of linguistic theory (Spolsky, 1989). Although Chomsky (1965) coined the terms such as competence and performance, he paid attention only to the former which was based on isolated sentences. Therefore, the real use of language was left aside.

The following quotation captures the essence of Chomsky's (1965) ideas on this issue:

Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogenous speech community, who knows its language perfectly well and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of

attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance (p.3).

Standing in sharp contrast to Chomsky's treatment of linguistic competence, various researchers from different fields such as psychology, anthropology, sociolinguistics, and discourse analysis asserted that Chomsky only focused on a theory of grammar without considering the effect of sociocultural context in which the utterance is produced.

Dell Hymes (1972) was one of the first to criticise the Chomskian notion of competence on the grounds that knowledge of grammar was not sufficient to enable a speaker to communicate successfully. According to Hymes (1972), competence in a language consists of not only grammatical rules but also sociocultural knowledge which involves "when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner" (p. 277).

Hymes (1972) redefined competence and proposed what has become widely known as communicative competence which is comprised of four different aspects of knowledge:

1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally *possible*;
2. Whether (and to what degree) something is *feasible* in virtue of the means of implementation available;
3. Whether (and to what degree) something is *appropriate* in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
4. Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually *performed*, and what its doing entails (p. 281).

As can be seen, unlike Chomsky, Hymes viewed communicative competence as the interaction of grammatical (what is formally possible), psycholinguistic (what is

feasible in terms of human information processing), sociocultural (what is the social meaning or value of a given utterance), and probabilistic (what actually occurs) systems of competence.

In consonant with Hymes (1972), Savignon (1997) put forward four main characteristics of communicative competence indicating that (1) “it is a dynamic concept, (2) applies to both spoken and written language, (3) is context specific, (4) is relative and dependent on the cooperation of all participants” (pp. 14-15). This last feature is particularly important since, according to Savignon, communicative competence encompasses the negotiative nature of communication. Therefore, it is possible to infer that Savignon is also concerned with the social aspect of competence in communication.

In addition to the theoretical considerations outlined above, Hymes’s insights regarding communicative competence have also had an important influence in the field of second language acquisition and second language pedagogy. For this reason, different researchers attempted to define the specific components of the construct of communicative competence. Among the different constituents, the pragmatic component has caught the attention of the researchers especially in an EFL context since opportunities to be exposed to authentic language use are very restricted (Martinez-Flor and Uso-Juan, 2006).

The first such model was proposed by the applied linguists Canale and Swain (1980) and further extended by Canale (1983). The components which they identified are grammatical competence (i.e., knowledge of lexical, morphological, semantic and syntactic rules of the language system), sociolinguistic competence (i.e., the knowledge of the sociocultural rules of use in a given context), strategic competence

(i.e., the knowledge of how to use verbal and non-verbal communication strategies to prevent communication breakdowns) and finally, discourse competence* (i.e., the knowledge of achieving cohesion and coherence in a spoken or written text).

Three years later, Canale (1983) revised the above model of communicative competence and drew a distinction between the communicative competence, which refers to the underlying knowledge of the rules of communication, and actual communication, which implies the use of this knowledge in the act of communication. The main change proposed by Canale (1983) from the original model was the separation of discourse from sociolinguistic competence. According to him, the latter would only include the sociocultural rules of use, whereas discourse competence deals with the mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified speech or written text (Canale, 1983).

Later, Savignon (1983, cited in Berns, 1990) also developed a model of communicative competence represented as an inverted pyramid. As it can be seen in Figure 2.2, Savignon's model encompasses four types of competence mentioned above.

* This fourth component was added by Canale in 1983.

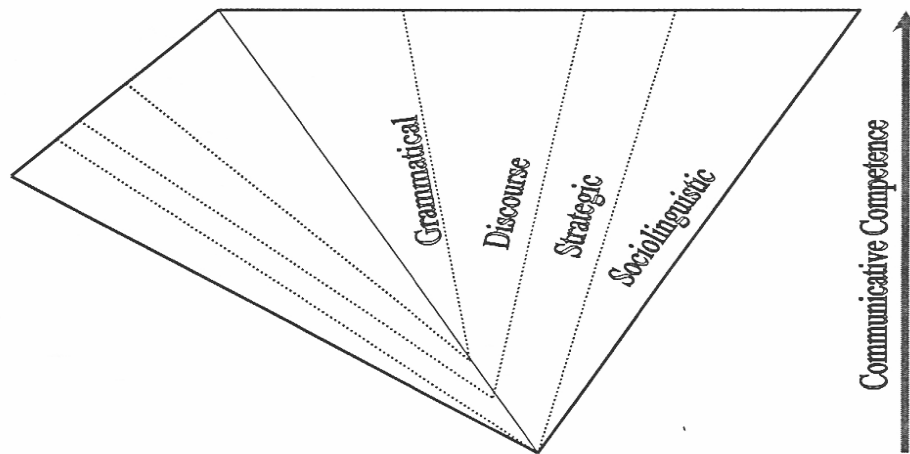


Figure 2.2: Savignon's (1983, cited in Berns, 1990, p. 90) components of communicative competence.

As can be observed in Figure 2.2 above, Savignon (1983, cited in Berns, 1990) addresses the same four constituents of communicative competence previously mentioned in the model suggested by Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983). However, it differs from the previous one in that Savignon (1997) pays attention to the interrelation among the four components and argues that communicative competence occupies a greater role than the rest of the components as “one strings pearls on a necklace”. (p. 45).

Although the models described so far have formed the basis for the integration of communicative competence to language teaching approaches (Martinez-Flor and Uso-Juan, 2006), they came in for criticism on the ground that they ignored the importance of pragmatic component. For instance, Schachter (1990) asks “Where does pragmatics fit into the Canale and Swain’s framework? Is it assumed not to exist?” (p. 42). Although the previous models included pragmatics within sociolinguistic competence, Bachman (1990) was the first researcher to divide language competence into organizational and pragmatic competence as shown in

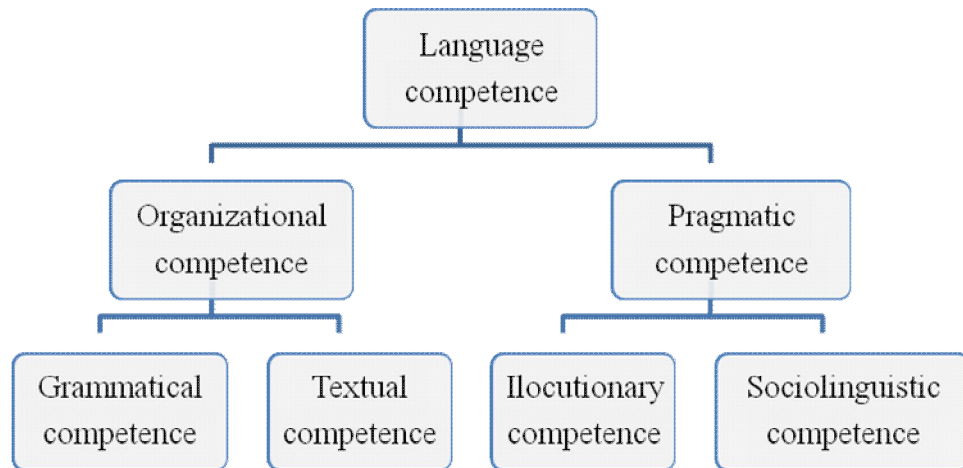


Figure 2.3: Bachman's (1990, p. 87) model of communicative competence.

According to Bachman (1990), organizational competence refers to “the knowledge of linguistic units and the rules of joining them together” (p. 87). It is broken down into two types of abilities: Grammatical competence refers to the knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, phonology and syntax, whereas textual competence consists of the knowledge required to join utterances together to form a unified whole.

Bachman's noteworthy contribution, in comparison to the previous models of communicative competence, lies in his second type of competence, that is to say, pragmatic competence. In Bachman's model, pragmatic competence is subdivided into ‘illocutionary competence’ and ‘sociolinguistic competence’. Illocutionary competence deals with “the knowledge of communicative action and how to carry it out”. Sociolinguistic competence comprises “the ability to use language appropriately according to the context” (Bachman, 1990, p. 87).

It should also be noted that Bachman's model is in consonant with that of Canale and Swain (1980) as both of them claim that linguistic competence alone cannot

guarantee successful communication. Thus, in order to communicate effectively, a wide range of abilities are needed, including pragmatic competence. Taking the Bachman's point of view into account, it is possible to indicate that developing pragmatic competence is one of the crucial goals to be attained by language learners to become communicatively competent in the target language.

Although the models of communicative competence described so far have contributed significantly to the fields of second language acquisition and language teaching, several researchers such as Alcon (2000) indicated that they failed to establish any relationship among their components. As mentioned earlier, only Savignon (1983) underlined the importance of the relationship among the different constituents in relation to the overall communicative competence. However, it is worth mentioning that this model did not account for the pragmatic component.

In light of the advancements made in an attempt to understand the language as a system, Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) were the first to establish the connection among the components of the concept of communicative competence, with special attention paid to the pragmatic component. Their model is displayed in Figure 2.4 below.

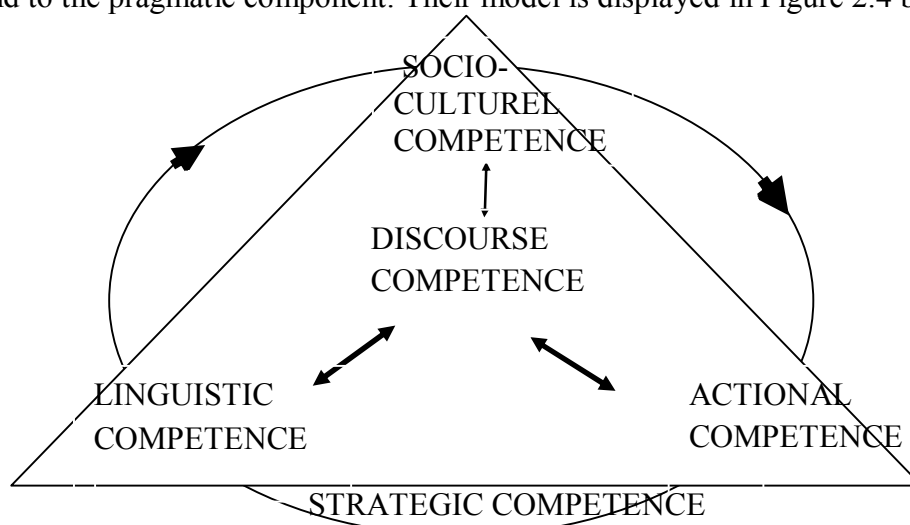


Figure 2.4: Celce-Murcia et al.'s (1995, p. 10) model of communicative competence.

In their model, Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) referred to pragmatic competence as actional competence since it involves the understanding of the interlocutors' communicative intents by performing and interpreting speech acts. Furthermore, they pointed out that actional competence is closely associated with the field of interlanguage pragmatics, which is the primary focus of the next part.

The other components of their model are discourse competence, linguistic competence, sociocultural competence and strategic competence. As can be seen in Figure 2.4, discourse competence constitutes the core of their model. It is concerned with the selection and sequencing of sentences to reach a unified spoken or written text. Unlike Canale and Swain's (1980), Savignon's (1983) and Bachman's (1990) grammatical competencies which merely include grammatical abilities, this model indicates that linguistic competence comprises the basic elements of communication such as phonological, orthographic systems, morphology and lexis, etc.

The third type of competence, namely, sociocultural competence, involves the knowledge of social context, stylistic appropriateness, cultural factors (i.e., sociocultural background, dialect differences, and cross-cultural awareness) and nonverbal communication. This component was also integrated into previous models of communicative competence mentioned earlier. Finally, the four components outlined so far are influenced by the last one, which is, strategic competence. Strategic competence refers to the knowledge of communication strategies and how to use them.

To sum up, the model put forward by Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) draws attention to "how complex, socially and culturally situated and contextualised the mastery of another language actually is" (Miller, 2003, p. 24). This model is also important in

that it attempts to show that in order to be communicatively competent in a given language, all other constituent parts need to be developed. Moreover, it plays a crucial role as it integrates and connects those parts (i.e., linguistic, actional, sociocultural and strategic competence) to each other to build discourse competence.

Additionally, it is also worth mentioning that these models especially the one proposed by Bachman (1990) paid particular attention to the pragmatic component because it is an integral part of the models of communicative competence analysed above. Due to its prevailing nature, as stated before, pragmatic scope is related to other disciplines such as interlanguage pragmatics, cross-cultural pragmatics and pragmatic transfer, etc. For this reason, the following section is devoted to interlanguage pragmatics since it is concerned with learners' pragmatic competence in the target language.

2.3 Interlanguage Pragmatics

The term 'interlanguage' was coined by Selinker (1972) to refer to the learner's developing linguistic system in the target language. As emphasised by Ellis (1994), it differs from both the language learner's L1 and the language to be learned. However, after Hymes's (1972) introduction of the construct of communicative competence and its components, Gabriele Kasper (1992), extended the scope of interlanguage to cover the pragmatic aspect of the learners' linguistic system. In fact, Kasper (1992) was the first researcher to introduce the term 'interlanguage pragmatics' (ILP). According to Kasper (1992), ILP is "the branch of second language research which studies how non-native speakers understand and carry out linguistic action in a target language, and how they acquire L2 pragmatic knowledge" (p. 203).

Considering the definition cited above, it is possible to realise that the main focus of ILP has been on linguistic action, or speech acts, and this is also the area addressed in the present study, that is, EFL learners' enactment of a particular speech act (i.e. the speech act of refusal).

This product-oriented view of ILP concentrates on the evidence of pragmatic transfer, usually comparing three types of data: (1) "the baseline data from native speakers of the learners' native language, (2) the interlanguage data from the learners, (3) the target language baseline data from native speakers of the target language" (Kasper, 1992, p. 223). Other domains of ILP include pragmatic comprehension, development of pragmatic competence and communicative effect. As the present study is concerned with pragmatic transfer, the remaining section of the literature review is limited to the research on this specific area.

2.3.1 Pragmatic Transfer

Research into ILP revealed that second/foreign language learners who communicate across different linguistic and cultural boundaries often deviate from the target norms and encounter communication breakdowns with interlocutors who are from different first language (L1) backgrounds or who speak different varieties of a language. Sociolinguists recognise that such intercultural miscommunication is partly due to different value systems that underlie each speaker's L1 cultural group (Chick, 1996). Different value systems are reflected in speech acts. Thus, different interpretations of a certain speech act sometimes cause misunderstanding of the speaker's intention.

Deviation from the target norms due to cross-cultural differences is referred to as pragmatic transfer. The concept of pragmatic transfer represents relying on one's L1 sociocultural conventions and it is defined by Kasper (1992) as "the influence

exerted by learners' pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension, production and L2 pragmatic information (p. 207). As Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993) note, it is possible to infer that pragmatic transfer refers to the influence of learners' mother tongue and culture on their interlanguage pragmatic knowledge and performance.

Furthermore, Kasper (1992) identifies two types of pragmatic transfer: positive and negative pragmatic transfer. According to this researcher, positive pragmatic transfer is observed when language specific conventions are shared by the language learners' L1 and L2. In this case, transfer plays a facilitative role since the language learners are able to convey their messages successfully. On the other hand, negative pragmatic transfer occurs when the participants project their L1 sociocultural norms onto the target language which does not share the same norms as their L1. This process usually results in 'pragmatic failure' (Thomas, 1983). Pragmatic failure occurs when the H (hearer) perceives the force of the S's (speaker's) utterance as other than the S intended s/he should perceive it. For example, if:

1. H perceives the force of S's utterance as stronger or weaker than S intended s/he should perceive it,
2. H perceives as an order an utterance which S intended s/he should perceive as a request,
3. If H perceives S's utterance as ambivalent where S intended no ambivalence,
4. If H expects S's utterance to be able to infer the force of his/her utterance, but is relying on a system of knowledge or beliefs which S and H do not, in fact share. For instance, S says "Pigs might fly!" to an H unaware that they cannot, or S says "He's madder than Keith Joseph" to an H who believes Joseph to be perfectly sane" (Thomas, 1983, p. 94).

Additionally, Thomas (1983) mentions two kinds of pragmatic failure: pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic failure. Pragmalinguistic failure can be defined as the inability to understand or encode the illocutionary force of an utterance appropriately, or as Thomas (1983) puts it “pragmalinguistic failure occurs when the pragmatic force mapped by S [...] is systematically different from the force most frequently assigned to it by native speakers of the target language” (p. 99). This type of misunderstanding has its roots in the ambiguity of a message, where utterances are indirect and ambivalent and, therefore, require the receiver of a message to infer meaning that is not explicitly stated.

Sociopragmatic failure, on the other hand, results from unfamiliarity with the norms of another culture (Hurley, 1992). According to Thomas (1983), pragmalinguistic failure is a linguistic problem, while socio-pragmatic failure “stems from cross-culturally different perceptions of what constitutes appropriate linguistic behaviour” (p. 99).

As Bou-Franch (1998) mentions, the distinction between pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic failure is useful for theoretical pragmatics and provides a solid framework for the study of pragmatic transfer in ILP. However, in order to avoid terminological ambiguity throughout the present study, in the following section research on pragmatic transfer is going to be reviewed without drawing a distinction between pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic failure.

2.3.2 Studies on Pragmatic Transfer

The occurrences of pragmatic transfer in various speech acts have been well documented in the literature of ILP since the early 1980s. In this section relevant research studies have been reviewed.

One of the earliest studies in this field belongs to Blum-Kulka (1982). In her study, she investigated the request strategies employed by English learners of Hebrew as L2. As a case of positive transfer, Blum-Kulka found out that the subjects successfully transferred the following cross-linguistically shared strategies: imperatives, ability questions, 'why not' questions, and 'Do you mind if...?' forms. However, she also detected evidence of negative pragmatic transfer in their performances. The subjects tended to inappropriately use the Hebrew ability ('Can you...') questions. This situation caused forms which were deprived of the pragmatic force of a request. Blum-Kulka (1982) elucidated that this tendency was a case in which the apparent similarity in form and function across the two languages (i.e., English and Hebrew) might hold for all contexts. She also observed negative transfer in the choice of directness levels in the use of request strategies: the English learners of Hebrew used less direct strategies in L2 (i.e., Hebrew) than the native Hebrew speakers, thereby conforming more to their L1 (i.e., English) indirect strategies.

Instances of pragmatic transfer were also evident in the study carried out by House and Kasper (1987). Their study, which was a part of a Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realisation Project, examined the request performances of German learners of British English and Danish learners of British English in five request situations. The data elicited through discourse completion tasks (DCTs) revealed that both groups of subjects deviated from the British English norm and resorted to their L1 norms in their choice of the directness of the request in two of the five situations. For example, the subjects preferred to use direct imperatives, whereas, the native speakers of British English utilised more indirect preparatory questions.

The study conducted by Takahashi and Dufon (1989) revealed findings similar to those of House and Kasper (1987). They examined whether or not Japanese learners of English transferred L1 indirect request strategies to L2 communicative settings. The data collected via role-play situations indicated the following request performance: (1) In their attempt to make an explicit reference to a desired action, the learners favoured a more direct English request than the American reference group; (2) When they decided to refer implicitly to an action, they relied on hinting strategies and preferred a more indirect approach than the Americans. Similar distribution was also found in Japanese request performance. Therefore, the researchers detected patterns from the subjects' L1 (i.e., Japanese) in their L2 request realisation.

In another study, Olshtain (1983) examined apologies performed by 12 native speakers of English, 12 native speakers of Hebrew, 12 native speakers of Russian, 13 American learners of Hebrew and 14 Russian learners of Hebrew. A comparison of the average frequencies of apology strategies demonstrated that American learners of Hebrew negatively transferred their L1 pragmatic features in the case of 'expressing apology' and 'offering of repair'. By contrast, these two semantic formulas were not preferred by the native speakers of Hebrew in the same situations.

Similarly, Garcia (1988, cited in Kasper and Blum-Kulka, 1993) reported evidence of positive politeness strategy transfer. She investigated the apology strategies used by Venezuelan Spanish speakers in a role play situation. She claimed that L2 learners transferred their L1 positive politeness strategies to the L2 context (i.e., English). Since the native speakers of English employed negative politeness strategies in the

same situation, the performances of L2 learners were characterised by negative transfer.

In Bergman and Kasper (1993), L1-based preference for semantic formulas of apology was confirmed, as well. These researchers examined apologies performed by Thai learners of English in 20 DCT situations. Their statistical analysis revealed that slightly more than half of the differences in the use of apology strategies could be attributed to pragmatic transfer. Specifically, the semantic formula of 'verbal redress' in L1 (i.e., Thai) was found to be negatively transferred to L2 situations.

Focusing on the speech act of correction performed by Japanese ESL learners, Takahashi and Beebe (1993) evidenced the case of negative transfer. The responses of the subjects were collected via DCTs which contained two situations: The first one included a person of lower status (i.e., a student) correcting someone in a higher position (i.e., a professor) and the other one involved someone in a higher status (i.e., a professor) correcting a student. The results demonstrated that pragmatic transfer was operative in the use of semantic formulas and style shifting. For instance, in the situation where the professor corrects the student, when compared to the native speakers of Japanese, the native speakers of English used a higher percentage of positive remarks (e.g., 'Your presentation was very good') and softeners (e.g., 'I believe that was...', 'I think that was...') before their correction.

The percentage of positive remarks and softeners employed by the Japanese learners of English resembled that of the native speakers of Japanese, suggesting the L1 influence. Moreover, the Japanese learners of English transferred the L1-based pattern of style shifting depending on the status of the interlocutor. Like the native Japanese speakers who used more mitigating strategies to a higher status person, the

Japanese learners of English remarkably increased the frequency of softeners in the same situation. Conversely, the native speakers of English displayed little change in the frequency of softeners.

Doğançay-Aktuna and Kamışlı (1997) conducted a study on another speech act, that is, the speech act of chastisement. They collected data from 80 native speakers of Turkish, 14 native speakers of English and 68 advanced Turkish learners of English using DCTs. The analysis of the type and frequency of semantic formulas used by the three groups revealed that pragmatic transfer was present in the performance of the advanced Turkish learners of English. To illustrate, in the higher to lower status chastisement situation, as Turkish native speakers did, the Turkish learners of English warned and gave advice the lower status person at a significantly higher rate than native speakers of English. Furthermore, the learners asked for repair of the mistake from the lower status person (e.g., ‘Can you get copies of the right documentaries?’) at a rate parallel to repairs requested by the native speakers of Turkish. These findings indicated that they negatively transferred their L1 norms into the target language.

DeCapua (1998) examined the speech act of complaints produced by German learners of English on a DCT. The results pointed out to the existence of pragmatic transfer in the type and tone of the formulas used by German learners of English. In other words, like the native speakers of German, the German learners of English were usually more direct and blunt than the native speakers of English were in similar situations.

In a more recent study, Nguyen (2008) set out to investigate how Vietnamese learners of Australian English modified their criticisms in a peer-feedback session.

The participants of the study were Vietnamese learners of Australian English, one group of Vietnamese native speakers, and one group of Australian English native speakers. The data elicitation techniques used in the study included a conversation elicitation task, a written questionnaire and a retrospective interview. The findings indicated that like the Vietnamese native speaker group, the learners tended to mitigate their criticisms significantly less frequently than Australian English native speakers. Thus, the researcher inferred that the learners' choice of how often to modify their criticisms appeared to be L1-induced.

All the studies reviewed above are concerned with the performances of second/foreign language learners on different speech acts and provide evidence supporting the occurrence of pragmatic transfer. With the motivation to explore language learners' pragmatic behaviours, some of the studies (e.g., Takahashi and Beebe, 1993; Takahashi and Dufon, 1989) showed that learners resorted to the strategies in the target language according to native language contextual factors (e.g., status of interlocutors, social distance etc.). Native language communicative style and politeness strategies were found to influence learners' speech act performance in the target language (e.g., Doğançay-Aktuna and Kamışlı, 1997; Olshtain, 1983). Besides these, language learners tended to follow their L1 sociocultural norms, which at times may not be appropriate for target language situations (e.g., DeCapua, 1998; Nguyen, 2008).

Although the above-mentioned studies have provided valuable information about how second/foreign language learners' performances deviate from those of native speakers, it should also be noted that the ILP research based on the Turkish language is quite limited. Therefore, the present study attempts to contribute to the available

corpora of languages studied so far by investigating the refusal behaviours of Turkish-speaking learners studying in the Department of English Language Teaching at Eastern Mediterranean University.

2.3.3 Studies on the Speech Act of Refusals

As Gass and Houck (1999) state, the study carried out by Beebe, Takahashi and Ullis-Weltz (1990) is one of the major investigations into the speech act of refusal. These researchers focused on the realisation patterns of refusals collected from 60 subjects: 20 Japanese learners of English living in the U.S., 20 native speakers of Japanese and 20 native speakers of American English. The aim of the study was to discover whether the refusals given by the Japanese learners of English corresponded more closely with those used by the native speakers of Japanese or with the native speakers of American English. The subjects were asked to fill out a DCT which included four categories: refusals to (1) requests, (2) invitations, (3) offers, and (4) suggestions. The situations also varied according to the hearer's status in relation to the speaker.

In the light of the data elicited from the subjects, Beebe et al. (1990) developed a taxonomy of refusals. Their classification system consisted of three categories: (1) direct refusals (e.g., 'no', 'I can't', etc.), (2) indirect refusals (e.g., statement of regret, wish, excuse, alternative, self-defence, a promise of future acceptance, etc.), (3) adjuncts to refusals (e.g., statement of positive opinion, empathy, pause fillers, gratitude). Based on this taxonomy, the researchers found evidence of pragmatic transfer from Japanese to English in the order, frequency and content of the semantic formulas used in the refusals.

Beebe et al. (1990) stated that although Japanese subjects utilised the same semantic formulas as their American counterparts, they differed in the order in which they used them. For instance, while refusing requests from both higher and lower status interlocutors, the native speakers of English frequently started with an expression of positive opinion, then expressed regret, and ended the refusal with a reason. As for the request from an equal status person, they usually began with an expression of regret, and then gave a reason for the refusing, on the contrary, the Japanese participants (i.e., the Japanese learners of English and the native speakers of Japanese) were observed to be more direct if they were addressing a lower status person. The researchers also noted that when the Japanese participants were in a higher position than the requester, they omitted apology or regret in their refusal.

With respect to refusals to invitation, the researchers pointed out that when the two Japanese groups were in a higher status than the interlocutor, they generally did not prefer to use expressions of apology or regret. However, while refusing a higher status person's invitation, they were found to be more polite and opted for more mitigation strategies (e.g., statement of positive opinion and empathy). On the other hand, the native speakers of English began with an adjunct (e.g., 'Well, I'd love to go') followed by an expression of regret (e.g., 'I'm sorry', 'I feel terrible') and an excuse regardless of the status of the interlocutor. Also, they were observed to add 'thank you' at the end if the interlocutor was their friend.

When it comes to refusing offers and suggestions, the data elicited from Japanese learners of English and the Japanese native speakers indicated pragmatic transfer both in the content and in the status sensitivity. Unlike their American counterparts, both groups of Japanese participants suggested alternatives to an equal status person

while refusing an offer or a suggestion. Another evidence of pragmatic transfer was found in the performances of Japanese learners of English since, like the native speakers of Japanese, they used two additional semantic formulas which were statements of philosophy (e.g., 'Things break anyway') and alternative (e.g., 'Be more careful from now on').

Similarly, the research conducted by Ikoma and Shimura (1994) aimed to find out evidence of pragmatic transfer in refusals. 10 native speakers of American English, 10 advanced American learners of Japanese attending Japanese classes in Hawai'i, and 10 native speakers of Japanese. Beebe et al.'s (1990) DCTs were used as a data collection instrument. The findings of the research demonstrated evidence of pragmatic transfer from English to Japanese in content and frequency of semantic formulas. The researchers reported two noticeable instances of pragmatic transfer in their data. The first was the use of the expression 'Kekko-desu' which means 'Thank you' in English. The researchers indicated that in Japanese culture this expression was usually used in a refusal of an offer made by a higher status person or an unfamiliar person, and it was often followed by an excuse. However, the data analysis showed that American learners of Japanese differed from the native speakers of Japanese and used this expression in their refusals to an equal status person (e.g., a friend) without giving any excuses.

In the second instance of pragmatic transfer, the American learners of Japanese reflected their L1 socio-cultural norms and refused more directly than the Japanese participants, using expressions like 'I can't'.

In another study, Steven (1993) examined the refusal strategies used by 21 native speakers of Arabic, 47 Arabic learners of English, and 23 native speakers of English.

The data collected via DCTs provided the researcher with the following strategies:

- | | | |
|---------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Explanation | 7. Hinting | 13. Next time |
| 2. Non-committal | 8. Explain frankly | 14. It's my treat |
| 3. Sarcastic | 9. Beg forgiveness | 15. White lie |
| 4. Do it yourself | 10. Accept outright | 16. Explain honestly |
| 5. Comply partially | 11. Accept partially | 17. Hint at inability |
| 6. Softeners | 12. Chiding | 18. Another time |

The findings of this research study correspond to those of Beebe et al. (1990) in that the subjects utilised a combination of formulas listed above and various mitigating strategies in their refusals. Steven (1993) also pointed out that difference between the two languages (i.e., Arabic and English) may result in pragmatic failure when the Arabic learners of English negatively transfer their L1 strategies into English. As an example of pragmatic transfer, the results revealed that most of the native speakers of English preferred softener strategies (e.g., 'I'm afraid I can't', 'I really don't know'). On the other hand, relying on their L1 socio-cultural conventions, both the native speakers of Arabic and the Arabic learners of English rarely used such a kind of strategy.

To the researcher's knowledge, there is only one study which investigated the refusal strategies used by Turkish EFL learners and the influence of L1 on the use of refusal strategies. The study conducted by Bulut (2000) consisted of three groups of participants: 130 Turkish native speakers who were undergraduate students in the

Departments of Turkish Language and Literature and History at a university in Turkey, 115 Turkish undergraduate EFL learners who were studying in the Department of English Language and Literature at a university in Turkey and they were considered as advanced level of learners and finally 138 American native speakers who were studying at a university in the U.S.

The data were collected via a written DCT developed by Beebe et al. (1990) and its oral closed role-play version. The findings of the study displayed evidence of pragmatic transfer in the performance of the Turkish EFL learners. For instance, like the Turkish native speakers, the Turkish EFL learners utilised more refusal strategies than the American native speakers. Moreover, with regard to the order of semantic formulas, the researcher noted that while refusing orally, the Turkish EFL learners, deviating from the target norm, resembled the Turkish native speakers.

2.4 Summary

The review of literature has revealed that studies focusing on the speech act of refusal cover several cultural groups such as Americans, Chinese, Koreans, etc. For this reason, it is possible to observe that refusal performances of learners in Turkish context have received scant attention. Therefore, considering the lack of studies which involved Turkish participants, it is required that further investigation should be carried out to illuminate the phenomenon of pragmatic transfer among Turkish learners of English enrolled in different programmes. More importantly, the refusal performance of Turkish EFL learners studying in the English Language Teaching Department has not been studied until now. Thus, the present study aims to contribute to the ILP literature by serving the purpose of being the first to explore the refusal strategies used by Turkish-speaking EFL learners studying in the Department

of English Language Teaching at Eastern Mediterranean University. Moreover, the present study aims to identify the refusal strategies employed by the Turkish-speaking EFL learners and locate evidence of negative pragmatic transfer in their refusal behaviours, which has not been investigated so far.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

3.0 Presentation

This chapter presents the research methodology used in this study. The first section gives information regarding the overall research design. The second section describes the context in which the present study was carried out. The third section describes three groups of subjects participated in the study. The fourth section gives detailed information about the data collection instrument used in the study. The fifth section focuses on the data collection procedures and the sixth section is concerned with the data analysis procedures. Finally, the seventh section discusses the limitations and delimitations of the study.

3.1 Overall Research Design

The present study aims to identify the refusal strategies used by Turkish-speaking EFL learners and to find out whether pragmatic transfer exists in their refusal performances. Thus, this study can be considered to be the first of its kind, aiming at investigating the ground for understanding of the situation under scrutiny, and contributing to the growing body of research on cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics.

In order to fulfill the aims mentioned above, the present study has adopted the canonical design for interlanguage studies, which includes collection and analysis of comparable sets of interlanguage, first language and the target language (Kasper and Dahl, 1991).

Furthermore, this study has been designed as a descriptive research study. As Seliger and Shohamy (1989) state, descriptive studies aim to obtain information concerning the current status of the phenomena in order to describe what exists with respect to variables or conditions. Accordingly, the aim of the present study is to identify the similarities and differences between English and Turkish refusal patterns, and also to locate and describe evidence of pragmatic transfer in the refusal strategies used by Turkish-speaking EFL learners.

Being descriptive, this study is also a qualitative case study. A case study tends to provide a detailed description of a contemporary phenomenon within a specific population and setting (Mackey and Gass, 2005). In a similar vein, the present study concentrates on a single instance within a system, that is, the Turkish-speaking EFL learners studying in the ELT Department of Eastern Mediterranean University.

3.2 Context

The context of the present study is the ELT Department of the Faculty of Education at Eastern Mediterranean University in Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. Education in ELT began in the English Department of the Faculty of Arts and Sciences in 1992. Two years later, in 1994, a joint honours MA in ELT/Educational Studies started and the following year a BA programme in ELT commenced in the ELT Department and this department was transferred to Faculty of Education in

1999. Currently, there are 263 students in the BA programme, 10 students in the MA programme and 12 students in the PhD programme.

The curriculum which is currently being used by the ELT Department conforms to the standards and the requirements of the Council of Higher Education (Yüksek Öğretim Kurulu, YÖK) in Turkey. The ELT curriculum encompasses courses which are organised into the following categories: language improvement, linguistics, ELT methodology, language testing, practice teaching, materials evaluation and development, education, English literature, and electives. As Erozan (2006) indicates, the aim of these courses is to train prospective teachers of English by helping them to gain the required theoretical knowledge regarding the English language and professional skills.

Although the EFL teacher education programme aims to meet the needs of the prospective teachers in terms of linguistic competence, interviews (see Appendix A) conducted with the three instructors who are currently offering language improvement courses at the BA level and survey of course materials highlighted the lack of pragmatic competence. The instructors expressed their concerns about the learners' awareness with regard to the pragmalinguistic realization of speech acts in English. They also reported that in most instances learners appeared to experience difficulty in using the target language in pragmatically appropriate ways due to the lack of necessary pragmatic competence in English. Moreover, in order to compensate for this situation, the instructors emphasised the need to acknowledge the pragmatic aspect of the language throughout the EFL teacher education programme. Based on this situation, it is assumed that this study will possibly detect

deviations from the target norm in the refusal responses of the Turkish-speaking EFL learners enrolled in the ELT Department of Eastern Mediterranean University.

3.3 Participants

The participants in this study were composed of three groups: 16 native speakers of English (NSEs) who provided target language baseline data, 16 native speakers of Turkish (NSTs) who provided native language baseline data, and 150 Turkish-speaking EFL learners as interlanguage group (IL group). They were chosen using the convenience sampling method. The purpose of including native speakers of English and Turkish in the study was to establish baseline cross-cultural and intra-cultural norms in order to investigate features of interlanguage with regard to the speech act of refusal. The following subsections describe each group of participants in detail.

3.3.1 Native Speakers of English and Turkish

The target language baseline data were elicited from 16 NSEs who were working as English language teachers at an institute located in Eastbourne in the UK. Their ages ranged between 23 and 40. Of the 16 participants, 12 were female and 4 were male. The native language baseline data were gathered from 16 NSTs who were working as Turkish language teachers at state schools located in Balıkesir, Turkey. Their ages ranged between 26 and 38. Of the 16 participants, 10 were female and 6 were male.

3.3.2 Turkish-speaking EFL learners

A total of 150 subjects participated as an interlanguage group. The participants in this group were studying in the ELT Department of the Faculty of Education at Eastern Mediterranean University in the 2008-2009 academic year. A detailed account of information as regards the characteristics of the IL group is given below.

The IL group consisted of 31 freshman, 41 sophomore, 25 junior and 53 senior ELT students. Concerning gender, there were 105 female and 45 male students. 26 of the participants graduated from English-medium high schools, 7 of them graduated from vocational high schools, 55 of them from Anatolian high schools, 40 of them from general high schools, 3 students from commerce high schools, and 19 of them reported to have graduated from high schools with one-year English preparatory programmes.

Regarding the participants' visits to an English-speaking country, 35 of them indicated that they visited an English-speaking country, while 115 of them gave a negative response to this question. Out of 35 students who visited an English-speaking country, 7 students stayed in that country for a period ranging from 1-3 weeks, 24 of them had the same experience ranging from 1-9 months, on the other hand, 4 students stayed for a period of 4 to 6 years.

As for the languages spoken other than Turkish and English, 56 of 150 participants noted that they can speak other languages such as German, French, Greek, Italian, Arabic, Russian, and Spanish.

3.4 Data Collection Instrument

The data collection instrument employed in the present study was the discourse completion task (DCT). DCTs are described as “written questionnaires including a number of brief situational descriptions, followed by a short dialogue with an empty slot for the speech act under study” (Kasper and Dahl, 1991, p. 221).

Although there are other data collection instruments employed in the interlanguage pragmatics research such as role-plays, interviews, observation of naturally occurring

speech, the DCT was chosen to be used in the present study for the following reasons:

1. It identifies social constraints that are sensitive to given speech-act situations,
2. It allows for large amounts of data to be collected in a relatively short period of time,
3. It is capable of revealing the normative or stereotypical expressions of a certain speech act in a given language,
4. It provides information about the kinds of strategies that participants employ to produce speech acts,
5. It provides researchers with what subjects consider to be the socially and culturally appropriate responses in a given context (Ellis, 1994; Lyuh, 1992 cited in Byon, 2006, p. 248).

In spite of the advantages mentioned above, DCTs have been criticised for not providing the same variety of linguistic elements such as multiple turns, repetitions, inversions and ellipses which abound in naturally occurring data (Turnbull, 2001). However, as Yuan (2001) points out, using DCTs can help the researcher to find out and describe the realisation patterns of a particular speech act in a particular language.

In the present study two versions of the DCT were utilised. The original DCT (see Appendix B) was the instrument previously used in the refusal study carried out by Beebe et al. (1990). The DCT entailed twelve situations in which the participants were asked to perform the speech act of refusal. The 12 situations were categorised into four stimulus types eliciting a refusal: three requests, three invitations, three offers and three suggestions. Each group of situations consisted of three different variables: social status (high, equal, low), gender (male, female), and social distance (distant, equal, close).

In order to collect the native language baseline data, the original version of the DCT was translated into Turkish by the researcher. Before administrating the instrument,

the researcher resorted to the expert view and the Turkish version of the DCT (see Appendix C) was translated back to English. The back translated form of the DCT was then compared with the original version in terms of general meaning of the sentences, complexity levels, semantic similarity of words and grammatical structures.

After comparing the English and Turkish versions and conducting a review discussion process for the items in the DCTs, necessary modifications were made. For instance, in order to make the situations sound more realistic to the Turkish participants, in item 3 of the Turkish version of the DCT, the name of the city (New York) and the restaurant (Lutece) were replaced with Istanbul and Hilton respectively. The same modification was also made in the DCTs distributed to the IL group.

3.5 Data Collection Procedures

The data were collected in three stages. The first stage took place during the summer term of the 2007-2008 academic year in Eastbourne in the UK. In this stage, the native speakers of English were given the Informed Consent Form (see Appendix D) and then, they were asked to fill out the English version of the DCT.

The second stage was conducted during the fall term of the 2008-2009 academic year when the Turkish language teachers were given the Turkish version of the Informed Consent Form (see Appendix E). After eliciting their consent, they were asked to fill out the Turkish version of the DCT (see Appendix F).

The third stage was carried out during the spring term of the 2008-2009 academic year. This stage of aimed to elicit the interlanguage data from Turkish-speaking EFL

learners enrolled in the ELT Department. After eliciting the required approval of the Faculty of Education, DCTs (Appendix F) were administered to the students. In order to avoid possible comprehension problems during the administration of the DCT, the instructions were provided both orally in Turkish and in written form in English. They were asked to respond as naturally as possible while completing the DCTs. It took them about 25 minutes to fill out the DCTs and they were free to ask the researcher questions regarding the dialogues in the DCTs, if they had any.

3.6 Data Analysis

Following the procedure employed by many researchers (Beebe et al., 1990; Chang, 2008; Golato, 2002; Kwon, 2004; Wannaruk, 2005), the data collected qualitatively from the three groups of participants (i.e., NSE, NST and the IL group) were analysed from two perspectives. First, the semantic formulas were coded as ‘direct refusals’, ‘indirect refusals’ and ‘adjuncts to refusals’ based on the Beebe et al. (1990) classification system. This procedure allowed for a broader classification regarding the refusal strategies found in the collected data. Second, in the light of the same classification system but with additional categories (see Appendix G) put forward by Beebe et al. (1990) and Kwon (2005) respectively, the refusal responses given by the participants were analysed as consisting of sequences of semantic formulas. A semantic formula refers to “a word, phrase, or sentence that meets a particular semantic criterion or strategy; any one or more of these can be used to perform the act in question” (Cohen, 1996, p.265). For instance, in the situation where respondents had to refuse an invitation to a party given by his/her boss, a response such as “I’d love to be there, but I have a prior engagement. I’m very sorry,” was analysed and coded as consisting of three units as shown in the brackets below:

- (1) I'd love to be there,
[statement of positive opinion/feeling]
- (2) but I have a prior engagement.
[excuse, reason, explanation]
- (3) I'm very sorry.
[statement of regret]

After the coding process was completed, the refusal strategies used by the participants were analysed in terms of the choice and frequency of the semantic formulas. Therefore, the last part of the data analysis was composed of three phases in which the data were quantified.

First, the number of each semantic formula employed by each group in each situation was counted and converted into percentages. Second, the frequency distribution of semantic formulas used by the participants according to the status of the interlocutor and eliciting speech acts (i.e., requests, invitations, offers, and suggestions) was calculated. Finally, the frequency of refusal strategies used by the IL group was compared to that of the cross-cultural baseline data in order to find out if any pragmatic transfer occurs in the refusals of Turkish-speaking EFL learners.

Frequency counts of semantic formulas were considered to provide evidence of pragmatic transfer when the frequencies of refusal responses elicited from the participants reflect any of the following patterns:

1. The frequency of the NSTs' responses containing a given semantic formula is the greatest, followed by the IL group and the NSEs' responses,

2. The frequency of the NSTs' responses containing a given semantic formula is the lowest, followed by the IL group and the NSEs' responses,
3. The frequency of the NSTs' responses containing a given semantic formula is equal or similar to the IL group's responses. However, the frequency of the NSEs' responses containing the given semantic formula is greater than the NSTs' and the IL group's responses,
4. The frequency of the NSTs' responses containing a given semantic formula is equal or similar to the IL group's responses. However, the frequency of the NSEs' responses containing the given semantic formula is less than the NSTs' and the IL group's responses,
5. The NSTs and the IL group use a formula that the NSEs do not,
6. The NSTs and the IL group do not use a formula that the NSEs do (Al-Issa, 1998; Beebe et al., 1990; Kwon, 2004; Nyugen, 2005).

Based on the guidelines mentioned above, the occurrence of pragmatic transfer was confirmed when the frequency of strategies used by the IL group in their refusals differed from that of the NSEs, and resembled that of the NSTs (Al-Issa, 2003; Chang, 2008; Kahraman and Akkuş, 2007).

Finally, the results were summarised in the form of tables which are going to be presented in the following chapter.

3.7 Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

The present study entails several limitations which should be noted. The first limitation is concerned with the data collection instrument. Although the rationale for the use of the DCT as a data collection instrument was provided in section 3.4, it

does not allow the researcher to observe extended and dynamic negotiations between interlocutors which take place in natural interactional sequences.

Another limitation is related to the human data sources. As indicated in section 3.3, this study focused mainly on the refusal strategies employed by the Turkish-speaking EFL learners in the ELT Department of Eastern Mediterranean University in Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. Therefore, the findings of this study can not be generalised to other groups such as learners of English studying in other departments or in an ESL context.

Furthermore, in the present study, the native speakers of British English and Turkish provided the cross-cultural baseline data; however, native speakers of different regional varieties of British English and Turkish may have different preferences in their speech act behaviours.

3.8 Summary

This chapter was concerned with the methodology adopted to collect and analyse the data. First, the overall research design has been presented. Second, the context in which the present study was carried out has been described. Third, information about participants of the study has been provided under two headings: native speakers of English and Turkish and the Turkish-speaking EFL learners. Next, the data collection instrument utilized in the study has been described. Then, the data collection and data analysis procedures have been described in detail. Finally, the limitations and delimitations of the study have been mentioned.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.0 Presentation

In this chapter, the results of the present study are presented (section 4.1). More specifically, based on the frequency of all the semantic formulas used by the research groups, the similarities and differences between the baseline groups and the IL group are explained. This chapter also reports on instances of pragmatic transfer identified in the learners' refusal responses.

In subsection 4.1.1 below, the refusal responses elicited from research groups are examined from three perspectives, namely, direct strategies, indirect strategies and adjuncts to refusals. The rest of the subsections (4.1.2, 4.1.3, 4.1.4, 4.1.5) focus on the frequency of each individual refusal strategy in each situation.

4.1 Results

The results section entails five subsections. In the first subsection (4.1.1) the refusal strategies employed by the participants are examined in terms of three general categories (i.e., direct strategies, indirect strategies and adjuncts to refusals). In the tables regarding the subsections 4.1.2-4.1.5, the frequency of strategies used in refusing requests (situations 12, 2, 1), invitations (situations 4, 10, 3), offers (situations 11, 9, 7) and suggestions (situations 6, 5, 8) from a higher, an equal and a lower status person are presented.

4.1.1 Distribution of Refusal Strategies across the Research Groups

Table 4.1

Total numbers and percentages of direct refusals, indirect refusals and adjuncts to refusals

Refusal strategies	Participants					
	NSE (n=16)		NST (n=16)		IL (n=150)	
	Total		Total		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Direct	53	10,78	68	15,25	794	19,28
Indirect	268	54,47	249	55,83	2450	59,48
Adjunct	171	34,75	129	28,92	875	21,24
Total	492	100,00	446	100,00	4119	100,00

Note. NSE= Native speakers of English, NST= Native speakers of Turkish, IL= Interlanguage Group (i.e., Turkish-speaking EFL learners).

As can be seen in Table 4.1 above, 10,78% of the NSEs utilised direct strategies in their refusal strategies, while the same group of strategies were employed by 15,25% of the NSTs. On the other hand, the IL group (19,28%) resorted to direct strategies with a similar frequency to that of the Turkish baseline group.

Regarding the use of indirect strategies, the results reveal that 54,47% of the NSEs, 55,83% of the NSTs, and 59,48% of the IL group, falling back on Turkish pragmalinguistic norms preferred to employ indirect strategies and, utilised them in their refusal responses.

As to the use of adjuncts, Table 4.1 presents that the strategies in this category were used mostly by the NSEs with a frequency of 34,75%. However, it was found that

21,24% of the IL group utilised adjuncts almost as frequently as did the NSTs (28,92%), which suggests evidence of pragmatic transfer.

4.1.2 Refusals of Requests

In this section, the strategies employed by the NSEs, the NSTs and the IL group while refusing the requests given by a higher, an equal and a lower status person are presented. The situations which require refusals of requests are given as follows:

Situation 12: Refusing a higher status person's request

‘A boss asks an employee (the respondent) to stay late at the office.’

Situation 2: Refusing an equal status person's request

‘A classmate, who often misses class, asks to borrow the respondent's notes.’

Situation 1: Refusing a lower status person's request

‘An employee asks a boss (the respondent) for a raise.’

Table 4.2

Percentages of semantic formulas in refusals of request (situations 12, 2, 1)

Semantic Formulas	NSE (n=16)			NST (n=16)			IL Group (n=150)		
	Higher (%)	Equal (%)	Lower (%)	Higher (%)	Equal (%)	Lower (%)	Higher (%)	Equal (%)	Lower (%)
Pause filler	12,50 (2)	6,25 (1)	12,50 (2)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	6,00 (9)	8,00 (12)	10,00 (15)
Excuse, reason, explanation	93,75 (15)	56,25 (9)	62,50 (10)	100,00 (16)	43,75 (7)	68,75 (11)	93,33 (140)	50,66 (76)	72,66 (109)
Statement of alternative	43,75 (7)	37,50 (6)	0,00 (0)	12,50 (2)	37,50 (6)	0,00 (0)	10,00 (15)	18,66 (28)	2,00 (3)
Statement of positive opinion/feeling	31,25 (5)	0,00 (0)	18,75 (3)	43,75 (7)	0,00 (0)	81,25 (13)	10,00 (15)	2,66 (4)	32,00 (48)

Note. NSE= Native speakers of English, NST= Native speakers of Turkish, IL= Interlanguage Group (i.e., Turkish-speaking EFL learners).

Table 4.2 (continued)

Semantic Formulas	NSE (n=16)			NST (n=16)			IL Group (n=150)		
	Higher (%)	Equal (%)	Lower (%)	Higher (%)	Equal (%)	Lower (%)	Higher (%)	Equal (%)	Lower (%)
Statement of regret	37,50 (6)	56,25 (9)	25,00 (4)	31,25 (5)	37,50 (6)	6,25 (1)	63,33 (95)	60,00 (90)	52,66 (79)
Negative willingness/ability	18,75 (3)	12,50 (2)	18,75 (3)	12,50 (2)	31,25 (5)	68,75 (11)	29,33 (44)	52,00 (78)	68,66 (103)
Request for empathy	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,66 (1)
Self-defence	0,00 (0)	18,75 (3)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	12,50 (2)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	2,00 (3)	0,00 (0)
Statement of philosophy	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,66 (1)	0,00 (0)
Criticise the hearer	0,00 (0)	18,75 (3)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	31,25 (5)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	36,66 (55)	0,00 (0)
Postponement	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	50,00 (8)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	25,00 (4)	1,33 (2)	0,00 (0)	6,00 (9)
Gratitude/Appreciation	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	25,00 (4)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,66 (1)
Asking a question	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	2,00 (3)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)
Passive negative willingness	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	12,50 (2)	0,00 (0)	18,75 (3)	25,00 (4)	2,66 (4)	3,33 (5)	11,33 (17)
Set condition for future/past acceptance	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	0,66 (1)	0,66 (1)	2,00 (3)
Statement of negative consequence	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	1,33 (2)	2,00 (3)	1,33 (2)
Direct 'no'	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	3,33 (5)	20,66 (31)	7,33 (11)
Let interlocutor off the hook	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)
Statement of principle	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	1,33 (2)	0,00 (0)
Statement of empathy	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,66 (1)	11,33 (17)

Pause filler

As can be observed in Table 4.2, when refusing the boss's request to stay late at the office, 12,50% of the NSEs used pause fillers. Similar to the NSE respondents, 6% of the IL group employed pause fillers, which seems to suggest a convergence toward the target norm. However, this strategy was not found in the Turkish baseline data. The same strategy, pause filler, was employed by 6,25% of the NSEs when refusing the classmate's request for notes. Unlike the NSTs, who did not prefer to use this strategy, the IL group resembled the English participants in that 8% of them utilised this formula in their refusals. The same case is valid for the third situation, where the participants were asked to refuse the employee's request for a raise in salary. In this context, 12,50% of the NSEs used pause fillers in their refusals to the employee. The results also indicate that the IL group resorted to this strategy almost as frequently as did the NSEs with a frequency of 10%, which seems to suggest an approximation toward the target norm.

Excuse, reason, explanation

As can be seen in Table 4.2, when refusing the boss's request to stay late at the office, it was found that the IL group (93,33%) gave reasons, excuses and explanations with a similar frequency to that of the NSEs (93,75%). The IL in this case demonstrated a target-like pragmatic behaviour. On the other hand, the strategy of giving reasons, excuses and explanations reached its highest frequency in the Turkish baseline data since 100% of the NSTs resorted to this strategy when refusing the request made by the boss. Similarly, when refusing to lend notes to the classmate, the IL group resembled the NSEs in that the frequency of this strategy (i.e., excuse, reason, explanation) in both the IL group and the NSEs (56,25% and 50,66%

respectively) was higher than that of the NSTs (43,75%). However, when refusing the employee's request for a raise in salary, 62,50% of the NSEs provided reasons, excuses and explanation. It was also found that 68,75% of the NSTs used this strategy in their refusals to the employee. Likewise, 72,66% of the IL group preferred to use this strategy, as well. Therefore, both the NSTs and the IL group used this strategy more frequently than did the NSEs, which suggests evidence of pragmatic transfer.

Statement of alternative

Regarding the third strategy, that is, statement of alternative, the results show that when refusing the boss's request to stay late at the office, 43,75% of the NSEs refused the boss's request by giving an alternative. On the other hand, the same strategy was used by 12,50% of the NSTs and 10% of the IL group, which indicates evidence of pragmatic transfer. When refusing to lend notes to the classmate, 37,50% of the NSEs and NSTs utilised the strategy of statement of alternative, while the IL group (18,66%) used this strategy less frequently than did both the NSEs and the NSTs, which seems to exhibit a unique IL pattern. This unique IL pattern was also observed in the situation where the participants had to refuse an employee's request for a raise in salary. The refusal responses written for this situation indicated that 2% of the IL group stated alternatives, whereas this strategy was not found in both the English and in the Turkish baseline data.

Statement of positive opinion/feeling

As indicated in Table 4.2, 10% of the IL group stated their positive opinion/feeling in their refusals to the boss's request to stay late at the office, while this strategy was used by 31,25% of the NSEs and 43,75% of the NSTs in the same context.

Therefore, parallel to the previous case, the IL group demonstrated a unique IL pattern. Similarly, the IL group contrasted with both the NSEs and the NSTs in the frequency of occurrence of this strategy when refusing to lend the notes to the classmate. In other words, 2,66% of the IL group stated their positive opinion/feeling; however, the same formula was non-existent in both English and Turkish refusal responses. With regard to the refusals performed to the employee who asked for a raise in salary, the NSTs (81,25%) stated their positive opinion/feeling much more frequently than did the NSEs (18,75%). The IL group (32%) also used this formula more frequently than did the NSEs, which indicates evidence of pragmatic transfer.

Statement of regret

Table 4.2 demonstrates that 37,50% of the NSEs expressed regret in refusing the boss's request to stay late at the office. The NSTs used the same formula with a similar frequency, that is, 31,25%. On the other hand, the IL group (63,33%) expressed regret more frequently than did both the NSEs and the NSTs, which shows a unique IL pattern. In refusing the request made by the classmate, 56,25% of the NSEs employed the formula of statement of regret, while 37,50% of the NSTs resorted to this formula. Approximating to the target norm, 60% of the IL group stated regret to the classmate, which suggests a convergence toward the target norm. In the situation where the participants were asked to refuse the employee's request for a raise in salary, the IL group (52,66%) expressed regret much more frequently than did both the NSEs (25%) and the NSTs (6,25%). The learners in this case demonstrated a pragmatic behaviour unique to them.

Negative willingness/ability

The percentage of the IL group who refused with a negative willingness/ability strategy was higher than that of both the NSEs and the NSTs when refusing the boss's request to stay late at the office. More specifically, while 18,75% of the NSEs and 12,50% of the NSTs utilised a negative willingness/ability strategy, 29,33% of the IL group stated their willingness/ability to the boss. When refusing the classmate's request for notes, 12,50% of the NSEs expressed their negative willingness/ability, whereas, 31,25% of the Turkish respondents employed this strategy. As for the IL data, it was found that they used this strategy much more frequently than did both the NSEs and the NSTs. In other words, 52% of the participants were noted to state their negative willingness/ability in their refusals to the classmate, which suggests a unique IL pattern. Similarly, when refusing the employee's request for a raise in salary, the figures illustrate that 18,75% of the NSEs preferred to state their negative willingness/ability. However, the IL group (68,66%) employed this formula with a similar frequency to that of the NSTs (68,75%). This situation displays evidence of pragmatic transfer.

Request for empathy

As can be seen in Table 4.2, 6,25% of the NSEs requested for empathy in refusing the boss's request to stay late at the office, while the NSTs did not use this strategy across all status types. Instances of pragmatic transfer were observed in the refusal responses elicited from the IL group since like the NSTs, they did not employ this strategy except for the situation where they were required to refuse the employee's request for a raise in salary. In this situation, 0,66% of the IL group requested for empathy, which seems to indicate the unique choice by the IL group.

Self-defence

As can be seen from the figures in Table 4.2 above, the strategy of self-defence was not preferred by the participants in their refusal responses to the boss's request to stay late at the office. On the other hand, 18,75% of the NSEs defended themselves in their refusals to the classmate. This percentage was found to be lower in the Turkish baseline data as 12,50% of the NSTs used this strategy. Similar to the NSTs, the IL group used this strategy less frequently than did the NSEs with a frequency of 2%, which suggests evidence of pragmatic transfer. When refusing the employee's request for a raise in salary, it was found that the strategy of self-defence was non-existent in the refusal responses of all participants.

Statement of philosophy

As shown in Table 4.2, when refusing the boss's request to stay late at the office, the strategy of statement of philosophy did not occur in the English baseline data. This strategy did not appear across all status types in the Turkish baseline data, as well. Unlike the NSTs, who did not utilise this strategy in their refusal responses across all status types, 6,25% of the NSEs refused the classmate's request for notes by stating their philosophy. As for the IL group, it was found that they used the same strategy with a frequency of 0,66% in their refusals to the classmate, which suggests a convergence toward the target norm.

Criticise the hearer

Table 4.2 demonstrates that in refusing the boss's request to stay late at the office and the employee's request for a raise in salary, the strategy of criticising the hearer was not used by the Turkish and English respondents and it was not found in the IL

data, as well. Regarding the refusal responses given to the classmate, 18,75% of the NSEs criticised the hearer. This strategy was used more frequently by the NSTs (31,25%). Following the native language norms, 36,66% of the IL group criticised the classmate in their refusals.

Postponement

As shown in Table 4.2, in refusing the boss's request to stay late at the office, the NSEs and the NSTs did not opt for the strategy of postponement. Only 1,33% of the IL group refused by postponing the request, which indicates a unique choice by the IL group. When the participants were asked to refuse the classmate's request for notes, none of them chose this strategy. However, half of the NSEs used the strategy of postponement to the employee who asked for a raise in salary. The NSTs (25%) resorted to this strategy less frequently than did the NSEs. Similar to the NSTs, the IL group used this strategy less frequently than did the NSEs with a frequency of 2%, which provides evidence of pragmatic transfer.

Gratitude/Appreciation

As can be observed in Table 4.2, the expression of gratitude/appreciation was not found in the refusal responses given to the boss's request to stay late at the office and the classmate's request for notes. Unlike the NSTs, who did not use this strategy in refusing the request made by the employee, 25% of the NSEs expressed their gratitude/appreciation and it was also used by 0,66% of the IL group, which suggests a convergence toward the target norm.

Asking a question

As illustrated in Table 4.2, when refusing the boss's request to stay late, the strategy of asking a question was absent in the English baseline data. In contrast to the NSEs, it was found that 6,25% of the NSTs and 2% of the IL group resorted to this strategy in their refusals to the boss, which indicates evidence of pragmatic transfer. As Table 3 presents, the strategy of asking a question did not occur in the refusals responses of all the participants given to the classmate. But, evidence of pragmatic transfer was also found in the situation where the participants were asked to refuse the employee's request for a raise in salary. In this situation, the strategy of asking a question was not used by NSTs and IL group, which suggests evidence of pragmatic transfer. It was only used by 6,25% of the NSEs in their refusals to the employee.

Passive negative willingness

As reflected in Table 4.2, the strategy of passive negative willingness did not appear in the refusal responses given by the NSEs and the NSTs to the boss's request to stay late at the office. However, following neither the target norm nor the native language norm, 2,66% of the IL group utilised this strategy in their refusal responses, which indicates a unique IL pattern. As for refusing the request made by the classmate, the results reveal that 18,75% of the NSTs opted for the strategy of passive negative willingness. While this strategy did not appear in the English baseline data, it was used by 3,33% of the IL group, which suggests a possible native language influence. Regarding the refusal responses given to the employee's request for a raise in salary, the results demonstrate that 25% of the NSTs expressed their passive negative willingness. It was also found that the IL group (11,33%) employed this strategy

almost as frequently as did the NSEs (12,50%), which seems to indicate a convergence toward the target norm.

Set condition for future/past acceptance

As can be seen in Table 4.2, regardless of all status types, the NSEs did not set condition for future/past acceptance in their refusals; however, 6,25% of the NSTs and 0,66% of the IL group employed this strategy in their refusals to the boss's request to stay late at the office, which implies a possible native language influence. In refusing the classmate's request for notes, the strategy of setting condition for future/past acceptance was non-existent in both baseline data, but it was utilised by 0,66% of the IL group, which indicates a unique choice by the IL group. In the last situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the request made by the employee, 6,25% of the NSTs set condition for future/past acceptance. Likewise, 2% of the IL group resorted to this strategy in the same context, which provides evidence of pragmatic transfer.

Statement of negative consequences

As shown in Table 4.2, the NSEs did not state negative consequences in all three request situations. Like the NSEs, the NSTs did not use this strategy when refusing the request made by the boss to stay late at the office. But, resembling neither the NSEs nor the NSTs, 1,33% of the IL group stated negative consequences to the boss, which shows a unique IL pattern. With regard to the second situation where the participants were asked to refuse the classmate's request for notes, it was found that in contrast to the NSEs, 6,25% of the NSTs refused by stating negative consequences. The same strategy was used by 2% of the IL group, which suggests a possible native language influence. As for the last situation, neither the NSEs nor the

NSTs stated negative consequences to the employee who asked for a raise in salary. However, it was utilised by 1,33% of the IL group to the employee, which indicates the unique choice by the IL group.

Direct ‘no’

The strategy of direct ‘no’ was not used by the NSEs across all status types. Similar to the NSEs, the NSTs did not refuse by saying direct ‘no’ in the situation where they were asked to refuse the boss’s request to say late at the office, but it was utilised by 3,33% of the IL group, which shows a unique IL pattern. In refusing the classmate’s request for notes, the NSTs differed from the NSEs since 6,25% of the NSTs used direct no, while direct ‘no’ did not occur in the English baseline data. In contrast to the NSEs who did not use direct ‘no’, 20,66% of the IL refused by saying ‘no’ to the classmate, which provides evidence of pragmatic transfer. In the last situation, the IL group displayed a unique IL pattern since 7,33% of the IL group employed direct no in refusing the employee’s request for a raise in salary, while this strategy was not found in both types of baseline data.

Let the interlocutor off the hook

The results reveal that all three groups of participants did not employ the strategy of letting the interlocutor off the hook in all request situations. Only 6,25% of the NSTs resorted to this strategy when refusing the classmate’s request for notes.

Statement of principle

As shown in Table 4.2, similar to the use of previous strategy, three groups of participants did not resort to the strategy of statement of principle across different status types except for second situation where the participants were asked to refuse

the classmate's request for notes. Only 1,33% of the IL group were found to use this strategy in refusing the classmate's request, which indicates the unique choice by the IL group.

Statement of empathy

Regardless of different status types, none of the NSEs and NSTs employed the strategy of statement of empathy. On the other hand, except for refusing the boss's request to stay late at the office, the IL group differed from the NSEs and NSTs in that 0,66% of them stated their empathy in their refusals to the classmate's request for notes and 11,33% of them did so when refusing the employee's request for a raise in salary. In these two situations the IL group were observed to demonstrate a unique IL pattern.

4.1.3 Refusals of Invitations

In this section, the strategies employed by the NSEs, the NSTs and the IL group while refusing the invitations made by a higher, an equal and a lower status person are presented. The situations which require refusals of invitations are given below:

Situation 4: Refusing a higher status person's invitation

‘A boss invites the respondent to a party at short notice.’

Situation 10: Refusing an equal status person's invitation

‘A friend invites the respondent to dinner.’

Situation 3: Refusing a lower status person's invitation

‘A salesman from another company invites the respondent, who is the president of a company, to dinner.’

Table 4.3

Percentage of semantic formulas in refusals of invitations (situations 4, 10, 3)

Semantic Formulas	NSE (n=16)			NST (n=16)			IL Group (n=150)		
	Higher (%)	Equal (%)	Lower (%)	Higher (%)	Equal (%)	Lower (%)	Higher (%)	Equal (%)	Lower (%)
Statement of regret	62,50 (10)	43,75 (7)	18,75 (3)	62,50 (10)	37,50 (6)	18,75 (3)	52,66 (79)	54,00 (81)	44,66 (67)
Negative willingness/ability	43,75 (7)	6,25 (1)	31,25 (5)	12,50 (2)	18,75 (3)	18,75 (3)	39,33 (59)	24,00 (36)	26,00 (39)
Excuse, reason, explanation	100,00 (16)	100,00 (16)	75,00 (12)	93,75 (15)	100,00 (16)	62,50 (10)	92,66 (139)	94,66 (142)	88,66 (133)
Statement of positive opinion/feeling	31,25 (5)	25,00 (4)	25,00 (4)	25,00 (4)	25,00 (4)	18,75 (3)	23,33 (35)	17,33 (26)	16,00 (24)
Gratitude / Appreciation	12,50 (2)	50,00 (8)	25,00 (4)	0,00 (0)	12,50 (2)	0,00 (0)	12,66 (19)	19,33 (29)	13,33 (20)
Statement of alternative	12,50 (2)	6,25 (1)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	25,00 (4)	3,33 (5)	8,00 (12)	8,66 (13)
Direct 'no'	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	6,00 (9)	6,00 (9)
Pause filler	18,75 (3)	25,00 (4)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	12,00 (18)	26,00 (39)	5,33 (8)
Postponement	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	12,50 (2)	2,66 (4)	2,00 (3)	3,33 (5)
Set condition for future/past acceptance	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	2,00 (3)	1,33 (2)	2,00 (3)
Repetition of part of invitation	6,25 (1)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	2,00 (3)	0,66 (1)	0,66 (1)
Passive negative willingness	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	25,00 (4)	0,00 (0)	18,75 (3)	2,66 (4)	1,33 (2)	2,00 (3)
Asking a question	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	12,50 (2)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)
Topic switch	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)
Statement of principle	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,66 (1)
Saying 'I tried'	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)
Wish	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	12,50 (2)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	5,33 (8)	2,66 (4)	1,33 (2)

Note. NSE= Native speakers of English, NST= Native speakers of Turkish, IL= Interlanguage Group (i.e., Turkish-speaking EFL learners).

Statement of regret

Table 4.3 shows that while 62,50% of both NSEs and NSTs refused the boss's invitation to the party with the statement of regret, the IL group (52,66%) opted for this strategy less frequently than did both the NSEs and the NSTs, which shows a unique IL pattern. When refusing the friend's invitation to dinner, 43,75% of the NSEs utilised the strategy of statement of regret. In the same situation, 37,50% of the NSTs preferred this strategy. As was the case in the previous situation, the IL group demonstrated a unique IL pattern since more than half of them (54%) stated their regret. In refusing the salesman's invitation to dinner, 18,75% of the NSEs and the NSTs employed the strategy of statement of regret. However, the IL group (44,66%) used this strategy more frequently than did both the NSEs and the NSTs, which reveals a pragmatic behaviour unique to them.

Negative willingness/ability

The results in Table 4.3 reveal that 43,75% of the NSEs refused the invitation from the boss with a negative willingness/ability strategy. While 18,75% of the NSTs stated their negative willingness/ability, the IL group employed this strategy almost as frequently as did the NSEs. That is, 39,33% of the IL group used this strategy in their refusals, which suggests a convergence toward the target norm. In refusing a friend's invitation to dinner, 6,25% of the NSEs stated their negative willingness/ability, whereas this strategy was employed more frequently by the NSTs with a frequency of 18,75%. Similarly, the IL group also utilised this strategy more frequently than did the NSEs with a frequency of 24%, which provides evidence of pragmatic transfer. When the participants were asked to refuse the invitation from a salesman, 31,25% of the NSEs employed the strategy of negative willingness/ability.

The IL group were also found to use this strategy almost as frequently as did NSEs. In other words, 26% of the IL group stated their negative willingness/ability, which suggests that the IL group seemed to approximate to the NSEs. On the other hand, 18,75% of the NSTs used negative willingness/ability in their refusals given to the salesman.

Excuse, reason, explanation

When refusing the boss's invitation to the party, all the NSEs (100%) preferred to state their excuses, reasons and explanations. On the other hand, the NSTs (93,75%) and the IL group (92,66%) reported employing of excuse, reason, explanation strategy in the same situation. The IL group in this case seemed to fall back on Turkish norms when performing in the target language. As for the other situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the friend's invitation to dinner, it was found that all the NSEs and NSTs stated their excuse, reason and explanation, but the percentage of the IL group (94,66%) who refused using this strategy was lower than that of the NSEs and NSTs, which shows a unique IL pattern. On the other hand, in refusing the salesman's invitation to dinner, 75% of the NSEs utilised the strategy of excuse, reason and explanation, while 62,50% of the NSTs chose this strategy. It was also found that like the NSEs, the IL group (88,66%) stated their excuses, reasons, and explanations more frequently than did the NSTs in their refusals to the salesman's invitation to dinner, which suggests a convergence toward the target norm.

Statement of positive opinion/feeling

According to the results in Table 4.3, 31,25% of the NSEs refused the boss's invitation to the party by stating their positive opinion/feeling. This strategy was

preferred by 25% of the NSTs and, similar to the NSTs, 23,33% of the IL group were found to employ this strategy to the boss. This situation indicates the presence of pragmatic transfer. When refusing the friend's invitation to dinner, the results show that 25% of the NSEs and NSTs resorted to the statement of positive opinion/feeling strategy. However, this strategy was used by 17,33% of the IL group. The IL group, in this case, demonstrated a pragmatic behaviour unique to them. As for the last situation, the results display that 25% of the NSEs used the statement of positive opinion/feeling strategy in refusing the salesman's invitation to dinner. The NSTs (18,75%) used this strategy less frequently than did the NSEs (25%). Likewise, the IL (16%) resorted to this strategy less frequently than did the NSEs, which provides evidence of pragmatic transfer.

Gratitude/Appreciation

As shown in Table 4.3, in refusing the boss's invitation to the party, 12,50% of the NSEs expressed their gratitude/appreciation, whereas this strategy did not appear in the Turkish baseline data. Approximating to the NSEs, 12,66% of the IL group used the gratitude/appreciation formula in their refusals to the boss's invitation to the party. When the participants were asked to refuse the friend's invitation to dinner, half of the NSEs (50%) favoured the use of gratitude/appreciation formula. The IL group (19,33%) resembled the NSTs (12,50%) in regard to the employment of this formula since both groups expressed their gratitude/appreciation less frequently than did the NSEs. This result seems to indicate evidence of pragmatic transfer. In refusing the salesman's invitation to dinner, 25% of the NSEs utilised the gratitude/appreciation strategy; however, it was non-existent in the Turkish baseline data. In contrast to the NSTs, 13,33% of the IL group expressed their

gratitude/appreciation to the salesman, which suggests a convergence toward the target norm.

Statement of alternative

The results in Table 4.3 show that 12,50% of the NSEs stated an alternative in refusing the boss's invitation to the party. Although the statement of alternative strategy was absent in the Turkish baseline data, 3,33% of the IL group utilised this strategy to the boss. As was the case in the previous situation mentioned above, this situation suggests a convergence toward the target norm. When refusing a friend's invitation to dinner, 6,25% of the NSEs and NSTs stated an alternative, but this strategy was used more frequently by the IL group with a frequency of 8%, which demonstrates a pragmatic behaviour unique to them. With regard to the last situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the salesman's invitation to dinner, the results reveal that 6,25% of the NSEs refused by stating an alternative, whereas this strategy was utilised by 25% of the NSTs in the same context. On the other hand, the IL group (8,66%) employed this strategy with a similar frequency to that of the NSEs (6,25%).

Direct 'no'

The figures in Table 4.3 indicate that none of the participants from three groups refused the boss's invitation to a party with a direct 'no'. While the direct 'no' formula was totally avoided by the NSEs in their refusal responses to the friend's and salesman's invitation to dinner, it was used by 6,25% of the NSTs in both situations. Relying on Turkish pragmalinguistic routines, 6% of the IL group used direct 'no' in refusing the invitation made by the friend and the salesman.

Pause filler

As shown in Table 4.3, when refusing the boss's invitation to dinner, 18,75% of the NSEs used pause fillers, whereas this strategy did not appear in the Turkish baseline data. Approximating to the NSEs, 12% of the IL group utilised pause fillers in their refusal responses given to the boss. The same situation was also observed in the dialogue where the respondents were asked to refuse the friend's invitation to dinner. Pause fillers were used by 25% of the NSE in their refusals to the friend's invitation. Unlike the NSTs, who did not use this strategy, 26% of the IL group resorted to pause fillers, which demonstrates a native-like pragmatic behaviour. As was the case in the previous situation, the NSTs did not use any pause fillers with the salesman; however, 6,25% of the NSEs used this strategy. Approximating to the NSEs, the IL group (5,33%) paused almost as frequently as did the target language group.

Postponement

As illustrated in Table 4.3, 6,25% of the NSEs used the strategy of postponement in refusing the boss's invitation to the party, whereas this strategy was non-existent in the Turkish baseline data. The strategy of postponement was used by 2,66% of the IL group in the same context, which suggests a convergence toward the target norm. In the situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the friend's invitation to dinner, it was found that the strategy of postponement was avoided by the NSEs. The results also reveal that this strategy was preferred by 6,25% of the NSTs in their refusals to the friend. Deviating from the target norm, 2% of the IL group resorted to this strategy, which suggests an instance of pragmatic transfer. In the last situation, while none of the NSE used the strategy of postponement to the salesman, 12,50% of the NSTs refused the salesman's invitation to dinner by using this strategy. As was

the case in the previous situation, 3,33% of the IL group opted for this strategy, which seems to indicate Turkish-induced pragmatic behaviour.

Set condition for future/past acceptance

As shown in Table 4.3, while 6,25% of the NSTs used the strategy of setting condition for future/past acceptance to the boss, this strategy did not occur in the English baseline data. Showing a tendency toward the target language norms, 2% of the IL group employed this strategy in refusing the invitation made by the boss. When the participants were asked to refuse the friend's invitation to dinner, the strategy of setting condition for future/past acceptance was totally avoided by the NSEs and the NSTs, but it was employed by 1,33% of the IL group. This situation seems to constitute a pragmatic behaviour unique to the IL group. As for the last situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the salesman's invitation to dinner, the results reveal that the NSEs did not resort to the strategy of setting condition for future/past acceptance, yet it was utilised by 6,25% of the NSTs. This strategy was also used by 2% of the IL group, which seems to indicate Turkish-induced pragmatic behaviour.

Repetition of part of invitation

The strategy of repeating part of invitation was used by 6,25% of the NSEs and the NSTs when refusing the boss's invitation, but this strategy was utilised by the IL group with a frequency of 2% in the same situation. The IL group demonstrates a unique IL behaviour in that they employed this strategy less frequently than did both the NSEs and the NSTs. In the situation where the friend invited the interlocutor to dinner, the results indicate that 6,25% of the NSEs repeated the part of the invitation, whereas this strategy was absent in Turkish baseline data. This strategy was found to

be used by 0,66% of the IL group, which seems to suggest a likely convergence toward the target norm. The opposite situation was observed in the situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the salesman's invitation to dinner. While 6,25% of the NSTs resorted to repetition, it was avoided by the NSEs. The results also show that 0,66% of the IL group employed this strategy in their refusal responses, which seems to suggest a likely influence of the native language norms.

Passive negative willingness

Table 4.3 demonstrates that in refusing the boss's invitation to the party, the strategy of passive negative willingness was used by 25% of the NSTs, whereas it was non-existent in the English baseline data. In contrast to the NSEs, it was used by 2,66% by the IL group, which might indicate a possible effect of the native language norms. When the respondents were asked to refuse the friend's invitation to dinner, the strategy of passive negative willingness was avoided by both the NSEs and the NSTs. Unlike the two control groups, the IL group employed this strategy with a frequency of 1,33%. The use of this strategy seems to be unique to the IL group as it was used merely by them. In refusing the salesman's invitation to dinner, 6,25% of the NSEs resorted to the strategy of passive negative willingness. As for the Turkish baseline group, the NSTs employed this strategy more frequently than did the NSEs with a frequency of 18,75%. On the other hand, it was found that 2% of the IL group stated passive negative willingness, which suggests a convergence toward the target group.

Asking a question

As shown in Table 4.3, the NSEs, NSEs and IL group did not use the strategy of asking a question in their refusals across all status types except for the situation where 12,50% of the NSEs refused the invitation from a salesman by asking a question.

Topic switch

Similar to the previous case, the strategy of switching the topic did not appear in the refusal responses given by the participants to all status types except for the situation where 6,25% of the NSEs refused the invitation from a salesman by switching the topic.

Statement of principle

As can be seen in Table 4.3, the statement of principle strategy was not preferred by any group of participants when the interlocutors were of higher (i.e., boss) and equal (i.e., friend) statuses. However, in refusing the salesman's invitation to dinner, it was employed by 6,25% of the NSEs and NSTs. Displaying a pragmatic behaviour unique to them, the IL group utilised this strategy with a frequency of 0,66%.

Saying 'I tried'

The results in Table 4.3 show that the participants did not refuse the invitation made by the boss and the friend by saying that they had already tried the option in question, but this strategy was used by 6,25% of the NSEs to in their refusals to the salesman.

Statement of wish

As shown in Table 4.3, the NSEs did not employ the strategy of the statement of wish across all status types. Unlike the NSEs, 12,50% of the NSTs used this strategy only in refusing the boss's invitation to the party. The results also reveal that 5,33% of the IL group resorted to this strategy in the same situation, which shows evidence of pragmatic transfer. However, in the last two situations where the participants were asked to refuse the invitations made by the friend and the salesman to dinner, the IL group demonstrated a unique IL pattern in their refusals since 2,66% of them employed the strategy of statement of wish to the friend and 1,33% of them opted for this strategy when refusing the salesman's invitation to dinner.

4.1.4 Refusals of Suggestions

In this section, the strategies employed by the NSEs, the NSTs and the IL group while refusing the suggestions made by a higher, an equal and a lower status person are presented. The situations which require refusals of suggestions are listed as follows:

Situation 6: Refusing a higher status person's suggestion

'The respondent (i.e., employee) is searching through the mess on his/her desk and the boss walks in and gives him/her a suggestion on how to be better organised.'

Situation 5: Refusing an equal person's suggestion

'The respondent was asked by a friend to try a new diet.'

Situation 8: Refusing a lower status person's suggestion

'The respondent, a language teacher, received a suggestion from a student to give more practice in conversation.'

Table 4.4

Percentage of semantic formulas in refusals of suggestions (situations 6, 5, 8)

Semantic Formulas	NSE (n=16)			NST (n=16)			IL Group (n=150)		
	Higher (%)	Equal (%)	Lower (%)	Higher (%)	Equal (%)	Lower (%)	Higher (%)	Equal (%)	Lower (%)
Statement of positive opinion/feeling	25,00 (4)	6,25 (1)	12,50 (2)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	12,50 (2)	19,33 (29)	6,00 (9)	12,00 (18)
Saying 'I tried'	18,75 (3)	25,00 (4)	0,00 (0)	31,25 (5)	25,00 (4)	0,00 (0)	16,66 (25)	16,00 (24)	0,00 (0)
Excuse, reason, explanation	31,25 (5)	25,00 (4)	25,00 (4)	43,75 (7)	37,50 (6)	68,75 (11)	32,66 (49)	46,66 (67)	48,00 (72)
Statement of negative consequences	31,25 (5)	31,25 (5)	12,50 (2)	25,00 (4)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	19,33 (29)	10,00 (15)	8,66 (13)
Self-defence	50,00 (8)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	12,50 (2)	22,00 (33)	0,00 (0)	14,66 (22)
Let interlocutor off the hook	12,50 (2)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	12,50 (2)	0,66 (1)	0,00 (0)	6,00 (9)
Postponement	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	25,00 (4)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	1,33 (2)	4,66 (7)
Statement of alternative	12,50 (2)	18,75 (2)	12,50 (2)	6,25 (1)	18,75 (3)	12,50 (2)	4,00 (6)	20,00 (30)	18,00 (27)
Gratitude / Appreciation	18,75 (3)	18,75 (2)	43,75 (7)	18,75 (3)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	10,66 (16)	20,66 (31)	3,33 (5)
Promise of future acceptance	18,75 (3)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	12,50 (2)	0,00 (0)	12,50 (2)	14,66 (22)	1,33 (2)	4,00 (6)
Statement of regret	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	11,33 (17)	1,33 (2)	15,33 (23)
Pause filler	0,00 (0)	12,50 (2)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	2,66 (4)	4,00 (6)	7,33 (11)
Passive negative willingness	0,00 (0)	50,00 (8)	75,00 (12)	56,25 (9)	25,00 (4)	56,25 (9)	5,33 (8)	8,00 (12)	10,66 (16)
Direct 'no'	0,00 (0)	31,25 (5)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,66 (1)	25,33 (38)	6,66 (10)

Note. NSE= Native speakers of English, NST= Native speakers of Turkish, IL= Interlanguage Group (i.e., Turkish-speaking EFL learners).

Table 4.4 (continued)

Semantic Formulas	NSE (n=16)			NST (n=16)			IL Group (n=150)		
	Higher (%)	Equal (%)	Lower (%)	Higher (%)	Equal (%)	Lower (%)	Higher (%)	Equal (%)	Lower (%)
Statement of principle	0,00 (0)	12,50 (2)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	2,00 (3)	1,33 (2)	0,00 (0)
Asking a question	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,66 (1)	4,00 (6)	0,66 (1)
Lack of enthusiasm	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,66 (1)	9,33 (14)	0,00 (0)
Negative willingness/ability	0,00 (0)	12,50 (2)	0,00 (0)	12,50 (2)	81,25 (13)	0,00 (0)	5,33 (8)	28,00 (42)	11,33 (17)
Criticise the hearer	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	7,33 (11)
Statement of philosophy	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	1,33 (2)	0,00 (0)	0,66 (1)
Set condition for future/past acceptance	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	2,00 (3)	4,66 (7)

Note. NSE= Native speakers of English, NST= Native speakers of Turkish, IL= Interlanguage Group (i.e., Turkish-speaking EFL learners).

Statement of positive opinion/feeling

As indicated in Table 4.4, when refusing the boss's suggestion to write little reminders, 25% of the NSEs expressed their positive opinion/feeling. The IL group resembled the NSEs in regard to the employment of this strategy since 19,33% of the IL group stated positive opinion/feeling to the boss. In the same situation, the NSTs (6,25%) utilised this strategy less frequently than did both the NSEs and the IL group. In the dialogue where the respondents were asked to refuse the friend's suggestion to try a new diet, the results reveal that 6,25% of the NSEs expressed their positive opinion/feeling, whereas this strategy did not appear in the Turkish baseline data. It was also found that 6% of the IL group opted for this strategy when the interlocutor was equal in status, which indicates that the IL group approximated to the NSEs in their use of this strategy. On the other hand, in refusing the student's

suggestion of a conversation class, 12,50% of the NSEs and the NSTs stated their positive opinion/feeling. Similarly, 12% of the IL group used this strategy in their refusals to the student.

Saying 'I tried'

As shown in Table 4.4, when refusing the boss's suggestion to write little reminders, 18,75% of the NSEs said that they had already tried this technique; however, this strategy occurred more frequently in the Turkish baseline data since 31,25% of the NSTs stated that they had already tried the boss's suggestion. The results also indicate that 16,66% of the IL group employed this strategy, which suggests a convergence toward the target norm. In refusing a friend's suggestion to try a new diet, 25% of the NSEs and the NSTs said that they had already tried that diet, whereas the IL group (16%) utilised this strategy less frequently than did both the NSEs and NSTs, which shows a unique pragmatic behaviour. As for refusing a student's suggestion of a conversation class, this strategy was entirely absent in the refusal responses of the participants.

Excuse, reason, explanation

As can be seen in Table 4.4, when refusing the boss's suggestion to write little reminders, 31,25% of the NSEs gave excuses, reasons and explanations, but the NSTs used this strategy more frequently than did the NSEs with a frequency of 43,75% . It was also found that the strategy of giving excuses, reason and explanations was used by 32,66% of the IL group, which seems to be an indication of target-like usage of this strategy. In refusing the friend's suggestion to try a new diet, 25% of the NSEs gave excuses, reasons and explanations; however, 37% of the NSTs resorted to this strategy. Similar to the NSTs, the IL group were found to use

this strategy with a frequency of 46,66%, which shows evidence of pragmatic transfer. In the last situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the student's suggestion of a conversation class, the results reveal that 25% of the NSEs provided reasons, excuses and explanations, while the other two groups (i.e., NSTs and the IL group) employed this strategy much more frequently. In other words, it was used by 68,75% of the NSTs. Following the native language pattern, it was utilised by 48% of the IL group.

Statement of negative consequences

The results indicate that 31,25% of the NSEs stated negative consequences in their refusal responses to boss's suggestion to write little reminders. 25% of the NSTs favoured the use of this strategy in the same situation. The IL group (19,33%) used this strategy almost as frequently as did the NSTs, which seems to suggest that they relied on Turkish pragmalinguistic resources. In refusing the friend's suggestion to try a new diet, 31,25% of the NSEs stated negative consequences of the given suggestion. The same strategy was used by only 6,25% of the NSTs. Like the Turkish baseline group, the IL group (10%) also used this strategy less frequently than did the NSEs, which provides evidence of pragmatic transfer. In the last situation, where the respondents were asked to refuse the student's suggestion of a conversation class, 12,50% of the NSEs stated negative consequences while this strategy did not occur in the Turkish baseline data. In contrast to the NSTs, 8,66% of the IL group resorted this strategy, which suggests convergence toward the target norm.

Self-defence

When refusing the boss's suggestion to write little reminders, half of the NSEs (50%) used the strategy of self-defence, but this strategy was used by only 6,25% of the NSTs. Although the IL group (22%) utilised this strategy less frequently than did the NSEs, nearly four times as many of the IL group as NSTs resorted to the strategy of self-defence. This case suggests that the IL group were in the process of acquiring target-like usage of this strategy. However, in the situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the suggestion made by the friend, the strategy of self-defence did not appear in their refusals. As for refusing the suggestion from the student, the NSEs did not use the strategy of self-defence, while 12,50% of the NSTs preferred to employ this strategy. Similar to the NSTs, 14,66% of the IL group opted for this strategy, which seems to indicate evidence of pragmatic transfer.

Let the interlocutor off the hook

According to the results in Table 4.4, 12,50% of the NSEs used the strategy of letting the interlocutor off the hook to the boss's suggestion to write little reminders. In contrast, while the NSTs avoided this strategy in the same context, only 0,66% of the IL employed this strategy, which suggests possible convergence toward the target norm. When refusing the friend's suggestion to try a new diet, 6,25% of the NSEs let the interlocutor off the hook, while this strategy was absent in the Turkish baseline data. Similar to the NSTs, the IL group did not resort to this strategy, which seems to indicate pragmatic transfer. As to the last situation where the participants were asked to refuse the student's suggestion of a conversation class, none of the NSEs employed the strategy of letting the interlocutor off the hook; however, it was used

by 12,50% of the NSTs. The same strategy was used by 6% of the IL group. The IL group in this case seemed to fall back on Turkish pragmalinguistic resources.

Postponement

As illustrated in Table 4.4, 6,25% of the NSEs refused the boss's suggestion to write little reminders by using the strategy of postponement, while this strategy did not appear in the Turkish baseline data. Likewise, this strategy was not found in the refusal responses given by the IL group to the boss, which suggests evidence of pragmatic transfer. In refusing the friend's suggestion to try a new diet, neither the English nor the Turkish baseline groups resorted to the strategy of postponement. It was found that 1,33% of the IL group employed this strategy in the same situation, which constitutes a pragmatic behaviour unique to them. In the situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the student's suggestion of a conversation class, 25% of the NSEs utilised the strategy of postponement, whereas it was non-existent in the Turkish baseline data. The results also reveal that unlike the NSTs, who did not employ this strategy, it was used by 4,66% of the IL group, which suggests convergence toward the target norm.

Statement of alternative

While the statement of alternative strategy was used by 12,50% of the NSEs when refusing the boss's suggestion, it was employed by 6,25% of the NSTs in the same context. The IL group (4%), on the other hand, resorted to this strategy almost as frequently as did the NSTs, which seems indicative of Turkish-induced pragmatic behaviour. In refusing the friend's suggestion to try a new diet, 18,75% of the NSEs and the NSTs stated an alternative. The IL group (20%) used this strategy more frequently than did the NSEs and the NSTs, which shows a unique IL pattern. This

case was also observed in the last situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the student's suggestion of a conversation class. 12,50% of the NSEs and the NSTs stated an alternative, while 18% of the IL group opted for this strategy. As was the case in the previous situation, the learners appeared to demonstrate a unique IL pattern.

Gratitude/Appreciation

When refusing the boss's suggestion to write little reminders, 18,75% of the NSEs and the NSTs expressed gratitude/appreciation. But, gratitude/appreciation strategy was used by 10,66% of the IL group in the same context, which seems to indicate a pragmatic behaviour unique to them. In the situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the friend's suggestion to try a new diet, it was found that 18,75% of the NSEs expressed gratitude/appreciation, while this strategy was not preferred by the NSTs. In contrast to the NSTs, the IL group employed this formula in their refusals to the friend with a frequency of 20,66%. The IL group, in this case, seems to resemble the NSEs. In refusing the student's suggestion of a conversation class, 43,75% of the NSEs preferred to express gratitude/appreciation, whereas it was not observed in the Turkish baseline data. The results also reveal that the IL group employed this strategy with a frequency of 3,33%, which signals a likely convergence toward the target norm.

Promise of future acceptance

As shown in Table 4.4, when refusing the boss's suggestion to write little reminders, 18,75% of the NSEs promised future acceptance. This strategy was utilised by 12,50% of the NSTs. The IL group (14,66%) used this strategy less frequently than did the NSEs, which seems to signal Turkish-induced pragmatic behaviour. When

the participants were asked to refuse the friend's suggestion to try a new diet, the NSEs and the NSTs avoided promising future acceptance. However, this strategy was found in the IL data (1,33%). This case seems to indicate the unique choice by the IL group as it was used only by them. In the last situation which included the student's suggestion of a conversation class, the strategy of promising future acceptance was missing in the English baseline data, while 12,50% of the NSTs preferred using this strategy in their refusals. Unlike the NSEs, 4% of the IL group resorted to this strategy, which provides evidence of pragmatic transfer.

Statement of regret

The results in Table 4.4 reveal that 6,25% of the NSEs stated regret in their refusals to the boss's suggestion to write little reminders, but this strategy did not appear in the Turkish baseline data. It was also found that unlike the Turkish baseline group, 11,33% of the IL group utilised this strategy in their refusals to the boss. In refusing the friend's suggestion to try a new diet, the NSEs and the NSTs avoided using the strategy of statement of regret, whereas it was used by 1,33% of the IL group, which seems indicative of a unique IL pattern. While being missing from the Turkish baseline data, the strategy of statement of regret was used by 6,25% of the NSEs to the student's suggestion of a conversation class. In contrast to the NSTs, 15,33% the IL group resorted to this strategy in their refusals to the student.

Pause filler

The results in Table 4.4 show that pause fillers were used by neither the NSEs nor the NSTs, whereas they were used by 2,66% of the IL group in their refusal responses to the boss. This constitutes a pragmatic behaviour to the IL group. When refusing the friend's suggestion to try a new diet, 12,50% of the NSEs preferred

using pause fillers, but this strategy was non-existent in the Turkish baseline data. In the same context, 4% of the IL group opted for pause fillers, which suggests convergence toward the target norm. In contrast to the previous case, when refusing the student's suggestion of a conversation class, pause fillers were used by 2,66% of the NSTs, while it was absent in the English baseline data. It was also found that the IL group (7,33%) employed pause fillers to the student, which suggests a Turkish-induced pragmatic behaviour.

Passive negative willingness

As shown in Table 4.4, the strategy of passive negative willingness did not appear in the refusal responses given by the NSEs to the boss's suggestion to write little reminders, but it was used by 56,25% of the NSTs. On the contrary, 2,66% of the IL group utilised this strategy in their refusal responses. In refusing the suggestion from a friend to try a new diet, half of the NSEs (50%) used the strategy of passive negative willingness, while it was employed by 25% of the NSTs. The IL group (8%) resorted to this strategy less frequently than did both the NSEs and the NSTs, which shows a unique IL pattern. When refusing the student's suggestion of a conversation class, it was found that 75% of the NSEs stated passive negative willingness. The same strategy was used by the NSTs with a frequency of 56,25%. As was the case in the previous situation, the IL group (10,66%) employed this strategy less frequently than both groups, which indicates a pragmatic behaviour unique to the IL group.

Direct 'no'

When refusing the suggestion from the boss to write little reminders, direct 'no' did not occur in the refusal responses of the NSEs and the NSTs, but it was used by only 0,66% of the IL group, which indicates the unique choice by the learners. In the

situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the friend's suggestion to try a new diet, 31,25% of the NSEs utilised direct 'no', whereas it did not appear in the Turkish baseline data. Approximating to the target group, direct 'no' was employed by 25,33% of the IL group. In refusing the student's suggestion of a conversation class, direct 'no' was avoided by the NSEs and the NSTs; however, the IL group (6,66%) preferred using direct 'no' in this context.

Statement of principle

As can be seen in Table 4.4, when the respondents were asked to refuse the boss's suggestion to write little reminders, the statement of principle strategy was not observed either in the English or the Turkish baseline data; however, it was used by 2% of the IL group, which seems indicative of a unique IL pattern. In refusing the friend's suggestion to try a new diet, 12,50% of the NSEs provided the statement of principle, while this strategy did not occur in the Turkish baseline data. It was also found that this strategy was used by 1,33% of the IL group in this context, which signals a likely convergence toward the target norm. The statement of principle strategy was not used in the last situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the student's suggestion of a conversation class.

Asking a question

As shown in Table 4.4, when refusing the boss's suggestion to write little reminders, the strategy of asking a question did not occur in the refusal responses of the NSEs and the NSTs, but it was used by only 0,66% of the IL group, which seems indicative of a unique pragmatic behaviour. In refusing a friend's suggestion to try a new diet, 6,25% of the NSEs refused by asking a question, while this strategy was missing from the Turkish baseline data. The results also indicate that this strategy was

employed by 4% of the IL group, which suggests convergence toward the target norm. The strategy of asking a question was not preferred by the NSEs and the NSTs when refusing the student's suggestion of a conversation class. It was used by only 0,66% of the IL group in this situation, which seems to suggest the unique choice by the learners in this context.

Lack of enthusiasm

All of the NSEs and the NSTs avoided expressing their lack of enthusiasm in refusing the boss's suggestion to write little reminders, but it was used by merely 0,66% of the IL group, which seems indicative of a pragmatic behaviour unique to them. When the hearer was a friend of the refuser, 6,25% of the NSEs expressed their lack of enthusiasm, whereas this strategy was non-existent in the Turkish baseline data. It was also found that in contrast to the NSTs, 9,33% of the IL group resorted to this in refusals to the friend who suggested a new diet. When refusing the student's suggestion of a conversation class, none of the participants expressed lack of enthusiasm in their refusals.

Negative willingness/ability

The NSEs did not state their negative willingness/ability in their refusal responses the boss's suggestion to write little reminders, while it was used by 12,50% of the NSTs. The results reveal that it was used by 5,33% of the IL group, which seems to indicate Turkish-induced pragmatic behaviour. When refusing the friend's suggestion to try a new diet, 12,50% of the NSEs stated their negative willingness/ability. The same strategy was utilised by 81,25% of the NSTs in this context. The IL demonstrated a pragmatic behaviour which was closer to the target group as 28% of them expressed their negative willingness/ability to the friend. The

strategy of stating negative willingness/ability did not appear in the refusal responses of the NSEs and the NSTs given to the student's suggestion of a conversation class. However, 11,33% of the IL group opted for this strategy, which demonstrates a unique choice by the learners.

Criticise the hearer

Table 4.4 shows that the statement of criticism was not used by the participants in their refusals to the suggestions made by the boss and the friend. When refusing the student's suggestion of a conversation class, the NSE did not prefer to use the statement of criticism, whereas 6,25% of the NSTs employed this strategy. In this context, it was used by 7,33% of the IL group, which provides evidence of pragmatic transfer.

Statement of philosophy

The results in Table 4.4 reveal that neither the NSEs nor the NSTs provided the statement of philosophy across any status types. It was also indicated that this strategy was used by only 1,33% of the IL group when refusing the boss's suggestion to write little reminders. The learners in this case performed the speech act of refusal unique to them. The same unique pragmatic behaviour was also observed in the context where the respondents were asked to refuse the student's suggestion of a conversation class since 0,66% of the IL group stated their philosophy.

Set conditions for future/past acceptance

As was the case in the use of the previous strategy, none of the NSEs preferred to use setting conditions for future/past acceptance across any status types. It was also found that 6,25% of the NSTs utilised this strategy only in refusing the student's suggestion of a conversation class. As to the IL group, the results reveal that in the situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the friend's suggestion to try a new diet, 2% of the IL group set condition for future/past acceptance, which indicates the unique choice by the learners. As for the last situation, the results demonstrate that 4,66% of the IL group set condition for future/past acceptance in almost as frequently as did the NSTs in their refusals to the student's suggestion of a conversation class, which seems to provide evidence of pragmatic transfer.

4.1.5 Refusals of offers

In this section, the strategies employed by the NSEs, the NSTs and the IL group while refusing the offers made by a higher, an equal and a lower status person are explained. The situations which require refusals of offers are indicated below:

Situation 11: Refusing a higher status person's offer

'A boss offers the respondent a raise and promotion if he/she is willing to move to a small town.'

Situation 9: Refusing an equal person's offer

'A friend offers the respondent another piece of cake.'

Situation 7: Refusing a lower status person's offer

'The respondent arrives home and notices that the cleaning lady has broken a vase. The cleaning lady offers to pay for it.'

Table 4.5

Percentage of semantic formulas in refusals of offers (situations 11, 9, 7)

Semantic Formulas	NSE (n=16)			NST (n=16)			IL Group (n=150)		
	Higher (%)	Equal (%)	Lower (%)	Higher (%)	Equal (%)	Lower (%)	Higher (%)	Equal (%)	Lower (%)
Statement of positive opinion/feeling	62,50 (10)	50,00 (8)	0,00 (0)	25,00 (4)	25,00 (4)	0,00 (0)	40,66 (61)	8,66 (13)	0,00 (0)
Passive negative willingness	50,00 (8)	31,25 (5)	0,00 (0)	68,75 (11)	25,00 (4)	6,25 (1)	6,66 (10)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)
Excuse, reason, explanation	68,75 (11)	25,00 (4)	0,00 (0)	75,00 (12)	81,25 (13)	18,75 (3)	73,33 (110)	74,66 (112)	3,33 (5)
Statement of regret	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	12,50 (2)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	18,00 (27)	6,66 (10)	0,00 (0)
Hedging	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,66 (1)	0,66 (1)	0,00 (0)
Gratitude/appreciation	25,00 (4)	62,50 (10)	6,25 (1)	18,75 (3)	93,75 (15)	0,00 (0)	26,66 (40)	71,33 (107)	3,33 (5)
Postponement	12,50 (2)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	2,00 (3)	2,00 (3)	0,00 (0)
Asking a question	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	12,50 (2)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,66 (1)	0,00 (0)
Pause filler	6,25 (1)	31,25 (5)	18,75 (3)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	4,00 (6)	6,66 (1)	4,66 (7)
Direct 'no'	0,00 (0)	100,00 (16)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	50,00 (8)	12,50 (2)	6,00 (9)	80,00 (120)	28,00 (42)
Saying 'I tried'	0,00 (0)	25,00 (4)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	7,33 (11)	0,00 (0)
Let interlocutor off the hook	0,00 (0)	50,00 (8)	87,50 (14)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	93,75 (15)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	92,00 (138)
Statement of philosophy	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	37,50 (6)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	43,75 (7)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	5,33 (8)
Statement of alternative	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	37,50 (6)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	4,66 (7)	1,33 (2)	10,00 (15)
Statement of empathy	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	6,25 (1)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	2,66 (4)
Statement of negative consequences	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	18,75 (3)	0,00 (0)	2,00 (3)	21,33 (32)	0,00 (0)
Criticise the hearer	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	25,00 (4)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	4,66 (7)
Set conditions for future/past acceptance	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,66 (1)	0,00 (0)
Lack of enthusiasm	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	0,00 (0)	15,33 (23)	6,66 (1)	0,00 (0)

Note. NSE= Native speakers of English, NST= Native speakers of Turkish, IL= Interlanguage Group (i.e., Turkish-speaking EFL learners).

Statement of positive opinion/feeling

As shown in Table 4.5, more than half of the NSEs (62,50%) expressed their positive opinions/feelings in their refusal responses to the boss's offer of a raise and promotion, while only 25% of the NSTs preferred this strategy in the same context. It was also found that the IL group (40,66%) resorted to this strategy more frequently than did the NSTs, which signals that they approximated to the target group in this situation. When refusing the friend's offer of a piece of cake, half of the NSEs (50%) expressed their positive opinions/feelings, whereas this strategy was used by 25% of the NSTs. The results also reveal that the IL group (8,66%) employed this strategy less frequently than did both the NSEs and the NSTs, which shows a unique IL pattern. As for the last situation where the cleaning lady offered to pay for the broken vase, the results demonstrate that none of the participants used the statement of positive opinion/feeling strategy in their refusal responses.

Passive negative willingness

According to the results in Table 4.5, half of the NSEs (50%) expressed their passive negative willingness in their refusals to the boss's offer of a raise and promotion. This strategy was used more frequently by the NSTs with a frequency of 68,75%. The IL group (6,66%) lagged far behind the NSEs and the NSTs in the same context, which displays a pragmatic behaviour unique to them. When refusing the friend's offer of a piece of cake, 31,25% of the NSEs resorted to the strategy of passive negative willingness. This strategy was utilised less frequently by the NSTs with a frequency of 25%, whereas it was non-existent in the IL data. As was the case in the previous situation, the IL group resembled neither the NSE nor the NSTs. When the respondents were asked to refuse the cleaning lady's offer to pay for the broken vase,

only 6,25% of the NSTs expressed their passive negative willingness, while this strategy did not occur in the refusal responses given by the NSEs and the IL group.

Excuse, reason, explanation

The results in Table 4.5 show that 68,75% of the NSEs gave excuses, reasons and explanations in their refusals to the boss's offer of a raise and promotion. This strategy was preferred by 75% of the NSTs in the same context. It was also found that 73,33% of the IL group opted for this strategy almost as frequently as did the NSTs, which seems to be an indication of Turkish-induced pragmatic behaviour. In refusing the friend's offer of a piece of cake, 25% of the NSEs utilised the strategy of giving excuses, reasons and explanations, while it was used by the majority of the NSTs with a frequency of 81,25%. The results also reveal that 74,66% of the IL group provided excuses, reasons and explanations, which provides evidence of pragmatic transfer. When the participants were asked to refuse the cleaning lady's offer to pay for the broken vase, the NSEs avoided giving excuses, reasons and explanations while this strategy was used by 18,75% of the NSTs. The IL group utilised this strategy with a frequency of 3,33%, which suggests convergence toward the native norm.

Statement of regret

6,25% of the NSEs stated regret in their refusals to the boss's offer of a raise and promotion. The strategy of statement of regret was employed by 12,50% of the NSTs in the same context. It was also found that 18% of the IL group stated regret to the boss, which signals that the IL group appeared to have been influenced by Turkish pragmalinguistic norms. In refusing the friend's offer of a piece of cake, neither of the baseline groups stated regret, whereas this strategy was utilised by 6,66% of the

IL group, which indicates a unique choice by the IL group. The results also demonstrate that this strategy did not appear in any of the refusal responses given to the cleaning lady's offer to pay for the broken vase.

Negative willingness/ability

As reflected in Table 4.5, 25% of the NSEs stated their passive negative willingness/ability in refusing the boss's offer of a raise and promotion while this strategy was employed by half of the NSTs (50%). On the other hand, the IL group (26,66%) utilised this strategy to the boss almost as frequently as did the NSEs, which seems indicative of their resemblance to the English baseline group. In the situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the friend's offer of a piece of cake, 31,25% of the NSTs and 37,50% of the NSEs stated negative willingness/ability in their refusals. However, the IL group (24%) opted for this strategy less frequently than did the NSEs and the NSTs, which shows a unique IL pattern. When refusing the cleaning lady's offer to pay for the broken vase, neither of the baseline groups resorted to the statement of negative willingness/ability, whereas it was utilised by 4,66% of the IL group. The choice of this strategy in this case was unique to the learners' IL.

Hedging

The figures in Table 4.5 indicate that 6,25% of the NSEs used hedging in their refusals to the boss's offer of a raise and promotion, while this strategy did not appear in the Turkish baseline data. In the same context, 0,66% of the IL group resorted to hedging, which suggests convergence toward the target norm. In refusing the friend's offer of a piece of cake, the strategy of hedging did not occur in the English and Turkish baseline group. It was used by 0,66% of the IL group, which

seems to display a unique choice by the IL group. This strategy was not employed by any of the participants in their refusals to the cleaning lady's offer to pay for the broken vase.

Gratitude/Appreciation

As shown in Table 4.5, 25% of the NSEs expressed gratitude/appreciation when refusing the boss's offer of a raise and promotion. In the same context, this strategy was preferred by 18,75% of the NSTs. It was also found that the IL group (26,66%) expressed gratitude/appreciation with a similar frequency to that of the NSEs, which suggests their resemblance to the target norm. When refusing the friend's offer of a piece of cake, more than half of the NSEs (62,50%) resorted to the gratitude/appreciation strategy. The majority of the NSTs (93,75%) favoured the use of this strategy with a friend. As for the IL group (71,33%), the frequency with which they used this strategy was closer to that of the NSEs. In the last situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the cleaning lady's offer to pay for the broken vase, 6,25% of the NSEs expressed gratitude/appreciation, while this strategy was non-existent in the Turkish baseline data. In contrast to the NSTs, 3,33% of the IL group opted for this strategy in this context, which suggests they were on their way to acquire target-like usage of this strategy.

Postponement

As displayed in Table 4.5, 12,50% of the NSEs used the strategy of postponement in refusing the boss's offer of a raise and promotion, whereas the NSTs avoided using this strategy. On the other hand, it was used by 2% of the IL group, which suggests a tendency toward the target norm in this context. In the situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the friend's offer of a piece of cake, 6,25% of the

NSEs resorted to the strategy of postponement, while it was absent in the Turkish baseline data. 2% of the IL group opted for this strategy in their refusals to the friend, which indicates their tendency toward the target norm. When refusing the cleaning lady's offer to pay for the broken vase, the strategy of postponement was missing entirely from the refusal responses of the participants.

Asking a question

As can be observed in Table 4.5, 6,25% of the NSEs used the strategy of asking a question to the boss's offer of a raise and promotion; however, this strategy was absent in the Turkish baseline data. Falling back on Turkish pragmalinguistic norms, this strategy was non-existent in the IL data in this context, as well. When refusing the friend's offer of a piece of cake, the NSEs avoided asking a question, but 12,50% of the NSTs employed this strategy. It was also found that only 0,66% of the IL group opted for asking a question in their refusals to the friend, which seems to suggest a likely influence of the native language. In the situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the cleaning lady's offer to pay for the broken vase, this strategy did not occur in the refusal responses of the participants.

Pause filler

As shown in Table 4.5, 6,25% of the NSEs utilised pause fillers while none of the NSTs preferred using them in their refusals to the boss's offer of a raise and promotion. Unlike the NSTs, 4% of the IL group employed pause fillers in their refusals to the boss's offer, which suggests an approximation to the target group. In refusing the friend's offer of a piece of cake, 31,25% of the NSEs used pause fillers, whereas this strategy did not appear in the Turkish baseline data. As was the case in the previous situation, 6,66% of the IL group opted for this strategy in their refusals

to the friend, which indicates convergence toward the target norm. When refusing the cleaning lady's offer to pay for the broken vase, 18,75% of the NSEs employed pause fillers while none of the NSTs favoured the use of this strategy. However, it was also noted that 4,66% of the IL group preferred to use pause fillers, which signals a tendency toward the target group.

Direct 'no'

The figures in Table 4.5 demonstrate that neither of the two baseline group favoured the use of the direct 'no' when refusing the boss's offer of a raise and promotion, whereas this strategy was used by 4% of the IL group, which indicates a unique choice by the learners. The strategy of direct 'no' was utilised by all of the NSEs (100%) in their refusals to the friend's offer of a piece of cake, but this strategy in the same situation was used by only half of the NSTs (50%). The majority of the IL group (80%) opted for this strategy in the same context, which indicates an approximation to the target group. When refusing the friend's offer of a piece of cake, the strategy of direct 'no' was missing from the English baseline data; however, it was used by 12,50% of the NSTs. Similar to the NSTs, the IL group also used this formula in their refusals to the friend with a frequency of 28%, which seems to show evidence of pragmatic transfer.

Saying 'I tried'

As illustrated in Table 4.5, when refusing the boss's offer of a raise and promotion, the strategy of saying 'I tried' was avoided by the NSEs and the NSTs. However, it was used by 6% of the IL group, which indicates a unique choice by the IL group. In the situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the friend's offer of a piece of cake, the strategy of saying 'I tried' was preferred by 25% of the NSEs while it

was absent in the Turkish baseline data. The results also reveal that this strategy was used by 7,33% of the IL group, which signals convergence toward the target norm. As was the case in the first situation, none of the groups employed this strategy in their refusals to the cleaning lady's offer to pay for the broken vase.

Let the interlocutor off the hook

As can be seen in Table 4.5, the strategy of letting the interlocutor off the hook was not preferred by any of the participants in their refusal to the boss's offer of a raise and promotion. When refusing the friend's offer of a piece of cake, half of the NSEs (50%) resorted to the strategy of letting the interlocutor off the hook while it did not appear in the Turkish baseline data. Falling back on Turkish pragmalinguistic resources, the IL group did not employ this strategy in the same context. In refusing the lady's offer to pay for the broken vase, the strategy of letting the interlocutor off the hook was utilised by 87,50% of the NSEs. The NSTs used this strategy more frequently than did the NSEs with a frequency of 93,75% in the same context. On the other hand, the IL group (92%) opted for this strategy in their refusals to the cleaning lady almost as frequently as did the NSTs, which provides evidence for pragmatic transfer.

Statement of philosophy

The results reveal that all of the participants avoided using the statement of philosophy in their refusals to the boss's offer of a raise and promotion. This strategy did not appear in the participants' refusals to the friend's offer of a piece of cake. However, it was found that this strategy was preferred by 37,50% of the NSEs and 43,75% of the NSTs when refusing the cleaning lady's offer to pay for the broken vase. As to the learner group, the results indicate that they (5,33%) provided the

statement of philosophy in this context less frequently than did the NSEs and the NSTs, which shows a unique IL pattern.

Statement of alternative

Table 4.5 demonstrates that in refusing the boss's offer of a raise and promotion, neither of the baseline groups favoured the use of the statement of alternative while this strategy was employed by 4,66% of the IL group. This case shows the unique choice by the learners in this context. As was the case in the previous situation, none of the baseline groups stated alternatives in their refusals to the friend's offer of a piece of cake. However, the IL group used this strategy with a frequency of 1,33%, which displays the unique IL pattern. When the participants were asked to refuse the cleaning lady's offer to pay for the broken vase, 37,50% of the NSEs provided an alternative while this strategy was non-existent in the Turkish baseline data. Unlike the NSEs, 10% of the IL group resorted to the statement of alternative, which suggests a convergence toward the target norm.

Statement of empathy

As can be seen in Table 4.5, the statement of empathy was not utilised by any of the participants in refusing the boss's offer of a raise and promotion and the friend's offer of a piece of cake. It was also found that 6,25% of the NSEs resorted to the statement of empathy in their refusals to the cleaning lady's offer to pay for the broken vase, but this strategy did not appear in the Turkish baseline data. The IL group employed this strategy with a frequency of 2,66%, which signals convergence toward the target norm.

Statement of negative consequences

As illustrated in Table 4.5, the NSEs and the NSTs avoided stating negative consequences to the boss, whereas 2% of the IL group used this strategy, which indicates a pragmatic behaviour unique to them. When refusing the friend's offer of a piece of cake, 18,75% of the NSTs stated negative consequences, while this strategy was non-existent in the English baseline data. Following the Turkish pragmalinguistic strategies, the IL group also used this strategy with a frequency of 21,33%, which provides evidence for pragmatic transfer. The results also indicate that none of the participants stated negative consequences in their refusals to the cleaning lady's offer to pay for the broken vase.

Criticise the hearer

Table 4.5 demonstrates that none of the participants employed the strategy of criticising the hearer in their refusals to the boss's offer of a raise and promotion and the friend's offer of a piece of cake. However, in contrast to the NSEs, who did not resort to criticism in refusing the cleaning lady's offer to pay for the broken vase, 25% of the NSTs employed this strategy. The strategy of criticising the hearer was also utilised by 4,66% of the IL group, which shows evidence of pragmatic transfer.

Set conditions for future/past acceptance

According to the results in Table 4.5, the strategy of setting conditions for future/past acceptance was not employed by the baseline groups across all status types. The IL group also did not resort to this strategy except for the situation where they were asked to refuse the cleaning lady's offer to pay for the broken vase since 0,66% of the IL group employed this strategy, which signals a unique choice by the learners.

Lack of enthusiasm

The results in Table 4.5 reveal that the NSEs and the NSTs avoided expressing their lack of enthusiasm in their refusals to all status types. Similar to the baseline groups, the IL group did not opt for this strategy in their refusals to the cleaning lady's offer to pay for the broken vase. However, 15,33% of the IL group favoured the use of this strategy in refusing the boss's offer of a raise and promotion. Likewise, in the situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the friend's offer of a piece of cake, 6,66% of the IL group expressed their lack of enthusiasm. These two cases constituted a pragmatic behaviour unique to the IL group.

4.2 Summary

Throughout this chapter, the results concerning the refusal responses of the participants (i.e., the English baseline data group, the Turkish baseline data group and the IL group) have been presented. More specifically, cross-cultural differences and similarities among the research groups have been reported, and instances of pragmatic transfer detected in the refusal performances of the IL group have been identified. Furthermore, the results showed both convergence with and/or divergence from the target pragmatic conventions in the refusal responses of the Turkish-speaking EFL learners. In addition these two situations, the Turkish-speaking EFL learners were observed to demonstrate refusal behaviour unique to them, which indicates that they tended to create their own interlanguage rather than copying the target pragmatic norms. Having presented the results of the data analysis, the following chapter is devoted to the discussion and conclusion part.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.0 Presentation

In this section, first of all, the results of the study in relation to the research questions are discussed. Then, pedagogical implications deduced from the results of the study are presented. Finally, suggestions for further research are proposed.

5.1 Discussion of Results

In this section, the results concerning the refusal performances of the IL group (i.e., Turkish-speaking EFL learners) are discussed in light of the research questions. Furthermore, instances of pragmatic transfer are presented.

5.1.1 Research Question 1: *What are the strategies used by Turkish-speaking EFL learners while performing the speech act of refusal?*

As mentioned in section 3.6, the refusal performances of the Turkish-speaking EFL learners were examined with regard to the eliciting speech acts (i.e., requests, invitations, suggestions and offers) and the status of the interlocutor (i.e., higher, equal and lower). In this section, the strategies used by the Turkish-speaking EFL learners are discussed along with these two dimensions, namely, the eliciting speech acts and status of the interlocutor.

As a result of the analysis of the responses given by the Turkish-speaking EFL learners in refusing requests made by the interlocutors of different statuses, three different types of refusal strategies were detected. They included direct strategies, indirect strategies and adjuncts to refusals.

The subcategories of direct strategies, indirect strategies and adjuncts to refusals found in the responses of the Turkish-speaking EFL learners were made up of the semantic formulas summarised in Table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1
Types of strategies used by the IL group in their refusals of requests (situations 12, 2, 1).

Situation 12 (Higher)	D	Direct 'no', negative willingness/ability.
	ID	excuse, reason, explanation, statement of alternative, postponement, set condition for future/past acceptance.
	A	Pause fillers, statement of positive opinion/feeling, asking a question, passive negative willingness.
Situation 2 (Equal)	D	Direct 'no', negative willingness/ability.
	ID	Excuse, reason, explanation, statement of alternative, self-defence, statement of philosophy, criticism, set condition for future/past acceptance, statement of negative consequences, statement of principle.
	A	Pause fillers, statement of positive opinion/feeling, passive negative willingness, statement of empathy.
Situation 1 (Lower)	D	Negative willingness/ability, direct 'no'.
	ID	Excuse, reason, explanation, statement of alternative, request for empathy, postponement, statement of negative consequences.
	A	Pause fillers, statement of positive opinion/feeling, gratitude/appreciation, passive negative willingness.

Note. D= Direct strategies, ID= Indirect strategies, A= Adjuncts to refusals.

When the refusal responses of Turkish-speaking EFL learners to invitations made by the interlocutors of different statuses were examined, it was found that they utilised direct strategies, indirect strategies and adjuncts to refusals. All of the strategies detected in the refusal responses of the IL group are shown in Table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2
Types of strategies used by the IL group in their refusals of invitations (situations 4, 10, 3).

Situation 4 (Higher)	D	Negative willingness/ability.
	ID	Statement of regret, excuse, reason, explanation, statement of alternative, postponement, repetition of part of invitation, set condition for future/past acceptance, repetition of part of invitation, wish.
	A	Statement of positive opinion/feeling, gratitude/ appreciation, pause filler, passive negative willingness.
Situation 10 (Equal)	D	Negative willingness/ability.
	ID	Statement of regret, excuse, reason, explanation, postponement, set condition for future/past acceptance, repetition of part of invitation, wish.
	A	Statement of positive opinion/feeling, gratitude/appreciation, pause filler, passive negative willingness.
Situation 3 (Lower)	D	Negative willingness/ability.
	ID	Statement of regret, excuse, reason, explanation, statement of alternative, postponement, set condition for future/past acceptance, repetition of part of invitation, statement of principle.
	A	Statement of positive opinion/feeling, gratitude/ appreciation, passive negative willingness.

Note. D= Direct strategies, ID= Indirect strategies, A= Adjuncts to refusals.

The analysis of the responses given by the Turkish-speaking EFL learners in refusing suggestions revealed that there were three different types of refusal strategies which

involved direct strategies, indirect strategies and adjuncts to refusals. The semantic formulas observed in these three broad categories are presented in Table 5.3 below:

Table 5.3
Types of strategies used by the IL group in their refusals of suggestions (situations 6, 5, 8).

Situation 6 (Higher)	D	Direct 'no'.
	ID	Excuse, reason, explanation, statement of negative consequences, self-defence, let interlocutor off the hook, statement of alternative, promise of future acceptance, statement of regret, pause fillers, statement of principle, lack of enthusiasm.
	A	Statement of positive opinion/feeling, saying 'I tried', gratitude/appreciation, passive negative willingness, asking a question.
Situation 5 (Equal)	D	Direct 'no', negative willingness/ability.
	ID	Excuse, reason, explanation, statement of negative consequences, postponement, statement of alternative, promise of future acceptance, statement of regret, statement of principle, lack of enthusiasm.
	A	Statement of positive opinion/feeling, saying 'I tried', gratitude/appreciation, pause fillers, passive negative willingness, asking a question.
Situation 8 (Lower)	D	Negative willingness/ability, direct 'no'.
	ID	excuse, reason, explanation, statement of negative consequences, self-defence, let interlocutor off the hook, statement of alternative, promise of future acceptance, statement of regret, pause fillers, criticism.
	A	Statement of positive opinion/feeling, gratitude/appreciation, passive negative willingness, asking a question.

Note. D= Direct strategies, ID= Indirect strategies, A= Adjuncts to refusals.

The subcategories of direct strategies, indirect strategies and adjuncts to refusals found in the refusal productions of the Turkish-speaking EFL learners to offers consisted of the semantic formulas displayed in Table 5.4 below:

Table 5.4
Types of strategies used by the IL group in their refusals of offers (situations 11, 9, 7).

Situation 11 (Higher)	D	Direct 'no', negative willingness/ability.
	ID	Excuse, reason, explanation, statement of regret, hedging, postponement, statement of alternative, statement of negative consequences, lack of enthusiasm.
	A	Statement of positive opinion/feeling, passive negative willingness, gratitude/ appreciation, pause filler.
Situation 9 (Equal)	D	Direct 'no', negative willingness/ability.
	ID	Excuse, reason, explanation, statement of regret, hedging, postponement, statement of alternative, statement of negative consequences, set conditions for future/past acceptance, lack of enthusiasm.
	A	Statement of positive opinion/feeling, gratitude/ appreciation, asking a question, pause filler, saying 'I tried'.
Situation 7 (Lower)	D	Direct 'no', negative willingness/ability
	ID	Excuse, reason, explanation, let the interlocutor off the hook, statement of philosophy, statement of alternative, criticism.
	A	Gratitude/ appreciation pause filler, statement of empathy.

Note. D= Direct strategies, ID= Indirect strategies, A= Adjuncts to refusals.

When the results presented in Tables 5.1 – 5.4 are considered, it can be inferred that the type of eliciting speech act influences the choice of certain refusal strategies. For example, the promise of future acceptance strategy was employed by the IL group in their refusals to suggestions; however, the same strategy was not utilised in refusing requests, invitations, and offers. The same situation was also observed in the use of

the statement of negative consequences strategy. The results indicated that the IL group stated negative consequences in their refusals to requests, offers and suggestions, whereas it was not employed in refusing invitations.

It is also possible to infer from the results that the selection of the refusal strategy depends not only on the eliciting speech act but also on the social status of the interlocutor. For instance, the direct 'no' formula was not used by the IL group in their refusal responses to the boss's invitation to the party, but it was preferred to be used in refusing the friend's and the salesman's invitations to dinner. Likewise, the statement of regret strategy occurred in the refusal responses of the IL group given to the boss's offer of a raise and promotion and the friend's offer of a piece of cake, while it was absent in the responses given to the cleaning lady's offer to pay for the broken vase.

In light of these results, it can be inferred that eliciting speech acts and social statuses of the interlocutors have an influential role in determining the type of the refusal strategies to be employed. This was also claimed made by Kasper (1992), who put forward that context-internal factors (i.e., the type of stimulating speech acts, legitimacy of the requestive goal, etc.) and context-external factors (i.e., relative status, social distance, etc.) are closely related to the selection of speech act realisation strategies/semantic formulas.

The results of the present study seem to be consistent with the findings of previous studies. For example, results of the research carried out by Bulut (2000) highlighted the influence of the interlocutors' statuses and the type of the eliciting speech acts on the choice of refusal strategies of the respondents. Regarding this issue, the results of Chang's (2008) study also seem to be in line with those of the present study since he

also found out that stimulus types eliciting a refusal and the refuser's social status had an impact on the selection of refusal strategies.

5.1.2 Research Question 2: *Is there any evidence of pragmatic transfer in the refusal strategies used by Turkish-speaking EFL learners?*

Evidence of pragmatic transfer was detected in the use of three main categories, namely, direct strategies, indirect strategies and adjuncts to refusals. The same situation was also observed in the use of subcategories.

5.1.2.1 The distribution of refusal strategies

Direct strategies

Evidence of pragmatic transfer was noted in the distribution of refusal strategies across the research groups. The Turkish baseline data group (15,25%) and the IL group (19,28%) employed direct refusal strategies more frequently than did the English baseline data group (10,78%). The similarity between the NSTs and the IL group with regard to the frequency of using direct strategies seems to suggest the influence of the Turkish pragmatic conventions on the refusal responses given by the IL group.

Indirect strategies

Regarding the use of indirect strategies, the results reveal that the frequency with which the IL group (59,48%) utilised indirect refusal strategies was observed to be closer to that of the NSTs (55,83%), while, this group of strategy was employed less frequently by the NSEs (54,47%). This situation seems to be an indication of the native language influence (i.e., Turkish) on the refusal responses given by the IL group. Furthermore, frequent use of the indirect strategies can be interpreted as an

indicator of the Turkish respondents' perceived need to be more indirect, thus more polite in refusal performances. This finding is in line with that of the study carried out by Demir (2003), who found out that the Turkish baseline participants and the Turkish-speaking EFL learners utilised indirect strategies more frequently than did the NSEs in their refusal responses.

Adjuncts to refusals

Another instance of pragmatic transfer was observed in the use of adjuncts in performing the speech act of refusals. When compared to the NSTs and the IL group, the NSEs (34,75%) employed adjuncts to refusals more frequently. The same group of strategies was used less frequently by the NSTs (28,92%). As for the IL group, the results indicate that they used adjuncts to refusals almost as frequently as (21,24%) did the NSTs. The resemblance between the NSTs and the IL group in terms of the frequency with which they resorted to this group of strategies suggests that the IL group tended to transfer their native language pragmatic knowledge to their target language productions.

5.1.2.2 The use of individual refusal strategies

In this section, evidence of pragmatic transfer detected in the refusal responses of the Turkish-speaking EFL learners is presented in accordance with the four types of eliciting speech acts, namely, requests, invitations, suggestions and offers.

5.1.2.2.1 Refusals of Requests

As a result of the analysis of responses given by the IL group in their refusals to requests, evidence of pragmatic transfer was identified in fifteen cases which included the refusal strategies such as *excuse*, *reason*, *explanation*, *statement of positive opinion/feeling*, *request for empathy*, *self-defence*, *criticism*, *asking a*

question, passive negative willingness, setting condition for future/past acceptance, statement of negative consequences, direct 'no'.

The first strategy where evidence of pragmatic transfer was detected included *excuses, reasons and explanations*. In situation 1 where the respondents were asked to refuse the employee's request for a raise in salary, both the NSTs (68,75%) and the IL group (72,66%) provided *excuses, reasons and explanations* more frequently than did the NSEs (62,50%). The similarity between the Turkish baseline data group and the IL group regarding the frequency with which they used this strategy suggests evidence of pragmatic transfer.

The second strategy where pragmatic transfer occurred was *statement of alternative*. In situation 12 where the respondents were asked to the boss's request to stay late at the office, the IL group (10%) stated an alternative in their refusals to the boss almost as frequently as did the NSTs (12,50%). On the other hand, this strategy was utilised much more frequently by the NSEs (43,75%). Therefore, it can be suggested that the students' existing pragmatic knowledge in Turkish resulted in pragmatic transfer in their target language productions.

The third strategy where pragmatic transfer was identified was *statement of positive opinion/feeling*. It was used more frequently by both the NSTs (81,25%) and the IL group (32%) in situation 1 where they were asked to refuse the employee's request for a raise in salary. However, this strategy was employed less frequently by the NSEs (18,75%) in the same context. The IL group in this case seemed to rely on Turkish pragmalinguistic resources in their refusal responses to the boss.

The fourth strategy where evidence of pragmatic transfer was detected included *negative willingness/ ability*. In refusing the employee's request for a raise in salary (situation 1), both the NSTs (68,75%) and the IL group (68,66%) stated their negative willingness/ability more frequently than did the NSEs (18,75%). The similarity between the NSTs and the IL group regarding the frequency with which they preferred this strategy may indicate of the Turkish-induced pragmatic behaviour of the IL group in this context.

The fifth strategy which included evidence of pragmatic transfer was *request for empathy*. This strategy did not emerge in the responses given by the NSTs and the IL group in their refusals to the boss's request to stay late at the office (situation 12), whereas it was used by 6,25% of the NSEs. The non-occurrence of this strategy in both the Turkish baseline data and the IL data provided evidence of pragmatic transfer.

The sixth strategy where evidence of pragmatic transfer was observed involved *self-defence*. In situation 2 where a classmate requested the notes from the respondent, both the NSTs (12,50%) and the IL group (2%) opted for this strategy less frequently than did the NSEs (18,75%). This situation seems to suggest a likely influence of the native language (i.e., Turkish) on the refusal responses of the IL group in this context.

The next strategy where evidence of pragmatic transfer appeared was *criticising the hearer*. In refusing the classmate's request for notes (situation 2), both the NSTs (31,25%) and the IL group (36,66%) resorted to criticism more frequently than did the NSEs (18,75%). It is possible to infer that the IL group, falling back on Turkish

pragmalinguistic resources in this case, exhibited evidence of pragmatic transfer in their refusals to the classmate.

The eighth strategy which presented evidence of pragmatic transfer was *postponement*. Half of the English baseline data group (50%) preferred to use postponement in their refusals to the employee's request for a raise in salary (situation 1), whereas this frequency was found to be lower in both the Turkish baseline data (25%) and the IL data (6%). This result can be seen as an indicator of native language influence on the IL group's refusal responses given to the employee.

The ninth strategy where evidence of pragmatic transfer was identified included *asking a question*. In situation 12 where the respondents were asked to refuse the boss's request to stay late at the office, the NST (6,25%) and the IL group (2%) used the strategy of asking a question, but this strategy was non-existent in the English baseline data. This result suggests that the IL group transferred this strategy from Turkish to English. In situation 1 where the participants were asked to refuse the employee's request for a raise in salary, the NSEs (6,25%) preferred to use this strategy, while it did not appear in the Turkish baseline data and the IL data. This result indicates that the IL group demonstrated a Turkish-induced pragmatic behaviour in their refusals to the employee.

The tenth strategy which provided evidence of pragmatic transfer was *passive negative willingness*. The NSEs avoided using the strategy of passive negative willingness in refusing the classmate's request to borrow the notes (situation 2); however, it was observed in the refusal responses given by the NSTs (18,75%) and the IL group (3,33%). The occurrence of this strategy in the Turkish baseline data

and the IL group indicates that the IL group transferred from Turkish to their target language productions.

Another strategy where evidence of pragmatic transfer was noted entailed *setting condition for future/past acceptance*. In refusing the boss's request to stay late at the office (situation 12), the strategy of setting condition for future/past acceptance was not observed in the English baseline data, but it was employed by the NSTs (6,25%) and the IL group (0,66%). Likewise, this strategy was not used by the NSEs in their refusals to the employee's request for a raise in salary (situation 1), whereas it was utilised by the NSTs (6,25%) and the IL group (2%). The non-occurrence of this strategy in the English baseline data and its presence in the Turkish baseline data as well as in the refusal responses of the IL group provides evidence of pragmatic transfer in these two cases.

Another strategy where evidence of pragmatic transfer was observed included *statement of negative consequences*. In refusing the classmate's request for notes (situation 2), the NSEs avoided stating negative consequences to the hearer, while this strategy was used by the NSTs (6,25%) and the IL group (2%). Regarding this context, it seems to be possible to infer that the existence of this strategy in the Turkish baseline data and in the IL data provides evidence of pragmatic transfer.

The last strategy which provided evidence of pragmatic transfer in refusals to the speech act of request was *direct 'no'*. In situation 2 where the respondents were asked to refuse the classmate's request for notes, the NSEs avoided refusing by saying 'no'; however, it was used by the NSTs (6,25%) and the IL group (20,66%) in the same context. Regarding the non-existence of direct 'no' in the English baseline data, it can be referred to what Brown and Levinson (1978) state. Brown and

Levinson (1978) indicate that the speaker has a choice of *not* performing the act when it is perceived as highly face-threatening, which is named as *opting out strategy*. By opting out, the speaker avoids causing offence to the hearer. However, in this case, the reverse situation is applicable for the NSTs and the IL group. An explanation for the occurrence of direct ‘no’ in the Turkish baseline data and the IL data could be that they might consider the classmate socially close to themselves. Therefore, they might not feel the necessity to save face in their refusals to the classmate.

5.1.2.2.2 Refusals of Invitations

As a result of the analysis of responses given by the IL group in their refusals to invitations, evidence of pragmatic transfer was identified in thirteen cases which involved the refusal strategies such as *negative willingness/ability, excuse, reason, explanation, statement of positive opinion/feeling, gratitude/appreciation, direct ‘no’, postponement, setting condition for future/past acceptance, repetition of part of invitation, passive negative willingness, statement of wish*.

The first strategy where evidence of pragmatic transfer was observed involved *negative willingness/ability*. In refusing the friend’s invitation to dinner (situation 10), both the NSTs (18,75%) and the IL group (24%) expressed their negative willingness/ability more frequently than did the NSEs (6,25%). This seems to be a Turkish-induced choice as the IL group resorted to this strategy almost as frequently as did the Turkish baseline data group.

The second strategy which provided evidence of pragmatic transfer was *excuse, reason, explanation*. When the respondents were asked to refuse the boss’s invitation to the party (situation 4), both the NSTs (18,75%) and the IL group (24%) gave

excuses, reasons and explanation more frequently than did the NSEs (6,25%). The resemblance between the NSTs and the IL group with regard to the frequency of using this strategy seems to be an indication of pragmatic transfer.

The third strategy where notable resemblance between the NSTs and the IL group was observed included *statement of positive opinion/feeling*. Deviating from the target norm, the IL group (23,33%) stated their positive opinion/feeling in their responses to the boss's invitation to the party (situation 4). As the IL group used this strategy almost as frequently as did the NSEs (25%) in this situation, it can be possible to infer that the IL group tended to transfer the Turkish pragmalinguistic routines to their refusal responses in English. Similarly, in refusing the salesman's invitation to dinner (situation 3), the IL group seemed to exhibit a Turkish-induced pragmatic behaviour in their refusal responses since the IL group (16%) stated their positive opinion/feeling with a similar frequency to that of the NSTs (18,75%). Furthermore, these two groups employed this strategy less frequently than did the NSEs (25%) in this situation.

The fourth strategy where evidence of pragmatic transfer was detected entailed *gratitude/appreciation*. In refusing the friend's invitation to dinner (situation 10), the IL group (19,33%) demonstrated a similar profile to that of the NSTs (12,50%) in their responses. Unlike these two groups, half of the NSEs (50%) employed this strategy in the same context. The similarity between the NSTs and the IL group as regards the employment of this strategy provides can be interpreted as a sign of pragmatic transfer. This result is parallel to that of the study carried out by Kwon (2003). In Kwon's (2003) study, the NSEs expressed gratitude/appreciation to the

friend more frequently than the native language baseline data group and the IL group.

Another strategy which presented evidence of pragmatic transfer was *direct 'no'*. In refusing the invitation made by the friend and the salesman to dinner (situation 10 and situation 3 respectively,) this strategy did not appear in the English baseline data; however, it was used by both the NSTs (6,25%) and the IL group (6%). The IL group in these two cases tended to rely on Turkish pragmalinguistic routines in their refusal responses to the friend and the salesman.

The sixth strategy in which evidence of pragmatic transfer was observed included *postponement*. In refusing the friend's invitation to dinner (situation 10), the NSTs (6,25%) and the IL group (2%) utilised the strategy of postponement while it did not appear in the English baseline data. Likewise, this strategy was used by the NSTs (12,50%) and the IL group (3,33%) in their refusals to the salesman's invitation dinner (situation 3), yet it was not employed by the NSEs. The non-existence of this strategy in the English baseline data and its presence in the other data sets provides evidence of pragmatic transfer.

The next strategy which provided evidence of pragmatic transfer was noted involved *setting condition for future/past acceptance*. In refusing the salesman's invitation to dinner (situation 3), both the NSTs (6,25%) and the IL group (2%) set condition for future/past acceptance in their refusals; however, this strategy did not appear in the English baseline data in this context. Parallel to the previous situation, it can be possible to infer that the IL group tended to fall back on Turkish pragmatic knowledge in realizing the speech act of refusal.

Another strategy where evidence of pragmatic transfer was detected included *repetition*. When the respondents were asked to refuse the salesman's invitation to dinner (situation 3), the NSEs avoided repeating the part of the invitation, whereas this strategy was found in the Turkish baseline data (6,25%) and in the IL data (0,66%). This result suggests that the IL group seemed to transfer this strategy from Turkish to their target language productions.

Another strategy found in refusals to invitations contained pragmatic transfer in *passive negative willingness*. In line with the previous case, when refusing the boss's invitation to the party (situation 4), the strategy of passive negative willingness did not appear in the English baseline data; however, it was utilised by the NSTs (25%) and the IL group (2,66%). This result suggests a likely influence of Turkish on the IL group's refusal performance in this context.

The last strategy which was subject to pragmatic transfer was *statement of wish*. In refusing the boss's invitation to dinner, the NSEs did not resort to the statement of wish, but it was used by the NSTs (12,50%) and the IL group (5,33%). It can be inferred that the IL group's Turkish pragmatic knowledge seemed to influence the use of this strategy in their refusal responses given to the boss.

5.1.2.2.3 Refusals of Suggestions

The analysis of responses given by the IL group in their refusals to suggestions provides evidence of pragmatic transfer in fourteen cases which entailed the refusal strategies such as *excuse, reason, explanation, statement of negative consequences, self-defence, letting interlocutor off the hook, postponement, statement of alternative, promise of future acceptance, negative willingness/ability, criticism, setting conditions for future/past acceptance*.

The first strategy where evidence of pragmatic transfer was observed involved *excuse, reason, explanation*. In refusing the friend's suggestion to try a new diet (situation 5), both the NSTs (37%) and the IL group (46,66%) provided excuses, reasons and explanation more frequently than did the NSEs (25%). Likewise, when the respondents were asked to refuse the student's suggestion of a conversation class (situation 8), both the NSTs (68,75%) and the IL group (48%) employed this strategy more frequently than did the NSEs (25%). As the results reveal, the IL group seemed to resemble the Turkish baseline data group in their refusals to the friend and the student.

The second strategy in which evidence of pragmatic transfer was detected included *statement of negative consequences*. In refusing the boss's suggestion to write little reminders (situation 6), the IL group (19,25%) stated negative consequences to the boss almost as frequently as did the NSTs (25%), yet this strategy occurred more frequently in the English baseline data (31,25%). As for the other situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the friend's suggestion to try a new diet (situation 5), the results indicate a similarity between the IL group (10%) and the NSTs (6,25%) regarding the frequency of using this strategy in this context. When compared to these two groups, the NSEs (31,25%) utilised this strategy more frequently when refusing the friend's suggestion. The resemblance between the IL group and the NSTs suggests that the IL group exhibited a Turkish- induced pragmatic behaviour in their refusals to the boss's and the friend's suggestion.

The third strategy where evidence of pragmatic transfer was observed entailed *self-defence*. When refusing the student's suggestion of a conversation class (situation 8), the NSEs did not employ the strategy of self-defence, whereas this strategy was

utilised by the NSTs (12,50%) in their refusal responses. It was also found that the IL group (14,66%) used this strategy with a similar frequency to that of the NSTs. The IL group in this case seemed to rely on Turkish pragmalinguistic conventions in their refusals to the student's suggestion.

The fourth strategy in which pragmatic transfer was noted included *letting the interlocutor off the hook*. Similar to the previous case, the NSEs avoided letting the interlocutor off the hook in their refusals to the student's suggestion of a conversation class (situation 8); however, it was used by the NSTs (12,50%) and the IL group (6%). It can be inferred that the non-occurrence of this strategy in the target language and presence in the Turkish baseline data as well as in the IL data indicates evidence of pragmatic transfer.

The fifth strategy which provided evidence of pragmatic transfer was *postponement*. The analysis of the refusal responses given to the boss's suggestion to write little reminders (situation 6) reveal that the strategy of postponement was used by the NSEs (6,25%), whereas this strategy was not found either in the Turkish baseline data or the IL data. The IL group in this situation seemed to exhibit Turkish-induced pragmatic behaviour in their refusal responses.

The sixth strategy where evidence of pragmatic transfer occurred was *statement of alternative* strategy. In refusing the boss's suggestion to write little reminders (situation 6), the IL group (4%) stated alternatives almost as frequently as did the NSTs (6,25%) while it was used more frequently by the NSEs (12,50%). The similarity between the IL group and the NSTs seemed to indicate evidence of pragmatic transfer.

The seventh strategy in which evidence of pragmatic transfer appeared involved *promise of future acceptance*. When refusing the boss's suggestion to write little reminders (situation 6), the strategy of promising future acceptance was employed less frequently by the NSTs (12,50%) than did the NSEs (18,75%). In parallel to the behaviour of the NSTs, the IL group (14,66%) utilised this strategy less frequently than did the NSEs. As for the last situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the student's suggestion of a conversation class (situation 8), this strategy was not found in the English baseline data, yet it was used by the NSTs (12,50%) and the IL group (4%). Therefore, it can be possible to infer that the IL group in these two situations tended to transfer their existing pragmatic knowledge about Turkish to their refusal performances.

Another strategy which provided evidence of pragmatic transfer was detected in *pause fillers*. When the respondents were asked to refuse the student's suggestion of a conversation class (situation 8), the NSEs avoided using pause filler, but it was used by the NSTs (2,66%) and the IL group (7,33%). It can be inferred from this result that the IL group tended to transfer this strategy from Turkish to their refusal responses given to the student.

The next strategy where evidence of pragmatic transfer occurred was *negative willingness/ability*. In refusing the boss's suggestion to write little reminders (situation 6), this strategy did not emerge in the English baseline data, but it was found in the Turkish one (12,50%). It also appeared in the IL data (5,33%). The non-occurrence of this strategy in the target language and its presence in the native language as well as in the IL data seems to suggest that the IL group tended to rely on Turkish pragmalinguistic routines in realising the speech act of refusal.

Another strategy where evidence of pragmatic transfer emerged included *criticism*. When the respondents were asked to refuse the student's suggestion of a conversation class (situation 8), both the NSTs (6,25%) and the IL group (7,33%) were observed to use the statement of criticism; however, this strategy did not appear in the English baseline data. This suggests that the IL group may have been negatively influenced by Turkish pragmalinguistic conventions in their refusals to the student.

The final strategy which presented evidence of pragmatic transfer was noted in *setting conditions for future/past acceptance*. As was the case in the use of previous strategy (i.e., criticism), both the NST (6,25%) and the IL group (4,66%) set condition for future/past acceptance in their refusals to the student's suggestion of a conversation class (situation 8), whereas the NSEs avoided using this strategy in the same situation.

5.1.2.2.4 Refusals of Offers

The analysis of responses given by the IL group in their refusals to offers provides evidence of pragmatic transfer in ten cases which include the refusal strategies such as *excuse, reason, explanation, statement of regret, asking a question, direct 'no', letting interlocutor off the hook, statement of negative consequences and criticising the hearer*.

The first strategy where evidence of pragmatic transfer was noted involved *excuse, reason, explanation*. The IL group tended to deviate from the English baseline data group in across all situations. In refusing the boss's offer of a raise and promotion (situation 11), the majority of the IL group (73,33%) provided excuses, reasons and explanations almost as frequently as did the NSTs (75%). Unlike the NSTs and the

IL group, the NSEs (68,75%) preferred to use this strategy less frequently in their refusals to the boss. When the respondents were asked to refuse the friend's offer of a piece of cake (situation 9), the IL group demonstrated Turkish-induced pragmatic behaviour since the majority of them (74,66%) used this strategy with a similar frequency to that of the NSTs (81,25%). On the other hand, it was found that the NSEs (25%) utilised this strategy far less frequently in their refusals to the friend. In the last situation where the respondents were asked to refuse the cleaning lady's offer to pay for the broken vase (situation 7), the NSEs avoided giving excuses, reasons and explanations. In contrast to the NSEs, both the NSTs (18,75%) and the IL group (3,33%) preferred to use this strategy. This suggests that the IL group may have transferred Turkish pragmatic resources in performing the speech act of refusals in English.

The second strategy which provided evidence of pragmatic transfer was detected in *statement of regret*. In refusing the boss's offer of a raise and promotion (situation 11), both the NSTs (12,50%) and the IL group (18%) expressed their regret in their refusals more frequently than did the NSEs (6,25%). The IL group in this case seemed to fall back on Turkish pragmalinguistic norms when performing the speech act of refusal in English.

The third strategy where evidence of pragmatic transfer was noted was concerned with *asking a question*. When the respondents were asked to refuse the boss's offer of a raise and promotion (situation 8), the strategy of asking a question was absent in both the Turkish baseline data and the IL data; however, it was used by the NSEs (6,25%) in the same context. On the other hand, in refusing the friend's offer of a piece of cake (situation 9), both the NSTs (12,50%) and the IL group (0,66%)

employed the strategy of asking a question, whereas the NSEs avoided using this strategy in this situation. Based on these two cases, it can be possible to suggest that the IL group tended to demonstrate Turkish-induced pragmatic behaviour in situations 8 and 9.

The fourth strategy where evidence of pragmatic transfer was observed *direct 'no'*. When refusing the cleaning lady's offer to pay for the broken vase (situation 11), the strategy of direct 'no' did not appear in the English baseline data, but it was observed in both the Turkish baseline data (12,50%) and the IL data (28%). This result suggests that the IL group tended to transfer this strategy from Turkish to their refusal responses in English.

With regard to *letting the interlocutor off the hook*, the results revealed two cases where evidence of pragmatic transfer was observed. In refusing the friend's offer of a piece of cake (situation 9), half of the NSEs preferred letting the interlocutor off the hook, while this strategy did not appear in both the Turkish baseline data and the IL data. In addition to this, in refusing the cleaning lady's offer to pay for the broken vase (situation 7), both the NSTs (93,75%) and the IL group (92%) let the interlocutor off the hook more frequently than did the NSEs (87,50%). As can be inferred from the results, the IL group in these two cases seemed to rely on Turkish pragmalinguistic resources in their refusals to the friend and the cleaning lady.

The last strategy where evidence of pragmatic transfer was observed included *statement of negative consequences*. In refusing the friend's offer of a piece of cake (situation 9), both the NSTs (18,65%) and the IL group (21,33%) stated negative consequences in case of accepting the offer, whereas the NSEs did not utilise this strategy in the same context. The non-occurrence of this strategy in the English

baseline data and its presence in both the Turkish baseline data and the IL data seems indicative of pragmatic transfer.

5.2 Summary

The strategies utilised by the Turkish-speaking EFL learners while performing to the speech act of refusal have been presented, and the results reveal that the Turkish-speaking EFL learners employed a variety of refusal strategies. These refusal strategies can also be found in the data of other refusal studies conducted by researchers such as Beebe et al. (1990), Kwon (2004), Nelson et al. (2002), etc. As indicated by Chang (2008), the resemblance between the refusal strategies identified in the responses of the Turkish-speaking EFL learners and those found in the refusal responses of learners coming from different cultures (e.g., Japanese, Korean, Egyptian Arabic) highlights the fact that the refusal strategies are universal. Regarding the pragmatic transfer phenomenon, in line with other studies (Bulut, 2000, Demir, 2003, Deveci, 2003), evidence of Turkish-induced pragmatic pattern was detected in the refusal performances of the Turkish-speaking EFL learners. In sum, fifty-one instances of pragmatic transfer were detected in the refusal responses of the Turkish-speaking EFL learners. In these cases, the Turkish-speaking EFL learners were observed to fall back on Turkish pragmatic knowledge in performing the speech act of refusal in English.

5.3 Pedagogical Implications

As explained in chapters 4 and 5, the present study provided evidence that performing the speech act of refusals is a cross-cultural sticking point and thus it can be one of the problematic aspects of learning the English language for Turkish-

speaking EFL learners. This result could be attributable to the fact that although the speech act of refusal is universal, ways of performing it are culture-specific.

In order to help learners to become pragmatically competent in English, it can be suggested that native and/or non-native teachers of English utilise the data gathered from the native speakers of English (see Appendix J) in the present study so that they become more aware of the sociocultural rules of the language they are teaching, and take the sociolinguistic norms of the language into account while they are teaching. As Deveci (2003) points out, awareness regarding this aspect of the language is of paramount importance since even native speakers of English may ignore the pragmatic component and this may cause failure in answering the questions about the use of speech acts asked by their learners.

Furthermore, like some studies in the field of interlanguage pragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei, 1998, 1999; Garcia, 1996; Jung, 2002; Pearson, 2006), the results of this study underscore the fact that in order to be pragmatically competent in the target language, language learners need to become knowledgeable not only about the rules of grammar but also about the social and contextual factors underlying the target language.

As was presented before, in most instances, the Turkish-speaking EFL learners tended to rely on Turkish norms and deviate from the norms which are considered to be socially and culturally appropriate in English. Such deviations call for an enhancement of the learners' awareness with regard to the pragmalinguistic realisation of speech acts in English and also relevant sociopragmatic constraints. In order to overcome such pragmatic violations and help learners to develop pragmatic competence in English, it can be suggested that the pragmatic aspects of the target

language need to be integrated into the curricula as well as into the EFL teacher education programmes. This integration can be supplied via pedagogical approaches, techniques and course materials which combine the functional use of English with its formal aspects. Furthermore, in order to help prospective EFL teachers to become pragmatically competent in English, elective courses which focus on the field pragmatics may be offered in the teacher education programmes.

A comprehensive review of pedagogical approaches and techniques revealed that several scholars have proposed different frameworks to teach pragmatics in the classroom context (Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor, 2003; Cohen, 1996; Rose, 1999, etc.). However, the pedagogical framework developed by Martinez-Flor and Uso-Juan (2006) synthesises and elaborates on previous approaches and techniques put forward so far in the field of interlanguage pragmatics.

With the aim of teaching pragmatics in instructional settings, Martinez-Flor and Uso-Juan (2006) proposed a framework which is also called the ‘6Rs Approach’. It involves six main steps which are ‘researching’, ‘reflecting’, ‘receiving’, ‘reasoning’, ‘rehearsing’ and ‘revising’. Each section is presented below along with the pedagogical implications for teaching the pragmatic aspect of the target language. Furthermore, In order to effectively benefit from them in teaching refusals, their framework was modified according to the findings of this research study.

- **Researching Phase:** To help students to be informed about the pragmatic aspect of the target language (e.g., which strategies are employed for complaining or complimenting etc.), learners’ attention is drawn to the nature of pragmatic competence by providing them with a brief introduction. At this stage, learners’ pragmatic errors can also be exemplified, as well. Following

the introduction, the teacher can select a specific area within pragmatics (e.g., speech acts of refusals, requests etc.), and give information about this particular aspect. Besides these, the teacher can make use of “students-as-researchers” approach (Tarone and Yule, 1989) in pragmatic instruction. In this approach, students become ethnographers and try to collect naturally occurring speech acts in their mother tongue. They are given a data collection worksheet (see Appendix H) which involves sociopragmatic factors such as social distance, power imposition etc. The worksheet was adopted in order to make it more suitable for teaching refusals. More specifically, the speech act of suggestion was replaced by the speech act of refusal. Then, they are asked to write down their observations and complete the information about the specified speech act in their first language.

- **Reflecting Phase:** At this stage students analyze and reflect on their L1 samples by answering basic awareness-raising worksheet (see Appendix I). This worksheet was modified in accordance with the aim of teaching refusals; therefore, the original questions were re-written and the main focus was shifted to the speech act of refusal. After students have answered the questions, they are required to form groups/pairs and compare and contrast their observations with those of other peers so that they will be able to examine a larger sample of situations in the light of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic features. As Kasper (1997) points out, such observation tasks are useful in helping students to realize the intricate relationship between linguistic forms, multifunctionality of utterances in different contexts and their cultural meanings.

- **Receiving Phase:** This stage requires the teacher to give explicit instruction on particular pragmatic features such as speech acts, implicatures, discourse markers or speech acts etc. As Kasper (2001) indicates, this phase involves the description and explanation of a specific pragmatic feature by making it the object of metapragmatic discussion. Besides giving instruction, the teacher can also bring audiovisual materials such as video scenes, film segments, video-elicitation tasks and picture-prompted exercises which provide a rich source of input on how native speakers of a particular language perform speech act. These kinds of materials can help to compensate for the lack of exposure to native speakers of the target language experienced by Turkish-speaking EFL learners. Regarding the integration of such materials into the language classrooms, Rose (2001) states that the use of audiovisual materials can help the teachers to offer rich, varied and contextualized form of language which is of utmost importance in developing the students' pragmatic competence.
- **Reasoning Phase:** At this phase, students are given awareness-raising tasks, each of which has a different purpose. To begin with, the aim of the first task is to widen the scope of a particular speech act. Students are provided with different kinds of scenarios and asked to rank the suggested answers from the most appropriate to the least appropriate. The second task aims at eliciting students' metapragmatic discourse. Parallel to the procedure in the first one, students are asked to read the situations and rate the suitability of the given speech act. Then, the students are asked to explain the reason for their ratings. The last type of awareness-raising task aims to draw the students' attention to the importance of context. The teacher can give them a list of mixed refusals,

requests, suggestions, complaints etc. gathered from real-life exchanges. Then, learners decide on the most appropriate context by taking the sociopragmatic factors into account and they also indicate the type of the speech act depending on the context. When the students complete the task, the teacher is recommended to give information about the actual context and organise a whole-class discussion based on their answers.

- **Rehearsing Phase:** Apart from raising students' pragmatic awareness, the teacher should also design activities that elicit students' production. At this stage, learners need to be provided with opportunities to rehearse what they have already learned. As LoCastro (2003) indicates, practising what the learners have been taught facilitates learning and fluency in all areas of language, including pragmatic competence. In this sense, the teacher has many choices. For instance, she/he can make use of role-plays to enhance learners' pragmatic with a focus on pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects. Besides role-play, other productive activities such as drama, simulations etc. can also be integrated into the teaching process (Kasper, 1997).
- **Revising Phase:** In addition to presenting relevant input and activities that encourage output, the teacher can make a revision and give feedback on students' pragmatic behaviours. By means of feedback, learners can reprocess their own output, realize the erroneous part and repair it. Thus, it is possible to infer that neither being exposed to target language nor having opportunities for language is sufficient alone for developing our learners' pragmatic competence. For this reason, the teacher should inform them about their

performance so that they can notice the appropriate use of the pragmatic component of the target language.

In conclusion, more often than not, students in EFL classrooms are exposed to a rather restricted set of pragmatic functions and they provide only very brief replies to ready-made questions in textbooks related to either grammar or vocabulary. As Nikula (2005) argues, present classroom reality diminishes the role of English as a communicative tool and causes 'pragmatically detached' ways of using the language; however, it is possible to overcome this problematic situation by analyzing varied choices and adopting a pedagogical framework which best fits our context of education. By integrating such pedagogical strategies into the EFL curricula and the language improvement courses in EFL teacher education programmes, it is hoped that the learners and prospective EFL teachers can develop their pragmatic competence along with other areas of L2 knowledge.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Research

Although this study is restricted in its scope, it is hoped that some useful areas which are left open for further research can be derived from the results of this study. These areas are the focus of this section.

First of all, the present study focused on the speech act of refusal; whereas future studies might expand the scope of inquiry by investigating the performances of the learners on different speech acts such as complaints, apologies, suggestions, etc.

Second, in the present study, the refusal responses of the participants were elicited by means of discourse completion tasks developed by Beebe et al. (1990) due to their advantageous use; however, in order to reach more complete information with higher

levels of validity and reliability, future studies in the field of interlanguage pragmatics might collect data from various sources such as open role-plays, observation and recording of naturally occurring speech. As DuFon (2001) indicates, using two or more methods to collect speech act data is preferable to using only one method since incorporating different elicitation techniques can reveal more authentic and interactive aspects of pragmatic behaviour.

Third, the researcher in the present study analysed the responses of the participants with regard to the choice and frequency of the refusal strategies employed. However, future studies could expand the boundaries of the analysis by concentrating on the order and content of the refusal strategies utilised by the participants.

Fourth, this study involved the Turkish-speaking EFL learners as a whole group; however, further investigation might separate the learners into different proficiency levels and aim to examine the relationship between the degree of pragmatic transfer and the learners' level of target language proficiency. In so doing, future studies could provide insight into how learners at different stages of development employ their native language pragmatic knowledge in performing speech acts in the target language.

Finally, based on the categorization of realization strategies for refusals provided by the present study, researchers might prefer to design an instructional treatment and investigate the effects of instruction in further research studies. It would be interesting and useful to know the extent to which instruction facilitates pragmatic use and development of these speech acts, and whether explicit instruction would prove to be more effective than implicit instruction in this regard.

REFERENCES

- Al-Issa, A. (1998). *Sociopragmatic transfer in the performance of refusals by Jordan EFL learners*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, Pennsylvania, USA.
- Al-Issa, A. (2003). Sociocultural transfer in L2 speech behaviours: Evidence and motivating factors. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 27, 581-601.
- Alcon, E. (2000). The role of conversational interaction in the development of a second language: Its application to English language teaching in the classroom. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, 16, 135-154.
- Austin, J. L. (1962). *How to do things with words*. London: Clarendon Press.
- Bachman, L. F. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Do language learners recognise pragmatic violations? *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, 233-259.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Mahan-Taylor, R. (2003). Teaching pragmatics. Retrieved June 5, 2007, from <http://exchanges.state.gov/education/engteaching/pragmatics.htm>
- Barron, A. (2002). *Acquisition in interlanguage pragmatics: Learning how to do things with words in a study abroad context*. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Beebe, L. M., Takahashi, L., & Uliss-Weltz, R. (1990). Pragmatic transfer in ESL refusals. In R. Scarcella, E. S. Andersen & S. D. Krashen (Eds.), *Developing communicative competence in second language* (pp. 55-73). New York: Newbury House.
- Bergman, M. L., & Kasper, G. (1993). Perception and performance in native and non-native apology. In G. Kasper & S. Blum-Kulka (Eds.), *Interlanguage pragmatics* (pp. 82-107). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Berns, M. S. (1990). *Contexts of competence: Social and cultural considerations in communicative language teaching*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Blum-Kulka, S. (1982). Learning to say what you mean in a second language. *Applied Linguistics*, 3, 29-59.
- Blum-Kulka, S. (1987). Indirectness and politeness in requests: same or different? *Journal of Pragmatics*, 11, 131-146.

- Bou-Franch, P. (1998). On pragmatic transfer. *Studies in English Language and Linguistics*, 0, 5-20.
- Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (4th ed.). White Plains, NY: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Brown, P., & Levinson, S. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bulut, D. (2000). *A cross-cultural study of refusals in American English and Turkish*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Byon, A. S. (2004). Sociopragmatic analysis of Korean requests: Pedagogical settings. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 36, 1673-1704.
- Byon, A. S. (2006). Developing students' awareness of Korean speech acts: The use of discourse completion tasks. *Language Awareness*, 15(4), 244-263.
- Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J. C. Richards & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and communication* (pp. 2-27). London: Longman.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 1-47.
- Celce, M., Dörnyei, Z., & Thurrell, S. (1995). Communicative competence: A pedagogically motivated model with content specifications. *Issues in Applied Linguistics*, 31, 141-152.
- Chang, Y-F. (2008). How to say no: An analysis of cross-cultural difference and pragmatic transfer. *Language Sciences*, 31(4), 477-493.
- Chick, J. K. (1996). Intercultural communication. In S. L. McKay & N. H. Hornberg (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language teaching* (pp. 329-348). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. Cambridge: M.I.T Press.
- Clancy, P. M. (1986). The acquisition of communicative style in Japanese. In B. B. Schieffelin & E. Ochs (Eds.), *Language socialisation across cultures* (pp. 231-249). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Cohen, A. (1996). Developing the ability to perform speech acts. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18, 253-267.
- Crystal, D. (1985). *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Blackwell.

Çakır, C. (2006). Developing cultural awareness in foreign language teaching. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education*. Retrieved May, 10, 2009, from http://tojde.anadolu.edu.tr/tojde23/pdf/article_12.pdf

Cutting, J. (2002). *Pragmatics and discourse: A resource book for students*. London: Routledge.

DeCapua, A. (1998). The transfer of native language speech behaviour into a second language: A basis for cultural stereotypes? *Applied Linguistics*, 9, 21-35.

Demir, S. (2003). *Bidirectional pragmatic transfer: An investigation of refusal strategies of Turkish users of English*. Unpublished master thesis, Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey.

Deveci, T. (2003). *A study on the use of complaints in the interlanguage of Turkish learners*. Unpublished master thesis, Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey.

Doğançay-Aktuna, S., & Kamışlı, S. (1997, May). *Pragmatic transfer in interlanguage development: A case study of advanced EFL learners*. Paper presented at the 11th National Linguistics Conference, Ankara, Turkey.

DuFon, M. (2001). Triangulation in qualitative SLA research on interlanguage pragmatics. In X. Bonch-Bruevich et al. (Eds.), *The past, present and the future of second language research* (pp. 251-270). Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Press.

Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Erozan, F. (2006). *Program evaluation revisited: Language improvement courses*. Lincom: Muenchen.

Erton, İ. (2007). Applied pragmatics and competence relations in language learning and teaching. *Journal of Language and Linguistics Studies*, 3(1), 59-71.

Galvin, P. (2003). The Industrial revolution and its educational impacts. Retrieved March 2, 2007, from <http://www.oswego.edu/-waite/industrialrevolutionV2ByGalvin.doc>

Garcia, C. (1996). Reprimanding and responding to a reprimand: A case study of Peruvian Spanish speakers. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 26, 663-697.

Gass, S. M., & Houck, N. (1999). *Interlanguage refusals: A cross-cultural study of Japanese-English*. New York: Mouton de Gruyter.

Geis, M. L. (1995). *Speech acts and conversational interaction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Goffman, E. (1955). On face work: An analysis of ritual elements of social interaction. *Journal for the Study of Interpersonal Processes*, 18(3), 213-231.

- Golato, A. (2002). German compliment responses. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 34, 547-571.
- Graziano, A. M., & Raulin, M. L. (1993). *Research methods: A process of inquiry* (2nd ed.). USA: Harper Collins College Publishers.
- Grice, H. P. (1975). Logic and conversation. In P. Cole & J. Morgan (Eds.), *Syntax and semantics: Speech acts* (Vol. 2, pp. 41-58). New York: Academic Press.
- Haugh, M. (2005). The importance of place in Japanese politeness: Implications for cross-cultural and intercultural analyses. *Intercultural Pragmatics*, 2(1), 41-68.
- Hill, B., Ide, S., Ikuta, S., Kawasake, A., & Ogino, T. (1986). Universals of linguistic politeness: Quantitative evidence from Japanese and American English. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 10, 347-371.
- Hinkel, E. (Ed.). (2005). *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- House, J., & Kasper, G. (1987). Interlanguage pragmatics: Requesting in a foreign language. In W. Lörcher & R. Schulze (Eds.), *Perspectives on language performance: Vol. 2*. (pp. 1250-1288). Tübingen: Gunter Narr Verlag.
- Huang, Y. (2007). *Pragmatics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hurley, D. S. (1992). Issues in teaching pragmatics, prosody, and non-verbal communication. *Applied Linguistics*, 13(3), 259-280.
- Hymes, D. H. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* (pp. 269-293). Baltimore: Penguin Books.
- Ide, S. (1989). Formal forms and discernment: Neglected aspects of linguistic politeness. *Multilingua*, 8, 223-248.
- Ikoma, T., & Shimaru, A. (1994). Pragmatic transfer in the speech act of refusal in Japanese as a second language. *Journal of Asian Pacific Communication*, 5(1), 105-129.
- Jaszczolt, K. M. (2002). *Semantics and pragmatics: Meaning in language and discourse*. London: Longman.
- Jung, J-Y. (2002). Issues in acquisitional pragmatics. *Working papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics*, 2(3), 1-13.
- Kahraman, B., & Akkuş, D. (2007). The use of request expressions by Turkish learners of Japanese. *Journal of Theory and Practice in Education*, 3(1), 122-138.
- Karatepe, Ç. (2001). Pragmalinguistic awareness in EFL teacher training. *Language Awareness*, 10(2&3), 178-188.

- Kasper, G. (1992). Pragmatics transfer. *Second Language Research*, 8, 203-231.
- Kasper, G. (1994). Politeness. In R. E. Asher et al. (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics* (pp. 3206-3212). Edinburgh: Pergamon and University of Aberdeen Press.
- Kasper, G., & Blum-Kulka, S. (Eds.). (1993). *Interlanguage pragmatics*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Kasper, G., & Dahl, M. (1991). *Research methods in interlanguage pragmatics*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii.
- Kasper, G., & Schmidt, R. (1996). Developmental issues in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18, 149-169.
- Kasper, G. (1997). Can pragmatic competence be taught?. Retrieved June 2, 2007, from <http://www.nflrc.hawaii.edu/NetWorks/NW06>
- Kasper, G. (2001). Four perspectives on L2 pragmatic development. *Applied Linguistics*, 22(4), 502-530.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2007). English language teaching in Turkey: Policy changes and their implementations. *RELC Journal*, 38(2), 216-228.
- Koike, D. A., & Pearson, L. (2006). The effect of instruction and feedback in the development of pragmatic competence. *System*, 33, 481-501.
- Kwon, J. (2004). *Pragmatic transfer and proficiency in refusals of Korean EFL learners*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Boston University, Boston, USA.
- Kwon, J. (2005). Expressing refusals in Korean and in American English. *Multilingua*, 23, 339-364.
- Lee, J. S. (2002). Interpreting conversational implicatures: A study of Korean learners of English. *The Korea TESOL Journal*, 5(1), 1-26.
- Levinson, S. C. (1983). *Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- LoCastro, V. (2003). *An introduction to pragmatics: Social action for language teachers*. Michigan: Michigan Press.
- Mackey, A., & Gass, S. (2005). *Second language research: Methodology and design*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Martinez-Flor, A., & Uso-Juan, E. (2006). A comprehensive pedagogical framework to develop pragmatics in the foreign language classroom: The 6Rs Approach. *Applied Language Learning*, 16(2), 39-64.

- Matsumoto, Y. (1989). Politeness and conversational universals: Observations from Japanese. *Multilingua*, 8, 207-221.
- Mey, J. (1993). *Pragmatics: An introduction*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Miller, J. (2003). *Audible difference: ESL and social identity in schools*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Mitchell, R. and Myles, F. (1998). *Second Language Learning Theories*. North Yorkshire: Replika Press.
- Nguyen, T. M. M. (2005). *Criticising and responding to criticism in a foreign language: A study of Vietnamese learners of English*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Auckland, New Zealand.
- Nguyen, T. T. M. (2008). Modifying L2 criticisms: How learners do it? *Journal of Pragmatics*, 40, 768-791.
- Nikula, T. (2005). English as an object and tool of study in classrooms: Interactional effects and pragmatic implications. *Linguistics and Education*, 16, 27-58.
- Olshtain, E. (1983). Sociocultural competence and language transfer: The case of apology. In S. Gass & L. Selinker (Eds.), *Language transfer in language learning* (pp. 232-249). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Rose, K. R. (1994). Pragmatic consciousness-raising in an EFL context. In L. F. Bouton & Y. Kachru (Eds.), *Pragmatics and language learning* (pp. 52-63). Urbana, IL: University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.
- Rose, K. R. (1999). Teachers and students learning about requests in Hong Kong. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Culture in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 167-180). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rose, K. R. (2001). Compliments and compliment responses in film: Implications for pragmatics research and language teaching. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 39, 309-326.
- Rose, K. R., & Kasper, G. (Eds.). (2001). *Pragmatics in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Savignon, S. J. (1983). Communicative competence: Theory and classroom practice. In M. S. Berns, *Context of competence: Social and cultural consideration in communicative language teaching* (pp. 90-91). New York: Plenum Press.
- Saussure, F. de (1959). *Course in general linguistics*. New York: Philosophical Library Press.

Schachter, J. (1990). Communicative competence revisited. In B. Harley, P. Allen, J. Cummins & M. Swain (Eds.), *The development of second language proficiency*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Searle, J. R. (1969). *Speech acts: An essay in the philosophy of language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Searle, J. R. (1977). A classification of illocutionary acts. In A. Rogers, B. Wall & J. P. Murphy (Eds.), *Proceedings of the Texas Conference on Performatives, Presuppositions and Implicatures*, Washington, D. C.: Centre for Applied Linguistics, pp. 27-45.

Seliger, H. W., & Shohamy, E. (1989). *Second language research methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 10, 219-231.

Spolsky, B. (1989). Communicative competence, language proficiency, and beyond. *Applied Linguistics*, 10, 138-156.

Steven, P. B. (1993). The pragmatics of "no!": Some strategies in English and Arabic. *Ideal*, 6, 87-112.

Takahashi, T., & Bebee, L. M. (1993). Cross-linguistic influence in the speech act of correction. In G. Kasper & S. Blum-Kulka (Eds.), *Interlanguage pragmatics* (pp. 138-157). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Takahashi, S., & Dufon, M. A. (1989). *Cross-linguistic influence in indirectness: The case of English directives performed by native Japanese speakers*. Unpublished manuscript. Department of English as a second language. Honolulu: University of Hawaii. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED370439).

Tarone, E., & Yule, G. (1989). *Focus on the language learner*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied Linguistics*, 4, 91-112.

Thomas, J. (1995). *Meaning in interaction: An introduction to pragmatics*. New York: Longman.

Turnbull, W. (2001). An appraisal of pragmatic elicitation techniques for the social psychological study of talk: The case of request refusals. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 11(1), 31-61.

Yuan, Y. (2001). An inquiry into empirical pragmatics data gathering-methods: Written DCTs, oral DCTs, field notes, and natural conversations. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 33, 271-292.

Yule, G. (1996). *Pragmatics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wannaruk, A. (2005). *Pragmatic transfer in Thai EFL refusals*. Paper presented at the 13th Annual KOTESOL International Conference, Sookmyung Women's University, Seoul, Korea.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Interview Questions

1. What do the language improvement courses aim to improve in students' overall linguistic competence?
2. To what extent, do you think, the content of these courses effectively accommodate the pragmatic aspect of the English language?
3. To what extent, do you think, course materials provide pragmatic information which facilitates the acquisition of pragmatic competence such as speech act realisation strategies, pragmatic raising activities, metapragmatic discussions, etc.?
4. What kind of changes/recommendations can you suggest for making these courses and materials better adjusted to the students' need to use English in pragmatically appropriate ways?

Yasemin Aksoyalp

MA student

ELT Department

Faculty of Education

Eastern Mediterranean University.

e-mail: yaksoyalp@gmail.com

APPENDIX B

DISCOURSE COMPLETION TASK

Age: ____ Sex: M () / F () Native Language: _____

INSTRUCTIONS:

Please read the following twelve situations. After you read the description for each situation, you will be asked to write a response in the blank after “you” in the dialogue. Please pay attention to the role given to you and respond as you would in actual conversation, using the actual words you think you might use.

1. You are the owner of a bookstore. One of your best workers asks to speak to you in private.

Worker: As you know, I have been here just a little over a year now, and I know you’ve been pleased with my work. I really enjoy working here, but to be quite honest, I really need an increase in pay.

You: _____

Worker: Well... then I guess I’ll have to look for another job.

- 2. You are a junior in college. You attend classes regularly and take good notes. Your classmate often misses class and asks you for the lecture notes.**

Classmate: Oh God! We have an exam tomorrow but I don't have notes from last week. I am sorry to ask you this, but could you please lend me your notes once again?

You: _____

Classmate: O.K., then I guess I'll have to ask someone else.

- 3. You are the president of a big printing company. A salesman from a printing machine company invites you to one of the most expensive restaurants in New York.**

Salesman: We have met several times now, I'm hoping you will buy my company's printing machine. I was wondering if you would like to be my guest at Lutece to sign the contract.

You: _____

Salesman: Perhaps we can meet another time.

- 4. You are a top executive at a very large software company. One day the boss calls you into his office.**

Boss: Next Sunday my wife and I are having a little party at my house. I know it's sudden...but I'm hoping all my top executives will be there with their wives/husbands.

You: _____

Boss: That's too bad. I was hoping everyone would be there.

5. You are at a friend's house watching TV. Your friend offers you a snack.

You: Thanks, but no thanks. I've been eating all day and I feel just terrible. My clothes don't even fit me.

Friend: Hey, why don't you try this new diet I've been telling you about?

You: _____

Friend: Well, you should try it anyway.

6. Your boss just asked you to bring a report to him. You can't find the report on your desk because your desk is very disorganized. Your boss walks over.

Boss: You know, maybe you should try to organize yourself better.

I always write things down on a piece of paper so I don't forget them.

Why don't you try it?

You: _____

Boss: Well, it was only an idea anyway.

7. You arrive home and notice that your cleaning lady is extremely upset. She comes rushing up to you.

Cleaning lady: Oh God, I'm so sorry! I had a terrible accident.

While I was cleaning, I bumped into the table and your china vase fell and broke. I feel very bad about it. I'll pay for it.

You: (Knowing that the cleaning lady is supporting three children):

Cleaning lady: No, I'd feel better if I paid for it.

8. You teach English at a university. It is just about the middle of the semester now. One of you students asks to speak to you.

Student: Ah, excuse me, some of the students were talking after class yesterday. We kind of feel that the class would be better if you could give us more practice in conversation and less on grammar.

You:

Student: O.K., it was only a suggestion.

9. You are at a friend's house for lunch.

Friend: How about another piece of cake?

You:

Friend: Come on, just a little piece?

You:

10. A friend invites you to dinner, but you really don't like this friend's husband/wife.

Friend: How about coming to my house Sunday night?

We're having a small dinner party.

You: _____

Friend: Well...maybe next time.

11. You've been working in an advertising company now for some time. The boss offers you an increase in salary and a better position, but you have to move to another town. You don't want to go. Today, the boss calls you into his office.

Boss: I'd like to offer you an executive position in our new office in Seattle. It's a great town – only 3 hours from here by airplane!

And, your salary will increase with the new position.

You: _____

Boss: Well...maybe you should think about it some more before turning it down.

12. You are at the office in a meeting with your boss. It is getting close to the end of the day and you want to leave the office.

Boss: If it's okay with you, I'd like to spend an extra hour or two tonight so that we can finish up with this work. Can you stay a little longer at the office?

You: . _____

Boss: Well, that's too bad. I was hoping you could stay.

Thank you for your contributions.

Yasemin AKSOYALP

MA student.

ELT Department

Faculty of Education

Eastern Mediterranean University.

APPENDIX C

SÖYLEM TAMAMLAMA ANKETİ

Yaşınız: _____ Cinsiyetiniz: K () / E ()

- 1. Bir kitap mağazasının sahibisiniz. En iyi elemanlarınızdan biri sizinle özel olarak konuşmak istiyor.**

Eleman: Bildiğiniz gibi burada bir seneden uzun bir süredir çalışıyorum ve çalışmamdan memnun olduğunuzu biliyorum. Ben de burada çalışmaktan çok memnunum. Ancak dürüst olmam gerekirse, maaşımda gerçekten bir artışa ihtiyacım var.

Siz: _____

Eleman: O zaman sanırım başka bir iş aramam gerekecek.

- 2. Bir üniversitede üçüncü sınıf öğrencisisiniz. Derslere düzenli olarak devam ediyor ve iyi notlar alıyorsunuz. Sınıf arkadaşlarınızdan biri sürekli dersleri kaçırıyor ve sizden ders notlarınızı istiyor.**

Sınıf arkadaşınız: Hay Allah! Yarın bir sınavımız var ama geçen haftanın ders notları bende yok. Senden bunu istediğim için üzgünüm ama ders notlarını bir kere daha bana ödünç verebilir misin?

Siz: _____

Sınıf arkadaşınız: Peki, sanırım başkasından istemek zorundayım.

3. Büyük bir basım evinin müdürsünüz. Basım makineleri satan bir şirketin satış elemanı sizi İstanbul'un en pahalı lokantalarından birine davet ediyor.

Satış elemanı: Sizinle daha önce birkaç kez görüşmüştük. Şirketimizin matbaa makinesini alacağımızı umuyorum. Bir anlaşma imzalamak için Hilton'da benim misafirim olur musunuz?

Siz: _____

Satış elemanı: O halde başka bir zaman.

4. Çok büyük bir yazılım şirketinin üst düzey yöneticisiniz. Bir gün patronunuz sizi odasına çağırır.

Patronunuz: Önümüzdeki Pazar eşim ve ben, evimizde küçük bir parti veriyoruz. Biliyorum Pazar'a çok kalmadı ama üst düzey yöneticilerimin hepsinin eşleriyle orada olacaklarını umuyorum.

Siz: _____

Patron: Bu çok kötü oldu. Herkesin orada olacağını umuyordum.

5. Bir arkadaşınızın evinde televizyon seyrediyorsunuz. Arkadaşınız size yiyecek hafif bir şeyler ikram ediyor.

Siz: Hayır, teşekkür ederim. Zaten bütün gün yiyorum ve bundan gerçekten rahatsız oluyorum. Artık elbiselerim bile olmuyor.

Arkadaşınız: Neden sana bahsettiğim şu yeni diyeti denemiyorsun?

Siz: _____

Arkadaşınız: Yine de denemelisin.

- 6. Patronunuz, sizden kendisine bir rapor getirmenizi istedi. Masanızın üzerindeki dağınıklık yüzünden raporu bulamıyorsunuz ve bu esnada patronunuz içeri giriyor.**

Patron: Belki biraz daha düzenli olmaya çalışmalısın. Ben her zaman yapmam gereken şeyleri unutmamak için küçük notlar alırım. Belki sen de denemelisin.

Siz: _____

Patron: Peki, sadece bir fikirdi.

- 7. Eve geliyorsunuz ve evi temizleyen yardımcınızın çok üzgün olduğunu görüyorsunuz. Koşarak size geliyor.**

Temizlikçi: Aman Allah'ım! Çok üzgünüm. Çok kötü bir kaza oldu. Temizlik yaparken masaya çarptım ve sizin porselen Çin vazanız düşüp kırıldı. Gerçekten çok üzgünüm. Parasını ödeyeyim.

Siz: (Yardımcınızın üç çocuğa bakmak zorunda olduğunu biliyorsunuz).

Temizlikçi: Hayır, ödersem vicdanen daha rahat olurum.

8. Bir üniversitede İngilizce dersleri veriyorsunuz. Dönemin neredeyse ortasındasınız. Öğrencilerinizden biri sizinle konuşmak istiyor.

Öğrenci: Affedersiniz, dün dersten sonra birkaç öğrenci konuşuyorduk. Biz düşündük de eğer konuşmaya daha çok ağırlık verip dilbilgisi (gramer) konularının üstünde daha az durursanız, bizce dersler daha iyi geçecek.

Siz: _____

Öğrenci: Tamam, hocam. Sadece bir öneriydi.

9. Öğle yemeği için bir arkadaşınızın evindesiniz.

Arkadaşınız: Biraz daha kek alır mısın?

Siz: _____

Arkadaşınız: Aman canım, sadece küçük bir parça?

Siz: _____

10. Bir arkadaşınız sizi akşam yemeğine davet ediyor, ama arkadaşınızın eşini hiç sevmiyorsunuz.

Arkadaşınız: Pazar akşamı bize yemeğe gelmeye ne dersin? Ufak bir parti veriyoruz.

Siz: _____

Arkadaşınız: Peki, belki bir başka zaman.

11. Bir süredir bir reklam şirketinde çalışıyorsunuz. Patronunuz, size maaş artışı ve bir terfi teklif ediyor, ama bunun için başka bir şehre taşınmak zorundasınız. Oysa siz başka bir şehre gitmek istemiyorsunuz. Bugün patronunuz sizi odasına çağırıyor.

Patronunuz: İstanbul'daki yeni büromuz için size yöneticilik pozisyonu önermek istiyorum. Çok güzel bir şehir, buradan uçakla sadece bir saat sürüyor. Ve kabul etmeniz durumunda yeni bir terfi ile maaşınızda da bir artış olacak.

Siz: _____

Patronunuz: Peki, ama yine de reddetmeden önce biraz daha düşünmelisiniz.

12. Patronunuzla ofiste bir toplantıdasınız. Mesai bitmek üzere ve siz de gitmek istiyorsunuz.

Patronunuz: Eğer size de uygunsa, bu gece bir ya da iki saat kalıp bu işi bitirmek isterim.

Siz: _____

Patronunuz: Bu çok kötü oldu. Kalabileceğini umuyordum.

Katkılarınız için teŖekkür ederim.

Yasemin AKSOYALP.

Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümü

Eğitim Fakültesi

Doęu Akdeniz Üniversitesi

E-posta: yaksoyalp@gmail.com.

APPENDIX D

Researcher: Yasemin AKSOYALP.

Project Description:

This is a thesis study which is going to be submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts of English Language Teaching Department, Eastern Mediterranean University. The purpose of this study is to investigate the strategies used by the Turkish-speaking EFL learners while performing the speech act of refusal and search for evidences of pragmatic transfer.

Procedures:

If you agree to participate, you will fill out the attached discourse completion task. It will take you approximately 20 minutes to complete the discourse completion task. In this task, you are kindly requested to write a response in the blank after “you” in the dialogue. Please pay attention to the role given to you and respond as you would in actual conversation, using the actual words you think you might use.

Study withdrawal:

Participation in this study is voluntary.

Confidentiality:

The data will be used for research purposes only. All your responses will be held in strict confidence.

If you are interested in the results of this study, please feel free to contact me after January 2009 at:

Yasemin AKSOYALP.

ELT Department

Faculty of Education

Eastern Mediterranean University

E-mail: yaksoyalp@gmail.com

I have read and understood the foregoing description of the study. I agree to participate in this study.

Name:

Signature:

Date:

APPENDIX E

Çalışmayı yürüten: Yasemin AKSOYALP.

Çalışmanın Tanımı: Bu çalışma, Doğu Akdeniz Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümü Yüksek Lisans programında yürüttüğüm tez çalışmamı içermektedir. Çalışmanın amacı, anadili Türkçe olan ve İngilizce öğrenen öğrencilerin kullandıkları 'reddetme' söz eylemi stratejilerini saptamak ve edimbilimsel aktarım olup olmadığını bulmaktır.

Uygulama: Sözü edilen çalışmaya katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz takdirde, ekteki söylem tamamlama anketini doldurmanız istenmektedir. Anketi tamamlamanız yaklaşık yirmi dakikanızı alacaktır. Ankette yer alan diyaloglarda, size ayrılan boşluğa en uygun cevabı yazmanız beklenmektedir. Bunun için lütfen belirtilen durumlarda size verilen 'rolü' dikkate alarak ve 'gerçek' bir konuşmada cevaplayacağınız biçimde yanıtlar vermeye çalışınız. Yanıtlarınız bir veya birden fazla cümle içerebilir.

Çalışmadan çekilme: Bu çalışmaya katılımınız isteğinize bağlıdır.

Gizlilik: Toplanan veri sadece araştırma amaçlı kullanılacaktır.

Yürütülen araştırmanın sonuçları hakkında bilgi edinmek isterseniz, Ocak 2009'dan sonra iletişime geçebilirsiniz:

Yasemin AKSOYALP.

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümü

Eğitim Fakültesi

Doğu Akdeniz Üniversitesi

E-posta: yaksoyalp@gmail.com.

Yukarıda yer alan bilgileri okudum ve çalışmaya katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

Adı:

Soyadı:

İmza:

Tarih:

APPENDIX F

Dear participants,

I am doing my MA degree in English Language Teaching Department at Eastern Mediterranean University. I am carrying out a study which aims to investigate the strategies used by Turkish learners of English while performing the speech act of refusal and search for evidence of pragmatic transfer in their refusals. You are kindly requested to fill out the questionnaire carefully and accurately. Your answers will be kept confidential and used for research purposes only.

Thank you very much for your cooperation and help.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Year: Freshman () Sophomore () Junior () Senior ()

Gender: Male () Female ()

Nationality: T.R. () T.R.N.C. () Other (please specify): _____.

Type of school you graduated from:

College () Vocational High School () Anatolian High School ()

General High School () Commerce High School ()

Other (please specify): _____.

Have you ever been to an English-speaking country?

No () Yes ()

If yes, how long did you stay there? _____.

Do you speak language(s) other than Turkish and English?

No () Yes ()

If yes, please specify _____.

DIRECTIONS:

Please read the following **twelve** situations. After you read the description, write a response in the space after 'you' in the dialogue. Please pay attention to the role given to you and respond as you would do in an actual conversation, using the actual words you think you might use.

1. You are the owner of a bookstore. One of your best workers asks to speak to you in private.

Worker: As you know, I have been here just a little over a year now, and I know you've been pleased with my work. I really enjoy working here, but to be quite honest, I really need an increase in pay.

You: _____

Worker: Well... then I guess I'll have to look for another job.

2. You are a junior at a university. You attend classes regularly and take good notes. Your classmate often misses class and asks you for the lecture notes.

Classmate: Oh God! We have an exam tomorrow but I don't have notes from last week. I am sorry to ask you this, but could you please lend me your notes once again?

You: _____

Classmate: O.K., then I guess I'll have to ask someone else.

- 3. You are the president of a big printing company. A salesman from a printing machine company invites you to one of the most expensive restaurants in Istanbul.**

Salesman: We have met several times now, I'm hoping you will buy my company's printing machine. I was wondering if you would like to be my guest at Hilton to sign the contract.

You: _____

Salesman: Perhaps we can meet another time.

- 4. You are a top executive secretary at a very large software company. One day the boss calls you into his office.**

Boss: Next Sunday my wife and I are having a little party at my house. I know it's sudden...but I'm hoping all my top executives will be there with their wives/husbands.

You: _____

Boss: That's too bad. I was hoping everyone would be there.

- 5. You are at a friend's house watching TV. Your friend offers you a snack.**

You: Thanks, but no thanks. I've been eating all day and I feel just terrible. My clothes don't even fit me.

Friend: Hey, why don't you try this new diet I've been telling you about?

You: _____

Friend: Well, you should try it anyway.

- 6. Your boss just asked you to bring a report to him. You can't find the report on your desk because your desk is very disorganized. Your boss walks over.**

Boss: You know, maybe you should try to organize yourself better.

I always write things down on a piece of paper so I don't forget them.

Why don't you try it?

You: _____

Boss: Well, it was only an idea anyway.

- 7. You arrive home and notice that your cleaning lady is extremely upset. She comes rushing up to you.**

Cleaning lady: Oh God, I'm so sorry! I had a terrible accident.

While I was cleaning, I bumped into the table and your china vase fell and broke. I feel very bad about it. I'll pay for it.

You (Knowing that the cleaning lady is supporting three children):

Cleaning lady: No, I'd feel better if I paid for it.

8. You teach English at a university. It is just about the middle of the semester now. One of your students asks to speak to you.

Student: Ah, excuse me, some of the students were talking after class yesterday. We kind of feel that the class would be better if you could give us more practice in conversation and less on grammar.

You: _____

Student: O.K., it was only a suggestion.

9. You are at a friend's house for lunch.

Friend: How about another piece of cake?

You: _____

Friend: Come on, just a little piece?

You: _____

10. A friend invites you to dinner, but you really don't like this friend's husband/wife.

Friend: How about coming to my house Sunday night?

We're having a small dinner party.

You: _____

Friend: Well...maybe next time.

11. You've been working in an advertising company now for some time. The boss offers you an increase in salary and a better position, but you have to move to another town. You don't want to go. Today, the boss calls you into his office.

Boss: I'd like to offer you an executive position in our new office in Seattle. It's a great town – only 3 hours from here by airplane!

And, your salary will increase with the new position.

You: _____

Boss: Well...maybe you should think about it some more before turning it down.

12. You are at the office in a meeting with your boss. It is getting close to the end of the day and you want to leave the office.

Boss: If it's okay with you, I'd like to spend an extra hour or two tonight so that we can finish up with this work. Can you stay a little longer at the office?

You: _____

Boss: Well, that's too bad. I was hoping you could stay.

Thank you very much for your contributions.

Yasemin AKSOYALP

MA student.

ELT Department

Faculty of Education

Eastern Mediterranean University.

APPENDIX G

TAXONOMY OF REFUSALS

Direct

1. Performative (e. g., 'I refuse')
2. Nonperformative statement
 - a. 'No'
 - b. Negative willingness/ability ('I can't', 'I don't think so')

Indirect

1. Statement of regret (e. g., 'I'm sorry ...', 'I feel terrible ...')
2. Wish (e. g., 'I wish I could help you ...')
3. Excuse, reason, explanation (e. g., 'My children will be home that night'; 'I have a headache')
4. Statement of alternative
 - a. I can do X instead of Y (e. g., 'I'd rather ...', 'I'd prefer ...')
 - b. Why don't you do X instead of Y (e. g., 'Why don't you ask someone else?')
5. Set conditions for future or past acceptance (e. g., 'If you had asked me earlier, I would have ...')
6. Promise of future acceptance (e. g., 'I'll do it next time', 'I promise I'll ...', or 'Next time I'll ...'; using 'will' or 'promise')
7. Statement of principle (e. g., 'I never do business with friends')
8. Statement of philosophy (e. g., 'One can't be too careful')

9. Attempt to dissuade interlocutor
 - a. Threat or statement of negative consequences to the requester
(e. g., 'I won't be any fun tonight' to refuse an invitation)
 - b. Guilt trip (e. g., waitress to customers who want to sit a while: 'I can't make a living off people who just order coffee')
 - c. Criticize the request/requester, etc. (statement of negative feeling or opinion); insult/attack (e. g., 'Who do you think you are?' 'That's a terrible idea!')
 - d. Request for help, empathy, and assistance by dropping or holding the request (e.g., 'Please try to understand the economic situation that our company is undergoing now')
 - e. Let interlocutor off the hook (e. g., 'Don't worry about it', 'That's okay', 'You don't have to')
 - f. Self-defence (e. g., 'I'm trying my best', 'I'm doing all I can do')
10. Acceptance that functions as a refusal
 - a. Unspecific or indefinite reply
 - b. Lack of enthusiasm (e.g., 'I don't want to eat that little piece.')
11. Avoidance
 - 11.1 Nonverbal
 - a. Silence
 - b. Hesitation
 - c. Do nothing
 - d. Physical departure
 - 11.2 Verbal
 - a. Topic switch (e.g., 'I'm interest in your special offer if you have any')

- b. Joke
- c. Repetition of part of request, etc. (e. g., ‘Monday?’)
- d. Postponement (e. g., ‘I’ll think about it’)
- e. Hedging (e. g., ‘Gee, I don’t know’, ‘I’m not sure’)

Adjuncts to refusals

1. Statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement (e. g., ‘That’s a good idea...’; ‘I’d love to ...’)
2. Statement of empathy (e. g., ‘I realize you are in a difficult situation’)
3. Pause fillers (e. g., ‘uhh’, ‘well’, ‘oh’, ‘uhm’)
4. Gratitude/appreciation (e.g., ‘Thank you very much, indeed’, ‘I appreciate your hard work’)
5. Passive negative willingness (e. g., ‘It will be difficult’)
6. Saying I tried/considered (e. g., ‘I already tried’)
7. Statement of solidarity (e. g., ‘As you and I have always known ...’)
8. Elaboration on the reason (e. g., ‘If I don’t show up on time, my wife will kill me’)
9. Statement of relinquishment (e. g., ‘I can’t do anything about it’)
10. Asking a question (e. g., ‘Is it really effective?’)

APPENDIX H

L1 DATA COLLECTION WORKSHEET

Step 1. Indicate a given refusal:

Step 2. Think about:

1. Speaker's age and gender:

2. Social statuses of the speaker and the addressee:

3. Speaker's intention:

Step 3. Provide a suitable context:

Adapted from Martinez-Flor and Uso-Juan (2006).

APPENDIX I

AWARENESS-RAISING QUESTIONS WORKSHEET

Pragmalinguistic questions:

1. What kinds of strategies did you find for the speech act of refusal?
2. Could you organise these strategies according to different types such as direct, indirect or adjuncts to refusals?

Sociopragmatic questions:

1. Which different refusal strategies have you found depending on the degree of familiarity that exists between the speakers?
2. Which different refusal strategies have you found depending on the degree of speaker's power over the hearer?
3. Which different refusal strategies have you found depending on the imposition involved in the refusal?
4. Are factors such as age or gender important when selecting a particular refusal strategy?

Adapted from Martinez-Flor and Uso-Juan (2006).

APPENDIX J

A SAMPLE LIST OF REFUSALS GIVEN BY THE NSEs

Direct

3. Performative (e. g., 'I refuse')
4. Nonperformative statement
 - c. 'No'
 - d. Negative willingness/ability ('I can't', 'I don't think so')

Indirect

12. Statement of regret (e. g., 'I'm sorry ...', 'I feel terrible ...')
13. Wish (e. g., 'I wish I could accept your invitation to dinner...')
14. Excuse, reason, explanation (e. g., 'We already have arrangements for the weekend', 'I have made plans for this evening')
15. Statement of alternative
 - c. I can do X instead of Y (e. g., 'I'd rather ...', 'I'd prefer ...')
 - d. Why don't you do X instead of Y (e. g., 'Why don't you ask someone else?')
16. Set conditions for future or past acceptance (e. g., 'If you had asked me earlier, I would have ...')
17. Promise of future acceptance (e. g., 'I'll do it next time', 'I promise I'll ...', or 'Next time I'll ...', using 'will' or 'promise')
18. Statement of principle (e. g., 'I never do business with friends')
19. Statement of philosophy (e. g., 'Accidents may happen')

20. Attempt to dissuade interlocutor

- g. Threat or statement of negative consequences to the requester
(e. g., 'I will just lose that piece of paper')
- h. Criticize the request/requester, etc. (statement of negative feeling or opinion); insult/attack (e. g., 'That is not a good solution!')
- i. Request for help, empathy, and assistance by dropping or holding the request (e.g., 'Please try to understand the economic situation that our company is undergoing now')
- j. Let interlocutor off the hook (e. g., 'Don't worry about it', 'That's okay', 'You don't have to')
- k. Self-defence (e. g., 'I'm trying my best', 'I'm doing all I can do')

21. Acceptance that functions as a refusal

- Lack of enthusiasm (e.g., 'I don't want to eat that little piece.')

22. Avoidance

- Verbal
- f. Topic switch (e.g., 'I'm interest in your special offer if you have any')
- g. Repetition of part of request, etc. (e. g., 'Monday?')
- h. Postponement (e. g., 'I'll think about it', 'I think we can rearrange the dinner at another time')
- i. Hedging (e. g., 'Gee, I don't know', 'I'm not sure', 'I need to think about your offer if it is possible')

Adjuncts to refusals

11. Statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement (e. g., 'That's a good idea...', 'I'd love to ...', 'I'd be delighted to attend the party...')

12. Statement of empathy (e. g., ‘I have noticed that you need a raise in your salary, but...’)
13. Pause fillers (e. g., ‘uhh’, ‘well’, ‘oh’, ‘uhm’)
14. Gratitude/appreciation (e.g., ‘Thank you very much, indeed’, ‘I appreciate you hard work’, ‘Thank you very much for your kind invitation’)
15. Passive negative willingness (e. g., ‘It will be difficult’)
16. Saying I tried/considered (e. g., ‘I have already tried writing notes on papers’)
17. Asking a question (e. g., ‘Is it really effective?’)