



T.C.

**ÇANAKKALE ONSEKİZ MART UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUTE STUDIES**

**DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAMME**

**DEVELOPING A PRAGMATIC INSIGHT INTO THE USE OF
APOLOGY STRATEGIES FOR EFL LEARNERS**

DOCTORAL THESIS

BURCU BÜR YİĞİT

**SUPERVISOR
PROF. DR. DİNÇAY KÖKSAL**

ÇANAKKALE – 2022



T.C.

ÇANAKKALE ONSEKİZ MART UNIVERSITY

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAMME

**DEVELOPING A PRAGMATIC INSIGHT INTO THE USE OF APOLOGY
STRATEGIES FOR EFL LEARNERS**

DOCTORAL THESIS

BURCU BÜR YİĞİT

SUPERVISOR

PROF. DR. DİNÇAY KÖKSAL

ÇANAKKALE – 2022



T.C.
ÇANAKKALE ONSEKİZ MART ÜNİVERSİTESİ
LİSANSÜSTÜ EĞİTİM ENSTİTÜSÜ



Burcu BÜR YİĞİT tarafından Prof. Dr. Dinçay KÖKSAL yönetiminde hazırlanan ve **25/08/2022** tarihinde aşağıdaki jüri karşısında sunulan “**Developing A Pragmatic Insight Into The Use Of Apology Strategies For EFL Learners**” başlıklı çalışma, Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü **İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı**’nda **DOKTORA TEZİ** olarak oy birliği ile kabul edilmiştir.

Jüri Üyeleri

Prof. Dr. Dinçay KÖKSAL

(Danışman)

Prof. Dr. Aysun YAVUZ

Prof. Dr. Bülent GÜVEN

Doç. Dr. Suzan KAVANOZ

Dr. Öğretim Üyesi Burcu ÜNAL

İmza

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Tez No :

Tez Savunma Tarihi : 25/08/2022

.....
İSİM SOYİSMİ

Enstitü Müdürü

.././20..

ETİK BEYAN

Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü Tez Yazım Kuralları'na uygun olarak hazırladığım bu tez çalışmasında; tez içinde sunduğum verileri, bilgileri ve dokümanları akademik ve etik kurallar çerçevesinde elde ettiğimi, tüm bilgi, belge, değerlendirme ve sonuçları bilimsel etik ve ahlak kurallarına uygun olarak sunduğumu, tez çalışmasında yararlandığım eserlerin tümüne uygun atıfta bulunarak kaynak gösterdiğimi, kullanılan verilerde herhangi bir değişiklik yapmadığımı, bu tezde sunduğum çalışmanın özgün olduğunu, bildirir, aksi bir durumda aleyhime doğabilecek tüm hak kayıplarımı kabullendiğimi taahhüt ve beyan ederim.

DECLARATION

In this thesis study, which I prepared in accordance with Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University Graduate Education Institute Thesis Writing Rules, I have obtained the data, information and documents I have presented in the thesis within the framework of academic and ethical rules; I have presented all information, documents, evaluations and results in accordance with scientific ethics and morals; I have cited all the works I used in the thesis by making appropriate references; I have not made any changes in the data used; I declare that the work I have presented in this thesis is original, otherwise I undertake and declare that I accept all the loss of rights that may arise against me.

Burcu BÜR YİĞİT

25/08/2022

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

No success can be achieved alone. It is important to remember that when someone succeeds, there are undoubtedly others who believe and support him. For this reason, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my supervisor Prof. Dr. Dinçay Köksal for his continuous support and encouragement throughout this study. I owe him a great deal for his precious guidance and sincerity and I would like to say that I feel privileged and honored to have been one of his students.

I also would like to express my gratitude to the committee members Prof. Dr. Aysun Yavuz and Prof. Dr. Bülent Güven for their invaluable contributions to my study. Their assistance and guidance helped me a lot in gaining an academic wisdom and perspective.

Last but not the least, I would like to express that I am grateful to all my teachers who have educated and enlightened me on my path to success.

Burcu BÜR YİĞİT
Çanakkale, Ağustos 2022

ÖZET

DEVELOPING A PRAGMATIC INSIGHT INTO THE USE OF APOLOGY STRATEGIES FOR EFL LEARNERS

Burcu BÜR YİĞİT

Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi

Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı Doktora Tezi

Prof. Dr. Dinçay KÖKSAL

25/08/2022, 208

Edimbilim uzun zamandır bilim adamları, dilbilimciler ve arařtırmacıların ilgi odağı olmuřtur. Hedef dilin özgün kullanımındaki öneminin keřfedilmesi ve dil sınıflarında öğretilirliřinin fark edilmesinden sonra, arařtırmacıların odak noktası edimbilimin sınıf ortamlarında nasıl öğretilirliřine kaymıřtır ve dil öğrenenlerin meta-pragmatik farkındalıřının meta-pragmatik öğretim ve buna uygun sınıf içi aktiviteler yoluyla geliştirilebileceđi keřfedilmiřtir. Bu çalıřmada arařtırmacı, Konuřma Eylemi Teorisi aracılıđıyla İngilizce öğrencilerinin mevcut bilgilerini bulmayı, İngilizce öğrenenlerin pragmatik yeterliklerinin meta-pragmatik öğretim yoluyla geliştirilip geliştirilemeyeceđini incelemeyi ve farklı bağlamlarda özür dileme eylemi gerçekteřtirirken onları etkileyen faktörleri ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamıřtır. Arařtırmacı, bir sonuca varmak için katılımcılara Söylem Tamamlama Testi (DCT) uygulamıř ve veri toplamak için yarı yapılandırılmıř görüřmeler yapmıřtır. Söylem Tamamlama Testi ve yarı yapılandırılmıř görüřmelerin sonucunda katılımcıların hali hazırdaki pragmatik bilgilerinin özgün olmadıđı ve kısıtlı olduđu, bununla beraber, meta-pragmatik öğretim yoluyla EFL öğrencilerinin pragmatik yeterliklerinin artırılabilirliđi bulunmuřtur. Son olarak, öğrencilerin farklı bağlamlarda özür dileme stratejilerini kullanırken çeřitli faktörlerden etkilendikleri de ortaya konulmuřtur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Edimbilim, Pragmatik yeterlik, Meta-pragmatik öğretim, Konuřma Eylemi Teorisi, Özür, Özür Stratejileri

ABSTRACT

DEVELOPING A PRAGMATIC INSIGHT INTO THE USE OF APOLOGY STRATEGIES FOR EFL LEARNERS

Burcu BÜR YİĞİT

ÇanakkaleOnsekiz Mart University

School of Graduate Studies

Doctoral Dissertation in English Language Teaching

Prof. Dr. Dinçay KÖKSAL

25/08/2022, 208

Pragmatics is, for so long, the focus of attention for scholars, linguists and researchers. After the exploration of its importance in authentic use of target language and realization of its teachability in language classrooms, the focus has shifted to how to teach pragmatics in classroom settings and it has been discovered that meta-pragmatic awareness of language learners can be developed through meta-pragmatic instructions and relevant classroom activities. In this study, the researcher aimed to find out the current knowledge of EFL students through Speech Act Theory, examine whether the pragmatic competences of EFL learners can be developed through meta-pragmatic instruction and uncover the factors which affect them while expressing apologies in different contexts. In order to gather data and reach a conclusion, a Discourse Completion Test (DCT) was employed to the participants and semi-structured interviews were conducted. The results of the DCT and analysis of semi-structured interviews indicated that, the current knowledge of participants are very limited and unauthentic; on the other hand, it was found that learners' pragmatic competences can be enhanced through meta-pragmatic instruction. Lastly, it was revealed that learners have been affected by various factors while they were expressing apologies in different contexts.

Keywords: Pragmatics, Pragmatic competence, Meta-pragmatic instruction, Speech Acts, Apology, Apology Strategies

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page Number
JÜRİ ONAY SAYFASI	i
ETİK BEYAN	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iii
ÖZET	iv
ABSTRACT	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
ABBREVIATIONS	x
LIST OF TABLES	xi
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv
CHAPTER ONE	
INTRODUCTION	
1.1. Theoretical Framework.....	1
1.2.The Aim of The Study	4
1.3. Significance of the Study.....	5
1.4. Terminology	6
CHAPTER TWO	
LITERATURE REVIEW	
2.1. Pragmatics	8
2.1.1. Pragmatic Competence	10
2.1.2. Interlanguage Pragmatics	11
2.1.3. Pragmatic Transfer	12
2.2. Speech Acts	14
2.2.1. Locutionary, Illocutionary and Perlocutionary Acts	14
2.2.2.Felicity Conditions	17

	Page Number
2.2.3. The Performative Hypothesis	20
2.2.4. Speech Act History	22
2.2.5. Speech Act Classification	24
2.2.6. Direct and Indirect Acts	27
2.2.7. Speech Events	29
2.2.8. Politeness and Interaction	29
2.2.9. Politeness Theory by Brown and Levinson	30
2.3. Apology Strategies and Speech Acts	33
2.3.1. Direct Apologies	34
2.3.2. Indirect Apologies	34
2.4. Teaching Pragmatics	36
2.4.1. Meta-pragmatic Instruction	38
CHAPTER THREE	
METHODOLOGY	
3.1. Research Aim and Questions	40
3.2. Research Design and Rationale of the Study	43
3.3. Setting and Participants	50
3.4. Data Collection and Instruments	56
3.4.1. Discourse Completion Test (DCT)	59
3.4.2. Semi-Structured Interviews (SSI)	67
3.5. Data Analysis	68
CHAPTER FOUR	
FINDINGS	
4.1. Discourse Completion Test	79
4.2. Results of Pre-Test Implementation	79
4.2.1. Pre-Test Results of Situation 1	79

	Page Number
4.2.2. Pre-Test Results of Situation 2	82
4.2.3. Pre-Test Results of Situation 3	85
4.2.4. Pre-Test Results of Situation 4	87
4.2.5. Pre-Test Results of Situation 5	90
4.2.6. Pre-Test Results of Situation 6	93
4.2.7. The Pre-Test Results of Situation 7	96
4.2.8. Pre-Test Results of Situation 8	98
4.2.9. Pre-Test Results of Situation 9	101
4.2.10. Pre-Test Results of Situation 10	104
4.2.11. Pre-Test Results of Situation 11	107
4.2.12. Pre-Test Results of Situation 12	109
4.2.13. Pre-Test Results of Situation 13	111
4.2.14. The Pre-Test Results of Situation 14.....	114
4.2.15. Overall Results of Pre-Test	117
4.3. Results of Post-Test Implementation.....	118
4.3.1. Post-Test Results of Situation 1	118
4.3.2. Post-Test Results of Situation 2	120
4.3.3. Post-Test Results of Situation 3	122
4.3.4. Post-Test Results of Situation 4	125
4.3.5. Post-Test Results of Situation 5	128
4.3.6. Post-Test Results of Situation 6	132
4.3.7. Post-Test Results of Situation 7	135
4.3.8. Post-Test Results of Situation 8	138
4.3.9. Post-Test Results of Situation 9	141
4.3.10. Post-Test Results of Situation 10	144
4.3.11. Post-Test Results of Situation 11	147

	Page Number
4.3.12. Post-Test Results of Situation 12	150
4.3.13. Post-Test Results for Situation 13	153
4.3.14. Post-Test Results for Situation 14	157
4.3.15. Overall Results of Post-test Implementation.....	160
4.4. Semi-Structured Interviews	161
CHAPTER V	
DISCUSSION	
5.1. Discussion for research question 1- The frequently-used apology strategies	179
5.2. Discussion for research question 2- Can pragmatic competence be developed?	182
5.3. Discussion for research question 3- Effective factors for EFL learners' apologies	184
CHAPTER VI	
CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS	
Conclusions	191
Implications	194
Limitations and Suggestions for Future Researches	196
REFERENCES	198
APPENDICES	I
APPENDIX I DISCOURSE COMPLETION TEST (DCT).....	I
APPENDIX II UTILIZATION PERMIT OF THE DCT FROM ASST. PROF. DR. RIDVAN TUNÇEL	IV
APPENDIX III PERMISSION FROM ÇANAKKALE ONSEKİZ MART UNIVERSITY	V
APPENDIX IV PERMISSION FROM HITIT UNIVERSITY.....	VI
ÖZGEÇMİŞ.....	VII

ABBREVIATIONS

DCT	Discourse Completion Test
EFL	English as Foreign Language
IQ	Interview Question
I1	Interviewee 1
I2	Interviewee 2
P1	Participant 1
P2	Participant 2
RQ	Research Question
SSI	Semi-Structured Interviews

LIST OF TABLES

Table No	Title	Page Number
Table 1	The five general functions of speech acts	27
Table 2	How to make a direct speech with different forms	28
Table 3	How to make an indirect speech with different forms	28
Table 4	The classification of apology strategies	36
Table 5	Quantitative, mixed and qualitative methods	45
Table 6	Departments of the participants	51
Table 7	Gender of the participants	51
Table 8	Nationalities of the participants	52
Table 9	Overseas experience of the participants	52
Table 10	Nature of QUAN, QUAL and mixed methodologies	57
Table 11	Paradigms, methods and tools	58
Table 12	Reliability of discourse completion test	60
Table 13	Anova test results	61
Table 14	Hotelling's T squared test results	61
Table 15	The results of intraclass correlation tests	62
Table 16	The taxonomy of apology speech acts	71
Table 17	Sample coding schema	76
Table 18	The frequencies of situation 1	80
Table 19	The frequencies of situation 2	82
Table 20	The frequencies of situation 3	85
Table 21	The frequencies of situation 4	88
Table 22	The frequencies of situation 5	91
Table 23	The frequencies of situation 6	94
Table 24	The frequencies of situation 7	96

Table No	Title	Page Number
Table 25	The frequencies of situation 8	99
Table26	The frequencies of situation 9	102
Table27	The frequencies of situation 10	104
Table28	The frequencies of situation 11	107
Table 29	The frequencies of situation 12	109
Table30	The frequencies of situation 13	112
Table 31	The frequencies of situation 14	115
Table32	The overall frequencies of pre-test results	117
Table33	Post-test frequencies of situation 1	118
Table 34	Post-test frequencies of situation 2	121
Table 35	Post-test frequencies of situation 3	123
Table 36	Post-test frequencies of situation 4	125
Table 37	Post-test frequencies of situation 5	129
Table38	Post-test frequencies of situation 6	132
Table 39	Post-test frequencies of situation 7	135
Table40	Post-test frequencies of situation 8	138
Table41	Post-test frequencies of situation 9	141
Table42	Post-test Frequencies of Situation 10	144
Table43	Post-test frequencies of situation 11	147
Table44	Post-test frequencies of situation 12	150
Table45	Post-test frequencies of situation 13	154
Table46	Post-test frequencies of situation 14	157
Table47	The overall frequencies of post-test results	160
Table48	Departments of the interviewees	162
Table49	Gender of the interviewees	162
Table50	Date and duration of interviews	163

Table No	Title	Page Number
Table51	IQ 1: Main themes identified in interview question 1	165
Table 52	The effect of age	169
Table53	The effect of gender	171
Table 54	The effect of social status	173
Table55	The effect of relationship type	175



LIST OF FIGURES

Figure No	Title	Page Number
Figure1	The relationship of the forces (n.d.)	17
Figure2	Possible strategies for performing FTA's	32
Figure3	Convergent parallel mixed methods	47
Figure4	Explanatory sequential mixed method design	48
Figure5	Exploratory sequential mixed method design	49
Figure6	Types of probability sampling	53
Figure7	Types of non-probability sampling	54
Figure8	Data analysis as a linear process	69
Figure9	Data analysis as a cyclical process	70

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Throughout the world, especially in the last decades, the growing use of English language cannot be ignored. English language, which is overwhelmingly widespread in international settings, is considered as a Lingua Franca. Katzner states that English language is the language choice of international organizations, companies as well as academic authorities (2002: 39). Philipson (1992) also suggests that domains of internet, international mass media and world of entertainment use English language commonly and promotes its widespread use. The reason that English language is assumed as the language of technology and science makes it desirable to learn. However, not only learning the grammatical structures of a language but also having the knack of its pragmatic aspects is of significant importance to the linguists. Selecting the most appropriate grammatical structure for a situation is also crucial for a good communication. It can be understood that not only having the knowledge of grammar, but when and how to use a grammatical structure is a part of language learning. Despite this fact and long linguistic backgrounds, many language learners fail to use the language effectively in natural settings. The students can deliver a speech in front of an audience, or prepare an academic paper for an international congress, however they may still fail to explain their regrets for not attending to a dinner out with friends.

1.1. Theoretical Framework

For so long, the language philosophers and scholars believed that language is a system combined with words and structures and, thus, the relationship of semantics and syntax. They defended that if the correct vocabulary combines with the correct grammatical form, the speakers will be included in a good communication. However, only a few decades ago, with the introduction of Communicative competence by Hymes (1972), and Austin's (1962) and Searle's (1969) contributions, the language scholars have come to understand that there should be one more aspect of language learning: pragmatics.

Pragmatics, simply, is the study of speaker meaning in context (Demirezen, 2003). It considers not only the word meanings and syntax of the sentences, but also focuses on what the speaker implies with the utterance. According to Crystal, pragmatics is "the study

of language from the point of view of the users, especially of 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” (1997:301). Mey (1993) also asserts that pragmatics is much to do with the point of view of users. What speakers want to say rather than what they say and how it influences the addressee are the main considerations of pragmatics.

Pragmatic competence, which is relatively a new topic of discussion in language teaching, refers to the ability to use language effectively in social context. For the modern language philosophers, language is for communication, therefore, they focus on the context in which social interaction occurs. The examination of context gives more clues on what speaker want to say and how the hearer is influenced from the communication. Pragmatic competence, as an aspect of communicational competence, covers both the syntax and the social context to develop an interaction. Many language scholars (Thomas, 1983; Leech, 1983) suggest that linguistic competence comprises two aspects: grammar and pragmatics. Grammatical competence takes such aspects as intonation, phonology, syntax and semantics into consideration, whereas, pragmatics aims to study the ability to use language in social context or in interaction. Pragmatic competence embraces interlanguage pragmatics.

Interlanguage is, first, the mental system of language learner that draws from both the native language and the target language, however, different from both of the languages. “A learner’s interlanguage is, therefore, a unique linguistic system” (Ellis, 1997: 33). This mental system of the learners focuses on the comprehension of the target language. This comprehension includes the grammatical forms and structures, and the pragmatic aspect of the language which can be referred as interlanguage pragmatics. Interlanguage pragmatics is the study of how non-native learners comprehend the target language; how they produce actions in the target language and how the target language is acquired (Ellis, 1997; Kasper and Dahl, 1991; Kasper and Rose, 2003; Felix-Brasdefer; 2012, Zingir-Gülten, 2008). Interlanguage pragmatics focuses on the sociocultural functions of the target language and touches upon contextual issues. Learners’ innate knowledge of target language and their pragmatic knowledge combine to produce appropriate language. This produced language in the target language often draws from the native language which is called pragmatic transfer.

Learners often have the tendency to produce linguistic actions in the way they are used in their native languages and this is called pragmatic transfer. Pragmatic transfer is the influence of previous pragmatic knowledge on the use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge. Kasper defines the term as “pragmatic transfer in interlanguage pragmatics shall refer to the influence exerted by learners’ pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension, production and learning of L2 pragmatic information” (1992: 207). According to Olshtain and Cohen (1989), pragmatic transfer is how learners incorporate the elements in their native languages to target language production. Among these element, the language scholars mention that the pragmatic transfer of native language, especially the transfer of sociolcultural elements, can cause cross-cultural communication break-downs (Beebe and Takahashi, 1989).The transfer of pragmatic elements in the native language can lead to failures in the target language. These are called as pragmatic failures. Thomas defines pragmatic failures as “inability to understand what is meant by what is said” (1983: 91). Besides, having the knowledge of syntax and vocabulary, learners should also have the knowledge of pragmatics, otherwise, they will fail in social interaction.

By the recognition of communicative competence, educators, as well as scholars have come to realize that successful communication in a target language requires not only the knowledge of grammar and vocabulary but also pragmatic competence and knowledge about the culture of the target language (Özdemir and Rezvani, 2010). As Cheng mentioned, understanding and production of speech acts and their appropriateness in a given situation is an important aspect of pragmatic competence (2005: 9). The importance of pragmatic competence can be explained within a language situation: for example in Japan saying, “I’m sorry” might be enough of an apology in many situations, whereas in other cultures such as that of Jordan, an explanation for the offense might be required (Bataineh and Bataineh, 2008, cited in Aydin, 2013: 2). In this sense, pragmatic competence is related to Speech Act Theory, defined by Austin (1962) first. Speech Act Theory aims to explain language exchanges in terms of their effects on both listener and the speaker. In this theory, speech acts are categorized into five main domains considering how listeners and speakers perceive the communication (Celce- Murcia and Olshtain, 2007), and the domains are assertives, directives, commissives, expressives and declarations. Since the expression of apology is one of the most frequently used speech

acts which is placed under the category of expressives, it is crucial to understand the importance of apology and how it functions for a good flow of communication. Cohen & Olshtain (1983) explains apologies as a speech act occurring between two participants in which one of the participants expects or perceives oneself deserving a compensation or explanation because of an offense committed by the other. Marquez-Reiter defines apology as “compensatory action for an offense committed by the speaker which has affected the hearer” (2000: 44). According to the classification of Cohen and Olshtain (1983), the apologies can be classified as direct or indirect, considering the way they are expressed. Direct apologies include performative verbs such as “be sorry”, “apologize” or “excuse”. These apologies include direct utterances of regret and apology, however, in indirect apologies there are various ways to express an apology. Cohen and Olshtain categorized the indirect apologies as follows: providing an explanation, an acknowledgement of responsibility, an offer to repair, and a promise of forbearance. Claiming an explanation for being late to meeting could be a strategy to apologize in an indirect way. Or asking for help to a passenger hit by another can be considered as an indirect apology. In some cases, more than one apology strategies can be used together, these can include combinations of direct and indirect apologies or two indirect opportunities.

1.2. The Aim of The Study

Learning a language includes both learning the grammatical structures and the vocabulary and using it properly in different contexts. People need to use different structures in different communicational settings, for example, students select different words and structures, even different intonations while expressing apologies to a friend and to a professor at university. Therefore, developing a pragmatic understanding, within the frames of sociolinguistics, is of significant importance. This dissertation will be conducted to find out whether meta-pragmatic instruction is useful to develop a pragmatic competence for EFL learners and to investigate which factors they take into consideration when they apply their pragmatic skills in a natural setting.

The aim of this study is threefold:

- 1) To identify the commonly used apology strategies preferred by EFL students,
- 2) To find out whether the pragmatic competences of EFL students can be developed using meta-pragmatic instruction,

- 3) To uncover the factors which affect EFL students while they are apologizing in a natural context.

1.3. Significance of the Study

Pragmatics, in sociolinguistics, is a quite new subject among Turkish ELT and EFL authorities; therefore, the number of the studies concerning pragmatics or evaluating students' pragmatic abilities or trying to enhance learners' pragmatic competences is quite limited. One of the previous studies is Hurzhanat Ametbek's master's dissertation titled "A Cross-Cultural Study of American, Turkish and Kazakh EFL Students' Use of English Speech Acts: Apology, Request and Complaint". In this study, Ametbek applied "The Speech Act Measure" developed by Cohen and Olshtain in 1993. This measure consists of 6 situations to which participants are asked to respond: 2 apologies, 2 complaints and 2 requests. Ametbek also conducted interviews with the participants and analyzed the data according to Murph and Neu's (1996) conceptual framework to analyze the complaints and used the coding manual developed by Kulka et al. (1989) to analyze the apologies and requests. Another study on pragmatics was conducted by Sevgi Şahin as a Master's dissertation in 2011. In her study, Şahin conducted a similar study on refusals with Turkish EFL students. In her study, she developed a DCT including 12 situations to which the participants are asked to respond using refusal speech acts. Şahin analyzed the gathered data using an adapted version of Beebe's taxonomy (1990). Mehmet Asmalı, as a requirement of his Master's studies, also conducted a study on refusal strategies in 2012. Turkish, Polish and Latvian prospective English language teachers participated in his study. Asmalı developed his own DCT with 10 items- 7 created by the researcher and 3 borrowed from another study. He used an apology strategies coding schema developed by Hudson, Detmer and Brown in 1995 to analyze the apologies; and used a refusal strategies coding schema developed by Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weeltz (1990) to analyze the refusals.

Özmen (2016), in her study, divided the learners into two groups and gathered data. In the first group, she used a VEDCT (video enhanced discourse completion task) and in the second group she applied a DCT (discourse completion task) with the same content. She, then, analyzed the data according to Cohen and Olshtein's (1983) taxonomy of apology strategies. She also recalculated the findings according to social distance, social

status and apology severe of offence. She found out that the learners employed the explicit (direct) expression of apology in both of the groups. Özmen also determined in her study that the learners used inappropriate (less polite and more direct) apology utterances in the contexts of high status. She put forth that the results of the study is an evident showing the lack of pragma linguistic knowledge of EFL learners.

Canbolat, in his study (2022), followed a methodology including pre-test and post-test processes. He conducted his study with 55 EFL learners; assigned them into experimental and control groups for intervention. The experimental group involved in teacher explanation, oral-discussion and authentic language materials while the control group received comprehension-based practices. He implemented a MDCT (multiple-choice discourse completion test) as pre-test and post-test measures. He analyzed the data according to apology speech act taxonomy of Cohen and Olshtain (1983) and framework of Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984). He found out that the range of apology strategies used by the learners differed as a result of the treatment, however, no significance difference in terms of the types of intsurction observed.

As the literature indicates, most of the studies addressing pragmatics and, more specifically apology strategies, were set to measure the existing pragmatic knowledge of the EFL learners. Few number of studies propose processes to enhance learners' pragmatic knowledge. This present study is aimed to enhance learners' pragmatic knowledge through meta-pragmatic instruction in a language class. Therewithal, it was aimed to find out the existing pragmatic knowledge of the learners and factors affecting them in the selection of apology strategy in their responses. From this perspective, the present study can be claimed to have a significant standpoint.

1.4. Terminology

The following is a list of the key terms that the reader will come across throughout this paper:

Pragmatics: the study of meaning in interaction or meaning in context, exploring how linguistic utterances could be interpreted differently as a result of different contextual forces and communicative goals” (Yule, 2003: 3).

Pragmatic Competence: the ability to use language effectively in order to achieve a specific purpose and to understand the language in context (Thomas, 1983: 92)

Meta-pragmatic instruction: knowledge of the social meaning of variable second language forms and awareness of the ways in which these forms mark different aspects of social contexts (Kingtoner and Farrell, 2004: 2)

Interlanguage: study of non-native speakers' use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge (Kasper, 1996: 145).

Speech act: an utterance with a purpose in a communication.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, an examination of literature review will be given place in detail which addresses to the background of the present study.

2.1. Pragmatics

In the study of language, for a long period of time, there has been an interest into the formulization of languages which puts the focus on structures and meanings of words. Scholars once believed that linguistic competence consists of two components which are syntax and vocabulary and they had tendencies to explain language learning with formal systems mainly derived from mathematics and logic. The emphasis was on the underlying principles of language learning process. However, more recently, the scholars have come to understand that language is not solely words and structures, but it is also “concerned with the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by a listener (or reader)” (Yule, 1996: 3). Especially, with the introduction of communicative competence by Hymes (1972), pragmatic competence, which is a central component, became the subject of discussion by authorities. It did not take so long that they realized the importance pragmatic competence. For a meaningful communication, interlocutors needed more than grammar and vocabulary. It, actually, had more to do with “the analysis of what people mean by their utterances than what the words or phrases in those utterances might mean by themselves” (Yule, 1996: 3). It is evident that the field of pragmatics, as stated by Childs (2005: 15) began “in reaction to the definition of linguistic competence as consisting of mastery of syntax and vocabulary. He defended the idea that creating a meaning in a communication need more than words and meaning, where the pragmatics come to stage.

Pragmatics is the study of what speaker means; or implies with the utterances. Demirezen defines the term as “the study of the meaning of language utterances with respect to their context” (1991: 281). Yule asserts “Pragmatics refers to the study of meaning in interaction or meaning in context, exploring how linguistic utterances could be interpreted differently as a result of different contextual forces and communicative goals” (2003: 3). Crystal proposes that pragmatics is “the study of language from the point of

view of the users, especially of 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” (1997: 301). Similarly, Mey claims that “pragmatics is the science of knowledge seen in relation to its users” (1993: 5). In short, pragmatics is the study of language which focuses on the meaning in a social context.

Yule (1996) suggests that pragmatics is concerned with four main areas. Firstly, it can be stated that the fundamental component of pragmatics is *social context*. Pragmatics deals with what the speaker means in a particular context and how it is interpreted by the speaker. The speakers should consider about not only the words to be uttered, but the audience addressed. Besides, speakers should take the way they speak, where, when and under which circumstances they talk to into consideration.

Secondly, as mentioned, pragmatics considers the *invisible meaning* rather than the word meaning. In this area of language, what is meant by the speaker is more important than what is said since, in a communication event, more than what is said can be inferred by the listener. Therefore, pragmatics proposes that inferences and invisible meanings can produce more than what is directly communicated.

Pragmatics, thirdly, is the study of *relative distance*. While communicating in a social context speakers determine how and how much they need to say. The interaction between the speaker and the addressee gives clues of closeness, whether it is social or physical. The shared experience between the sides can be inferred from the distance in their interaction. Therefore, the intonation and the word choice of the speaker in a communication are of significant importance considering pragmatics.

Last but not the least, pragmatics is considered with the *speaker meaning*. Rather than what the words or phrases in the delivered utterances mean, what the speaker wants to say is important. A word can be used deliberately in a way to mean something else. The intonation can be given a deliberate change, a word may be stressed for a conscious reason. Hence, along with the listener’s inferences, the intention of the speaker is a study area of pragmatics.

Briefly, pragmatics considers more of word meaning by taking the social context where the interaction takes place, the intended meaning beyond the words uttered, the

distance between the speaker and listener and the aim of the speaker while communicating. The analysis of these areas lets the researcher get more than offered in a communicational setting.

2.1.1. Pragmatic Competence

Pragmatic competence is the ability to use the language appropriately in social context. Pragmatic competence is the fundamental aspect of communicative competence which was proposed by Hymes in 1972. The term *pragmatic competence* was first introduced by Jenny Thomas in 1983 and she defined it as “the ability to use language effectively in order to achieve a specific purpose and to understand the language in context” (Thomas, 1983: 92). Barron further explains “Pragmatic competence... is understood as the knowledge of the linguistic resources available in a given language for realizing particular illocutions, knowledge of the sequential aspects of speech acts, and finally, knowledge of the appropriate contextual use of the particular language's linguistic resources” (Barron, 1984: 10). The concept covers both the linguistic and the contextual aspect of the language and draws attention to use. Thomas further explains

“A speaker's 'linguistic competence' would be made up of grammatical competence ('abstract' or decontextualized knowledge of intonation, phonology, syntax, semantics, etc.) and pragmatic competence (the ability to use language effectively in order to achieve a specific purpose and to understand language in context). This parallels Leech's (1983) division of linguistics into 'grammar' (by which he means the decontextualized formal system of language) and 'pragmatics' (the use of language in a goal-oriented speech situation in which S (the speaker) is using language in order to produce a particular effect in the mind of the H (the hearer)” (1983: 92).

Essentially, pragmatic competence in a language refers to the interpretation of the words and meanings and the analysis of intentions and implications expressed by those words. In a social context, a sound communication is built upon not only words and structures, but the word preferences, intonations, social closeness and some other cultural elements. The recognition of these elements leads speakers to meaningful communication, thus, to *pragmatic competence*.

2.1.2. Interlanguage Pragmatics

The term *interlanguage* first coined by Larry Selinker in 1972. The term interlanguage refers to the unique mental system of L2 learning and comprehension. “L2 learners construct a linguistic system that draws, in part, on the learner’s L1 but is also different from it and also from the target language. A learner’s interlanguage is, therefore, a unique linguistic system” (Ellis, 1997: 33). In this definition, the focus is on how learners learn and comprehend the target language. Kasper also defines as “Interlanguage is the study of non-native speakers’ use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge” (Kasper, 1996: 145). Interlanguage is the innate linguistic systems of language learners in which they borrow from both the native and target languages and develop their own grammatical rules and standpoints. This system is 1) permeable, which means it is open to outer influences via inputs; 2) transitional which means learners can change the grammatical rules by adding and deleting rules; they can improve their systems or change it completely (Ellis, 1997: 33-34).

The history of Interlanguage Pragmatics dates back to late 1970’s and early 1980’s. Earlier, the interlanguage is thought to be a grammar system study. Therefore, the study of interlanguage was limited from the study of speech phonemes, lexical, syntactic or semantic and like. However, in early 1980’s, scholars noticed the importance of the involvement of *context*. Therefore, the scholars came up with the idea of combining the pragmatic research and interlanguage study and they produced *interlanguage pragmatics*.

Kasper defines Interlanguage Pragmatics 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” (1992: 203). Kasper and Dahl claims “ILP will be defined in a narrow sense, referring to nonnative speakers’ (NNSs’) comprehension and production of speech acts, and how their L2-related speech act knowledge is acquired” (1991: 216). Kasper and Rose (2003) proposed another definition as “ILP is a branch of study examining how non-native speakers comprehend the target language, focusing on how L2 learners understand and produce actions in L2”. More recently, Felix-Brasdefer stated that “Interlanguage pragmatics (ILP), or second language (L2) pragmatics, is the study of how learners, whether adults or children, acquire the ability to produce and understand communicative action in an L2” (2012, p.1). Taguchi

mentions that ILP focuses on second language learners' knowledge, use and development in performing sociocultural functions (Taguchi, 2017). It is clear in the definitions that recently scholars adopted an approach combining comprehension, production and context. Since our way of speaking is determined by context- to whom we are talking and under what circumstances, learners need to know which forms are appropriate to use in what situations (Taguchi, 2017: 1). That is, "ILP refers to non-native speakers' comprehension and production of pragmatics and how that language is acquired" (Zingir-Gülten, 2008: 1). The process of learning linguistic knowledge and context and the appropriate use of these components lead learner to interlanguage pragmatics.

2.1.3. Pragmatic Transfer

Pragmatic transfer, which is an interdisciplinary empirical research, has two fundamental components: SLA research and pragmatic theory. For pragmatic transfer, one should have both the knowledge of research and methodology in SLA and the knowledge of pragmatic theory. In the study of interlanguage pragmatics, pragmatic transfer is still a milestone in the critical and unavoidable convergence of these two disciplines.

Scholars proposed a variety of definitions for pragmatic transfer. Kasper (1992) considers that pragmatic transfer in interlanguage implies the influence of previous pragmatic knowledge on the use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge. He states "pragmatic transfer in interlanguage pragmatics shall refer to the influence exerted by learners' pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension, production and learning of L2 pragmatic information" (1992: 207). Olshtain and Cohen (1989) claims that pragmatic transfer refers to how learners incorporate the elements in their L1 to L2 production. Some other scholars mention the importance of pragmatic transfer in cross-cultural communication break-downs (Beebe and Takahashi, 1989; Uliss-Weltz, 1990). In a broad sense, pragmatic transfer can be defined as the influence of learners' native language and cultural elements on their L2 learning. This influence often causes pragmatic failures. Thomas refers to pragmatic failures as "inability to understand what is meant by what is said" (1983: 91). Pragmatic failures are divided into two categories: pragma-linguistic failures and socio-pragmatic failures. In pragma-linguistic failures, it is considered that pragma-linguistic failures result from inappropriate use of linguistic forms. Mostly, they are caused by insufficient knowledge of linguistic

forms and grammatical structures. These kind of failures can easily be taught in the class and the problem can be solved. However, socio-pragmatic failures are more challenging since they result from socially inappropriate behaviors (Zıngır-Gülten, 2008: 2). Socio-pragmatic failures are not as easy as pragma-linguistic failures to overcome because they are caused by lack of knowledge of system of beliefs and cultural elements. In order to overcome the problem, the students need to recognize the system of habits and beliefs of the target culture and find out the appropriate behavior pattern. Thomas also mentions that “pragma-linguistic failure is basically a linguistic problem caused by differences in the linguistic encoding of pragmatic force, and socio-pragmatic failure is the result of cross-culturally different perceptions of what constitutes appropriate linguistic behavior (1983: 89).

According to Thomas (1983), there are two sources for pragma-linguistic failures: teaching induced errors and pragma-linguistic transfer. Teaching induced errors are the ones that stem from classroom situation, not from students’ competences or L1 influences. “These errors can easily be caused by the structure of a classroom situation, for instance, by the way a teacher gives definitions, explanations or arranges practice opportunities” (Stenson, 1983: 256-262). In this sense, Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) point to the importance of *availability of input*. In EFL and SLA contexts, most of the time, classroom settings promote none or little development of pragmatic competence. Even in language practices, students come across with little or no material which will develop their pragmatic properties. Besides, coursebooks also provide limited material promoting pragmatic competence. They do not offer natural, pragmatically appropriate and conversational models for learners (Boxer and Pickering, 1995; Bardovi-Harlig, Hartford, Mahan-Taylor, Morgan and Reynolds, 1991). Students lack in the use of L2 in natural a setting such as while ordering a meal, giving directions, talking to a professor at a university context. Neither the classroom settings nor the coursebooks do not address the pragmatic issues like social distance between the speaker and the addressee; therefore, most of the time, students keep silent, creating certain formulae, or transferring from the first language (Dogançay-Aktuna and Kamışlı, 1997; Otçu and Zeyrek, 2008).

The second source of pragmatic failure, which is pragma-linguistic errors stem from inappropriate transfer of speech acts from native language to L2. The differences between the native and target languages result in pragma-linguistic errors. When learners

are exposed to little or no pragmatic materials, they fail in having appropriate behaviors in target settings and culture. Similarly, taboos and size of imposition may change from one culture to another, causing failure on part of the foreign language learner (Zingir-Gülten, 2008). These pragmatic difficulties cause students to not to build up communicative actions.

2.2. Speech Acts

2.2.1. Locutionary, Illocutionary and Perlocutionary Acts

How languages represent the world or how human world is represented in languages have been a major interest for language philosophers. Many of them are convinced that understanding this truth will be helpful in understanding the nature of the world and they were never timid to express their thoughts as, at the beginning of his work *How to Do Things with Words*, Austin expresses and complains about the common philosophical pretense that “the business of a (sentence) can only be to “describe” some state of affairs, or to “state some facts”, which it must do either truly or falsely” (1962: 1). He complains that sentences should not only be used to make statements because there are other situations in which a sentence could be incorrect or "infelicitous" rather than accurate. Austin observed that sentences are believed to play the role of fact-stating, however, they can have many different uses as well (Bach, 2003). Accordingly, Wittgenstein asserted that “the meaning of a word is its use in language” (1953: 20). Here, Wittgenstein mentioned that what makes a word meaningful is the context it is used in. Words and sentences cannot be thought separate from the context, otherwise they will be meaningless.

“The theory of speech acts aims to do justice to the fact that even though words (phrases, sentences) encode information, people do more things with words than convey information, and that when people do convey information, they often convey more than their words encode” (Bach, 2003:2). Bach mentions in here that words carry more than what they are semantically assigned. As people express themselves or carry on a communicative action, they do not only produce utterances containing relevant grammatical forms and vocabulary, they also perform actions. They perform these actions via utterances. For example, in a situation in which a boss is uttering (1) it is not only a statement, it can also be used to perform to end the employment of the worker. These actions performed by these utterances are called *speech acts*.

(1) “*You’re fired!*”,

According to Austin, a speech act is comprised of a *locutionary act* which is the basic of utterance; the production of a meaningful linguistic expression. Nuccetelli and Seay(2007) claim that locutionary acts are the production of some linguistic sounds and marks with a meaning and reference. Therefore, it is clear that putting the sounds and words together to create a message is an illocutionary act. Only if one has a speech problem or the language is unfamiliar, s/he will be unable to produce a locutionary act. Say, uttering (2) is not a meaningful locutionary act in English since the language is not familiar, however, (3) will be meaningful.

(2) “*Odayı temizledim.*”

(3) “*I cleaned the room.*”

People generally utter a sentence for a purpose; they generally have functions in mind while uttering a sentence (Yule, 2000: 48). This means, every sentence people utter is a result of an intention. This is called *illocutionary force*. “An illocutionary act is performed via the communicative force of an utterance (Yule, 2000: 48). These intentions include offers, an explanation, an apology, a prediction, an expression of thanks or some other communicative purposes. Illocutionary acts express a certain attitude or carry a certain illocutionary force in the sentence. Sentences (4) and (5) below are examples of illocutionary act.

(4) *It will rain.*

(5) *What about going out tonight?*

Illocutionary force is what is most discussed among all three dimensions. To make it explicit, the following example will be useful. The illocutionary force of an utterance is what the listener “counts as”. (Yule, 2000). The below example from Yule (2000, p. 49) explains it well:

(6) a. *I’ll see you later. (= A)*

b. *(I predict that) A.*

c. (*I promise that*) A.

d. (*I warn you that*) A.

Depending on the situation, as the example indicates, when the speaker utters statement A, the listener can infer different meanings. Same utterance have the potential to mean quite different, sometimes contradictory illocutionary forces. Here, together with the context, Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices (IFIDs) and felicity conditions has crucial roles to reveal the actual intention of the speaker.

Perlocutionary acts, one the other hand, have some consequences and the audience. When uttering a perlocutionary act, speaker assumes that the listener will recognize the effect intended (for example, to account for a wonderful smell or to get the hearer to drink some coffee) (Yule, 2000). This is also called as *perlocutionary effect*. Green defines perlocutionary acts as “characteristic effects of illocutions (2016: 2). He claims that when the speaker utters an illocutionary act, he can achieve one or more of its characteristics effects. For example, by warning a driver about the danger ahead, the speaker may dissuade him about not to drive that direction and prevent an accident.

In what follows, it should be mentioned that some scholars prefers using the terms *speech act, illocution and illocutionary force* used synonymously. Green (2016), for instance, used these terms as synonyms in his work. Plus, he states that not every utterance has to perform a speech act (Green, 2016: 2). Based on this, it is possible to assert that not every single locutionary acts perform a speech act. Speech acts should not be confused with act of speech, or even with utterances. The example below indicates this discrimination definitively. The given example indicates that an act of speech is not necessarily a speech act:

“... ‘Alas, poor Yorick! I knew him, Horatio,’ says the actor as she practices for her part in the play, but she is not asserting or otherwise illocuting that she ever knew any person named ‘Yorick’. (Green, 2016, p. 2).

Searle (1969) proposes that in speech acts force and content are two important dimensions. The communicative act is promoted by the force and shaped by the content. For example in the example (7) below, the utterance may be a response to an assertion or

may be a sheer guess or conjecture. In one situation, another speaker may direct the question “How do you know?” possibly; however, in the other situation, it would be pointless to direct such question.

(7) *It will be sunny today.*

The figure below better shows the relationship between these terms:

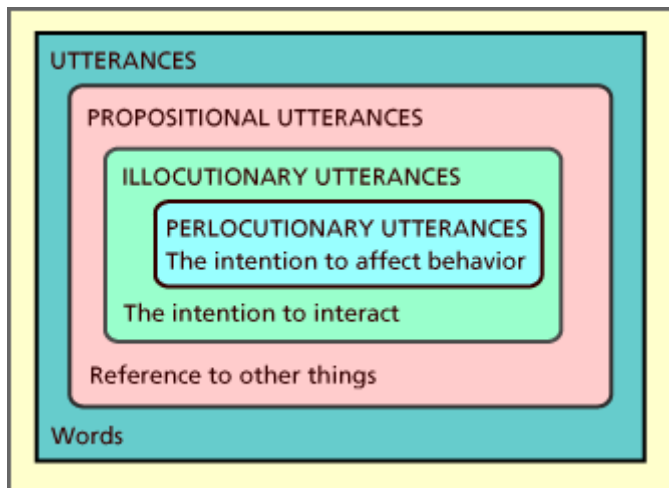


Figure 1. The relationship of the forces (n.d.)

2.2.2. Felicity Conditions

The term felicity conditions refer to the circumstances and the criteria that must be satisfied for a speech act to accomplish its purpose. Being grammatically correct does not mean that the sentence is felicitous; there are expected conditions that a speech act meet in order to be recognized as intended. See the example (8) below:

(1) *I pronounce you man and wife!*

In the utterance (8), there should necessarily be a groom and a bride, and a registrar. Otherwise, the sentence will not be felicitous enough because the context does not meet the expected condition.

General Conditions

In a communicative act, there are also some pre-conditions for participants (hereby speaker and addressee) considering speech acts. Here, the condition is that the speakers can understand the language being used in the communication, they are not acting like actors.

Content Conditions

As a content condition, the content of the utterance must be appropriate for the structure. For instance, while promising, the speaker need to be certain that s/he is talking about a future event, or, while talking about a past event, the speaker need to make sure that the structure is a proper one.

Preparatory Conditions

Preparatory conditions require that the speech act takes place in an appropriate context recognized by the authority. For example, while promising there are two preparatory conditions: 1) it should be known that the event has no possibility to happen by itself; 2) the event will have a positive influence. As another example, while a king or president is proclaiming war to a country, it is a preparatory condition that it will have negative effects. Another condition is that there should be conflicts and disagreements between these two countries.

Sincerity Conditions

Related to the preparatory conditions, sincerity conditions necessitate that, for example while proclaiming war, the speaker believes that this action will have negative effects on them. Sincerity conditions mean that the speech acts should be performed sincerely and seriously and the speaker is serious in uttering the declaration.

Content Conditions

As a content condition, the content of the utterance must be appropriate for the structure. For instance, while promising, the speaker need to be certain that s/he is talking about a future event, or, while talking about a past event, the speaker need to make sure that the structure is a proper one.

Essential Condition

Essential conditions refer to the speaker intention to reach a result. Here, the utterances of the speaker counts as an attempt and it is expected to have the hearer do a counter-attack. Just after proclaiming a war to a country, as an example, what is uttered is an obligation for the utterer and the hearer need to have an attack against the speaker. Below example of Hogan (2001: 283) explains the felicity conditions:

"Suppose I am in a play and deliver the line 'I promise to kill the evil Don Fernando.' I have not, in fact, promised to kill anyone. ... The speech act fails because, among other things, I must have a certain institutional authority for my words to have the appropriate illocutionary force. ... [The] speech act [also] fails because the words are uttered in a context where they are not used by the speaker, but in effect quoted from a text."

Here in this example, 1) the content criteria is not satisfied by the Hogan as he is actually acting; 2) the preparatory criteria is not satisfied as he has no authority to kill anyone; 3) the sincerity criteria is not satisfied as he has no actual intention to kill, he is only acting; 4) the essential criteria is not satisfied as he doesn't expect that his words will be acted upon and does not intend to kill anyone and does not expect from any one to kill. The context criteria isn't fulfilled because the utterances are not the speaker's actual words, they are quoted from a text. Cook (1989: 36) also asserts some felicity conditions for the utterances. These are:

- 1) The speaker is aware that the action should be done.
- 2) The listener has the ability to perform the related action.
- 3) The listener is obliged to do the action.
- 4) The speaker has the right to tell the listener what to do.

For Cook (1989), if any of these criteria is not satisfied, the utterance is not felicitous. Turnbull (2003) claims that felicity conditions have a conventional aspect in which speakers and addressees use these conditions as a code to produce and recognize actions. In other words, for an utterance to be felicitous, the speaker should utter words and the listener should hear. The listener, then, take some actions based on these utterances. If

any these conditions are not satisfied, say, the speaker is unintelligible or the addressee fails in taking actions, the utterances are considered as infelicitous (Turnbull, 2003).

2.2.3. The Performative Hypothesis

The performative hypothesis is the hypothesis that each sentence is associated with an explicit illocutionary act which means every utterance has a performative verb (Ross, 1970). Sentences, (9), (10) and (11) are examples of the hypothesis:

(9) *I will call you tomorrow.*

(10) *I claim I will see you next month.*

(11) *I promise I will love you forever.*

Yule explains it as “Underlying every utterance (U), there is a clause containing a performative verb (Vp) which makes the illocutionary fore explicit and this is known as the *performative hypothesis* (2000: 51). The basic format of the underlying clause, as Yule (2000) indicated, is given below:

(12) I (hereby) Vp you (that) U

In this clause, the subject must be first person singular (I). It must be followed by the adverb (hereby) which indicates that the utterance is an action performed by the utterer. It, later must be followed by and performative verb in the present tense and, plus, a second person singular subject (you) as shown in the format above. This underlying clause will always make the implicit utterances explicit as shown in the examples.

(13) a. *Open the door!*

b. *I hereby order you that you open the door.*

(14) a. *The essay was written by Donald and me.*

b. *I hereby tell you that the essay was written by Donald and me.*

When the examples are considered, (13b) and (14b) are counted as *explicit performatives* because they directly give the clues about who the subjects are. Examples

(13a) and (14a) are called as *implicit performatives*, and sometimes named as *primary performatives*.

There are some advantages and disadvantages of such an analysis. First of all, this analysis clarifies which elements are involved in the production and interpretation of the utterances. For example, syntactically, there is an object pronoun “me” in 14a which necessitated the existence of subject ‘I’ in the same sentence structure. Similarly, in the sentence “Do your homework!” the possessive pronoun “you” indicates that there is a “you” subject in the explicit version of the sentence.

Secondly, it is also an advantage that some adverbs such as “honestly” (15) or some adverbial clauses like “Because I may be late”, shown in (16), as Yule (2000) clarifies, naturally indicate that there is an explicit performative rather than an implicit version.

(15) *Honestly, he is a dictator.*

(16) *When is the meeting, because I may be late?*

However, the Performative Hypothesis also has some disadvantages. Initially, when the examples 13a and 13b are considered, although these two sentence structures seem quite similar, the impacts they have are different. Uttering an explicit performative version of a command as in 13b, has a tougher impact than the implicit version (13a). Secondly, in some sentence structures, when the explicit versions of implicit utterances are considered, the explicit versions feel like a bit strange. See the example (17) here:

(17) a. *You are silly.*

b. *I hereby insult you that you are silly.*

When these example is considered, the speaker insulting in the implicit version is quite acceptable as an insult, the explicit version feels like problematic and strange somehow.

(18) *I promise you to do the ironing.*

Different linguistic scholars put forward different thought on the performative hypothesis. For instance, Austin (1962) claims that performative sentences are neither true

nor false. He states that when a sentence as sentence (18) is uttered to perform a speech act, the speaker is engaging in a promise, not describing himself as doing so. Austin explains this as such:

In these examples it seems clear that to utter the sentences (in, of course, the appropriate circumstances) is not to *describe* my doing of what I should be said in so uttering to be doing or to state that I am doing it: it is to do it. None of the utterances cited is either true or false...When I say, before the registrar or altar, &c., 'I do', I am not reporting on a marriage: I am indulging in it. (1962: 6)

Having observed the same point, many other scholars (Lemmon, 1962; Reimer, 1995; Jary, 2007) also claimed that engaging in an act and describing oneself doing that act should not be incompatible. Lemmon (1962) argued that performative utterances have truth value if they are examples of utterances which guarantees their truth. But this time, if performative sentences have truth values in performative utterances, then they do not have it in assertions. Similarly, Reimer (1995) suggests that if performatives have truth value, they are not assertions. Armstrong (1994) also claims that performatives have truth values without questioning whether they are also assertions. Jary (2007) claims such utterances show (not describe) the force of the speaker's act. Because, show is factive; if someone shows something, whenever A happens P should occur. He suggests that if this utterance shows the force, then it must have that force.

Contrary to Austin and his supporters, there are linguistic philosophers that suggests performatives utterances are assertives. Ginet (1970) claims that such performative verbs as "promote" and "rescind" not only perform by asserting that one is doing so, but also elaborate the reason why it is in that way. Therefore, Ginet explains why performatives are also assertives. Bach (1975) also argues that assertions are also performative utterances depending on the addressee realize the speaker's communicative intention. Searle (1989) also holds the idea that performatives are assertives.

2.2.4. Speech Act History

Speech Acts Theory, in the sense of today, has been introduced by John R. Searle in 1969 with his great work, *Expression and Meaning*. However studies on speech acts dates further back to John L. Austin's revolutionary work *How to Do Things With Words* (1962).

Until him, the logical positivist view was adopted by the linguists to analyse the meaning of the *sentences*. Austin confronted the idea of truth-conditional account of language use as the Logical Positivist View suggested, and confronted the idea that language aims at saying the true things, transmitting a certain ‘content’ or piece of information about something. He proposed *pragmatic* aspect of the language which means speech not only conveys what is explicitly said, but it can also change course of events and indicate something not explicitly said. He focused on what is done with the speech rather than what is said. Therefore, he drew the attention to *utterances* from *sentences*. He claimed that every utterance does not aim at something certain, therefore utterances depend on *felicity conditions*, not truth conditions. Felicity conditions are not related to the truths of utterances, but the circumstances to be fulfilled for using that utterance. This is also correct for declarative utterances which are expected to be true. For example, one can say “It’s sunny today” and this is true. However, it should be in the proper context to satisfy the felicity conditions; if there is not a proper context, then this utterance is unsuitable in terms of felicity conditions. Declarative sentences also cannot be falsified because of the same reason, they are true in content but they fail in context. Thus, he claims that they are also speech acts because they satisfy the felicity conditions. There are different kinds of speech acts: declarations, statements, promises, commissives etc and they all depend on felicity conditions not on truth-conditions.

Austin did not only re-shape the concept of performatives, he also indicated that all utterances are speech acts for they perform specific actions. He identified three ways that an utterance can perform an action: *locutions* to mean something, *illocutions* to alter the state of affairs and *perlocutions* to affect the audience. He also implies the existence of conditions of use of the speech. These conditions were determined by the felicity conditions. Therefore, he claims that each utterance has presuppositions, implications and commitments. This is important to note that Austin did not give priority to intentions to explain the commitments in speech acts.

To sum up, it is clear that Austin’s theory of speech acts is a revolutionary account of the fact that there is a meaning beyond the words, created by the utterances.

In 1950's, John Searle, Austin's student, improved Austin's ideas in a more systematic and, as Austin actually avoided, mentalistic way. Austin was interested in ordinary language analysis, however, Searle moved it to logical language analysis.

For him, a speech act consisted of two elements: an illocutionary force and a propositional context. Performing a speech act means the production of a propositional content which is linked to an illocutionary force. However, for this, the utterer has to follow some rules which are called as felicity conditions by Austin. Searle addressed these rules as the preparatory conditions, the sincerity condition and the essential condition. Preparatory conditions include the contextual and linguistic elements as Austin introduced; sincerity condition includes the intention of the speaker in saying the utterance and essential conditions include the conventional and constitutive rules which means taking certain utterances as performances of speech acts. For instance, making a promise means undertaking some obligations. If one is making a promise, then he is obliged to do it and it must be explicit in the speaker's intentions.

The very first important aspect of Searle's account of speech act is the explicit distinction between the content and the force, which was absent in Austin's analysis. The second different aspect is that for Searle, speaker's intention is essential for the realization of the speech act. However, Austin believed that one cannot perform and act due to intentions. Therefore, Searle's analysis combines conventional and intentional aspects of speech acts in order to give a new semantic account of speech, in the sense a speech act is no more a certain procedure but a certain cognitive content one has to manifest. The uptake does not depend on conventions but intentions, leading a conceptual change in the audience.

2.2.5. Speech Act Classification

Searle (1979) suggests a classification system for speech acts which consists of five types of classifications to classify the functions of speech act. These are declarations, representatives, expressives, directives and commissives.

Declarations

Declarations are the speech acts which are aimed to make the propositional content corresponds with the reality. This means, using a declarative, the utterer is aimed to change the world. The examples... indicate that in declarations the speaker has to have institutional role and the context should be appropriate to perform a declaration.

(19) a. The Priest: I, now, pronounce you man and wife!

b. Referee: You're out!

c. Jury Foreman: We find the defendant guilty (Yule, 2000: 53).

Examples of declarative words include: declaring, baptizing, resigning, firing from employment, hiring, arresting etc. Using a declaration, the speaker changes the world via his words.

Representatives

Representatives are kinds of speech acts that state what the speaker believes. Statements of what one believes, concludes, asserts and describes are examples of this kind. Representatives shows how the speaker believes the world is.

(20) a. It is a cold day.

b. The earth is flat (Yule, 2000: 53).

c. Michael Jackson is a great singer!

Examples of representative words include asserting, stating, describing, concluding, suggesting etc. Using a representative, the speaker wants to show what he believes. In here, the speaker wants to make the words fit the world of belief" (Yule, 2000: 53).

Directives

These are the speech acts in which the speaker to get the addressee to do an action. They express what the speaker wants from the addressee. These are commands, orders, requests, suggestions and etc. They can be expressed in a positive or negative way.

- (21) a. Open the door.
- b. Could you please explain it?
- c. Shall we go out for dinner?

Examples of directive words include requesting, advising, commanding, challenging, inviting, daring and pleading. Using these words, the utterer aims to make the world get adapted to his words (via the addressee).

Expressives

Expressives are kind of speech acts that express the psychological state of the speaker. They can express pleasure, pain, like, dislike, regret, joy, grief etc. These feelings can be caused by the speaker or something else including the addressee, the environment, the mental state of the speaker, however, in any situation, it is the expression of speaker's experience.

- (22) a. I like this soup.
- b. I'm so sorry for your loss.

Examples of expressive words include thanking, greeting, apologizing, complaining, congratulating. In using these words, the speaker wants to adapt his words to world.

Commissives

Commissives are the kinds of speech acts in which the speaker commits to a future action. They express speaker's intention. Refusals, threats, pledges, promises etc. are examples of commissives. These speech acts can be performed by the speaker alone, or as a group in which the speaker is included.

- (23) a. I'll call you back.
- b. I'll check the bills next time.
- c. We won't stay here.

Examples of commissive words include: pledging, threatening, vowing, offering, promising etc. In using these words, the speaker intends to adapt the world to words via himself. Table 1 summarizes the five general functions of speech acts and indicates the key features.

Table 1
The five general functions of speech acts, Searle, 1979 (Yule, 2000: 55)

Speech act type	Direction of fit	S = speaker; X = situation
Declarations	Words change the world	S causes X
Representatives	Make words fit the world	S believes X
Expressives	Make words fit the world	S feels X
Directives	Make the world fit the words	S wants X
Commissives	Make the world fit the words	

2.2.6. Direct and Indirect Acts

Austin (1962) claims that the locutionary acts does not determine what is performed by the illocutionary act. Considering this, it can be stated that speech acts can be distinguished based on their structures, too. This means speech acts can be performed directly or indirectly, applying another speech act.

It is called as a *direct speech act*, when there is a direct relationship between a structure and a function. However, if there is an indirect relation between a structure and a function, it is called an *indirect speech act*. For instance, if a declarative is used to perform a statement, then it is a direct relationship. Yet, if a declarative is used to imply a request, it is an indirect speech act. As illustrated in example (24), the utterance (24a) is a declarative, and it is a direct speech act if used to make a statement as in (24b), but it can change function and turn into an indirect speech act when used to make a command or request as in (24c).

(24) a. This cup of coffee is cold.

b. I hereby tell you that this cup of coffee is cold.

c. I hereby request you that you change the coffee.

Table 2
How to make a direct speech with different forms

	Declarative form	Interrogative form	Imperative form
Assertion	He cooked the dinner.		
Question		Who cooked the dinner?	
Order/request			Cook the dinner (please)!

Different grammatical structures can be used to perform the same function, as in the example (25). In this example, the speaker wants the addressee to not to disturb the cat sleeping on the sofa. The basic function of all the utterances are command/request, however, only in (25a), it is uttered directly. In (25b), the command/request is in a question form and stated indirectly, In sentence (25c), the declarative structure is used to make a request indirectly. Table 2 and Table 3 clarifies how to make a direct and indirect speech with different forms.

- (25) a. Do not disturb the cat!
- b. Do you have to touch a sleeping cat?
- c. You're disturbing the cat.

Table 3
How to make an indirect speech with different forms

	Declarative form	Interrogative form	Imperative form
Assertion		1. Is the director catholic? 2. Is water cold?	
Question	1. I want to know who cooked the dinner. 2. I do not know who cooked the dinner.		1. Who cooked the dinner?
Order/request	1. The dinner is not cooked yet. 2. I would like for you to cook the dinner.	3. Can you cook the dinner? 4. Would you mind cooking the dinner?	

In English, it is quite common to use an interrogative structure to imply a request as the example (26). It is normally an indirect speech act.

(26) a. Could you please speak a bit louder?

b. Would you tell it?

It can be claimed that, in English, the interrogative form of sentence structures are often used to make a request. The indirect use of the interrogative form, and the other indirect uses of sentences, are generally associated with greater politeness in English. Rather than using a direct form, indirect forms are considered to be more polite.

2.2.7. Speech Events

All social activities, including communication acts are referred as speech events. In other words, speech acts are the set of utterances produced for communicational reasons. This set of utterances, as the name suggests, does not include only one or two speech acts. This set often includes a variety of speech acts, both direct and indirect. These events do not start with a sudden utterance, they generally start with a greeting and continue by turn-taking. At the end of the conversation, people say goodbye to each other in an appropriate way. In almost every set of speeches, there is an underlying structure which is containing culturally specific rules and rituals that people follow. For instance, in many cultures, while greeting a sitting lady, it is not expected for her to stand up. However, it may not be appreciated in some cultures. In Islamic religion, women do not shake hands with men, and it is a cultural ritual. In many other countries, both genders shake hands while being acquainted.

2.2.8. Politeness and Interaction

Politeness is counted as a respect towards other people. This requires showing respect to other people's opinions, ideas, their social situation, their conventional behaviors and so on. The concept of politeness has strong relations with culture. 'Polite social behavior' means having the general principles of being polite in a social interaction of a certain culture. These culture-specific behaviors may be considered as sympathetic or unsympathetic, modest or immodest, generous or stingy and sometimes quite peculiar. Participants in a social interaction often have the knowledge of these norms and principles in a society.

In interaction, there is a more specified kind of politeness which is defined as *face*. Yule defines face as “the public self-image of a person. It refers to that emotional and social sense of self that one has and expects everyone else to recognize” (2000: 60). Face can be defined as how people want to show themselves to other people. Politeness, in this sense, can be referred as “the means employed to show awareness of another person’s face” (Yule, 2000: 60). That is people’s recognition of the face that other people want to show and having respect towards it. In this sense, politeness is related to social distance and closeness. Showing respect to other people’s face while they seem socially distant can be defined as respect or reverence. Showing intimacy to those who are socially close are also referred as friendship. Social distance can be found between a student and a professor at university context (27a) and the social closeness is quite usual between friends.

(27) a. Excuse me, professor. May I talk to you about exam scores for a minute?

b. Hey, dude. Need to talk to you.

These examples indicate that social distance and closeness is determined by the social context. In different contexts, people tend to be more close or distant. In most of the social contexts, the participants need to determine the relative social distance between them and their “face wants”.

2.2.9. Politeness Theory by Brown and Levinson

The politeness theory was first introduced by Penelope Brown and Stephen C. Levinson in their work “Universals in Language Usage: Politeness Phenomena”. The study was republished in 1987 under the title “Politeness: Some Universals in Language Usage”. In their study, Brown and Levinson examined their fundamental politeness theory and its functions in interactions. In the second part of their study, they provided a list of examples on politeness strategies in three different languages: English, Tzeltal and Tamil.

Brown and Levinson suggest that “all competent adult members of a society have (and know other other to have) face” (1987: 61). They define face as “the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself” (ibid). That is, the self-image they want and believe to have. They distinguished their face argument into two aspects: negative face and positive face. Negative face is referred as the person’s freedom of action, the need to be

independent of others, the personal space not to be invaded by other members of the society. On the other hand, positive face refers to the positive self-image that one wants to create, the need to be accepted by the society, the need to feel membership to the society. This means that every person wants to be perceived as positive by the other people in the society and gain their approval. Brown and Levinson define the negative face as “the want of every competent adult member that his actions be unimpeded by others” and positive face as “the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others” (1987: 62). Simply, it can be suggested that negative face is the wish for being independent, and positive face is the wish to be connected with the society.

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), speaking behavior is the main place in which people can satisfy their positive and negative faces. Speakers always need to obtain satisfaction from both the positive and negative faces. However, while doing this, they should not impede the positive face of the addressee for a good communication. However, sometimes speakers have to perform acts that threaten addressees’ face. These acts are called “face threatening acts (FTAs)”. Yule explains face threatening acts (FTA’s) as: “If a speaker says something that represents a threat to another individual’s expectations regarding self-image, it is described as a face threatening act” (Yule, 2000: 61). FTA’s are performed consciously and they can threaten positive or negative face of the person. FTA’s threaten the negative face if the threat is against their independency, their freedom of action. These FTA’s include offers, requests, advices, orders, threats and so on. They threaten negative face when the acts of the speaker indicate that the speaker does not care about the addressee’s wishes and feelings. Expressions of disapproval, contempt, humiliation, ridicule are examples of positive face threatening acts. FTA’s not only threaten the addressee’s face, but it may also threat the speaker. An expression of thank threatens the speaker’s negative face since it indicates a debt towards the addressee. Therefore, it can be concluded that FTA’s are bidirectional: from addressee to speaker and from speaker to addressee. As an alternative to FTA’s, there are face saving acts (FSA’s). If there is a face threatening act and the speaker says something to lessen the possible threat, this is called *face saving act*. The example below clarifies the FTA (28a) and a FSA(28b).

Imagine a person is watching TV loudly and the neighbors next door are disturbed because their son is studying for the exam. One of the parents may propose a face-threatening act and the other one suggests a face saving one:

(28) a. I'll go and tell him switch that idiot box off!

b. Perhaps you could just explain our son needs to study for the exam and disturbed by the loud sounds.

In this example, one of the parents is angry and about to perform a face-threatening act and the other parent asks suggests him a face-saving alternative.

Brown and Levinson conclude that “in the context of the mutual vulnerability of face, any rational agent will seek to avoid these face-threatening acts, or will employ certain strategies to minimize the threat” (1987: 68). That implies that there are different strategies that the speakers employ and achieve their communicational goals while committing as few FTA's as possible. FTA's are, however, an essential part of communication. Even so, it is rational to avoid using FTA's and minimize the threat to their addressee's face to not to impede the communication. There are different strategies for committing FTA's, if necessary, as Brown and Levinson suggest in the following figure:

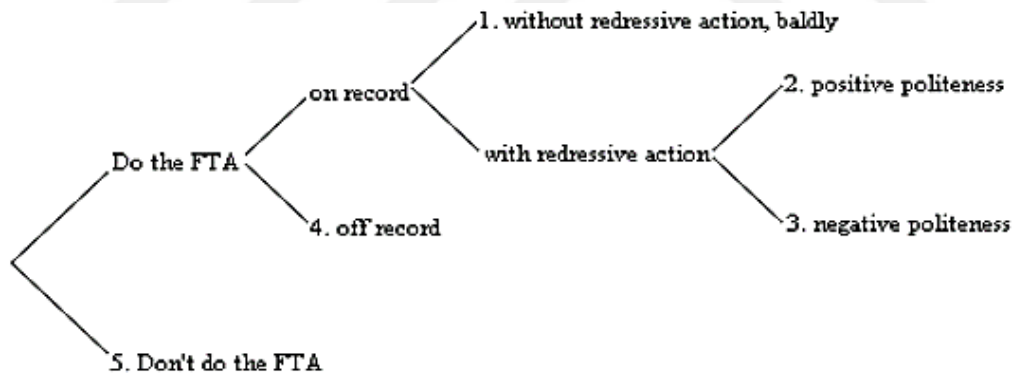


Figure 2. Possible strategies for performing FTA's (Brown and Levinson, 1987: 69)
(The numbers 1-5 refer to the strategies performed to minimize the threats from FTA's)

Speakers have several possibilities to commit FTA's depending of the amount of the face threats they come across. First of all, the speakers can decide not to commit an FTA at all (5). If they decide to commit an FTA, they can do it off-record or on-record (4). Off record FTA's refer to the statement which are not directly addressed to the addressee, sometimes not even been heard by the listener. These statements are described as being *off record*. On the other hand, on record FTA's are directly addressed to the listener and express the speaker's needs. These directly addressed forms of FTA's are described as

being *on record*. More direct statements, such as comparatives are referred as *bald on record*. Therefore, the speaker can prefer being on record or off record. If speakers decide to commit a FTA, they can prefer to commit it without redressive action (baldly) (1) or with a redressive action. Brown and Levinson (1987: 69) describe redressive action as “action that ‘gives face to the addressee, that is, that attempts to counteract the potential damage of the FTA’”. Redressive actions can be committed towards the the positive face (positive politeness) or the negative face (negative politeness).

“Face refers to the respect that an individual has for him or herself, and maintaining that "self-esteem" in public or in private situations” (Abdul-Majeed, 2009: 514). Brown and Levinson suggest that politeness strategies are developed in order to save the hearer’s face and they are precautions to continue the interaction. FTA’s are the acts that violate the hearer’s self-esteem and their need to be respected. Most of the time, speakers avoid committing to such face threatening acts, however, sometimes they have to commit. Politeness strategies were developed to cope with FTA’s in such situations.

2.3. Apology Strategies and Speech Acts

Apologies are one of the commonly studied speech acts in descriptive, cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics. In any speech event, participants need to be able to express their apologies, upon committing an offense. Apologies, under the category of expressives, occur between two participants in which one of the participants expects a compensation for the other one has committed an offense (Cohen & Olshtain, 1983). In that sense, apology plays an important role as a politeness strategy. In an apology speech act, the speaker is willing to humiliate himself/herself to admit his fault and responsibility. Thus, apologies are face-saving for the hearer and face-threatening for the speaker (Olshtain & Cohen, 1990).

Apologizing as a speech act is a pragmatic universal, however, the conditions necessitating an apology act differ in different cultures. What is regarded as an offense, the severity of same offense and the appropriate compensation for the offensive act clearly differ in speech communities. Social and cultural factors such as speaker’s social status and familiarity between the speaker and the addressee, along with linguistic factors, play role in determining the appropriate compensation for the committed offense. Non-native speakers need to learn what is regarded as an offense and the conditions for an apology, the

strategies and linguistic means to be implemented in such situation and how to select the appropriate mean from the apology speech acts.

The notion of apology speech acts set first proposed by Cohen and Olshtain in 1983. These scholars, later, conducted a series of studies to sustain the empirical research on apology strategies (Olshtain, 1983; 1989 and Olshtain and Cohen, 1989, Olshtain and Cohen; 1990). They classified the apology speech acts in their seminal work in 1983, and created a taxonomy. According to their classification, there are two types of apology speech acts as direct apologies and indirect apologies. Direct apologies include an IFID and indirect apologies include an explanation or account, acknowledgement of responsibility, offer of repair, promise of forbearance. The apologies may be modified by using combination of strategies containing two or more strategies or intensifiers can be used to intensify the apology or decrease the responsibility (Olshtain and Cohen; 1990).

2.3.1. Direct Apologies

According to Olshtain and Cohen (1983) an apology speech act often includes explicit illocutionary force indicating devices (IFID), which are utterances or expressions of apology or regret. The formulaic expressions of apology or regret include a performative verb such as “be sorry”, “excuse” or “apologize”, therefore, they are referred as direct apologies. These apologies include a direct utterances of regret and apology, therefore, they are referred as direct apologies. Direct apologies are, in almost all languages, are the most commonly used apology speech acts. For example in English, according to Holmes (1990), almost half of the apologies include a direct expression of apology, particularly, expression of regret for a committed action.

2.3.2. Indirect Apologies

Apologies do not always necessarily include a performative verb. In order to convey the meaning of a speech act, various statements and utterances can be employed (Searle, 1976). In performing a speech act of apology, various manners are available to be express apology. Cohen & Olshtain (1983) categorized the indirect apologies in the following ways: *providing an explanation, an acknowledgement of responsibility, an offer of repair, a promise of forbearance and providing an explanation*. Any of these actions can be considered as strategies to express apologies indirectly.

In the case of an indirect apology, the speaker often *provides an explanation* for the offence. For example, a student who is late for the class could provide an explanation that s/he has missed the bus. These explanations are expected to be acceptable in terms of some contextual issues such as age, gender, culture, the particular situation and like. As Holmes (1990) stated, providing an explanation for the action is the second most common indirect apology strategy in English language according to a study conducted by Holmes in New Zealand.

“*Acknowledgment of responsibility*” is another indirect apology strategy which includes the fault or the responsibility of the speaker. The speaker can use different sub-sets to convey the meaning of responsibility or to deny the responsibility. These sub-sets are given below:

- A. accepting the blame, e.g. “*It is my fault,*”
- B. expressing self-deficiency, e.g. “*I was confused,*”
- C. recognizing the other person’s deserving of an apology, e.g. “*You are right!*” and
- D. expressing lack of intent, “*I didn’t mean to*” (Cohen & Olshtain, 1983).

Speakers who commit an offense may offer to repair their offences. For example, if the speaker loses the book s/he has borrowed, s/he can offer to buy a book or in a situation that the speaker caused financial loss of the addressee, s/he may offer paying for the damage. This is an indirect apology strategy.

Promise of forbearance is also an indirect apology strategy. For instance, the speaker may have committed an offence and say “this won’t be again” or “I’ll never do that again” to repair to save the hearer’s face.

Speakers, in a speech event, often use more than one strategy while apologizing. They can say “Sorry, I didn’t mean to it!” (IFID+RESP), or explain “Excuse me, sir. I missed the bus this morning, but this won’t be again” to his professor (IFID+EXP+FORB). These are called combination of strategies provided commonly in speech events in English.

Modification of the strategies also occur very often in English. The speakers may intensify their utterances using intensity words such as “really”, “very”, and “terribly” (I’m

terribly sorry!). Or they may minimize their responsibility saying, for instance, “I told you that!” or “I warned you before!”. The speakers may deny their responsibilities (It is not my fault!) or minimize the offense saying “Cool, there is no damage!”. They may also provide emotionals such as “God!”, “Damn!”, or “Oh, Jesus!”.

The table below indicates how Cohen et al. (1986) classified the apology strategies:

Table 4
The classification of apology strategies (Adapted from Cohen et al. (1986))

Five Apology Strategies	Combination or absence of strategies	Modification of Strategies
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Direct Apology (IFID): «sorry» , «excuse» •Explanation (There has been a lot going on in my life; I could not catch the bus) •Responsibility (It is my fault; I did not mean to) •Repair (How can I fix that; Let me buy a new computer for you. •Promise of Forbearance (It won't happen again) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Combination of strategies •Absence of strategies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Intensity of apology: «really», «very» •Minimizing responsibility «I told you that!» •Denial of resp. «It is not my fault» •Emotionals: «God!», «Damn!» •Minimizing the offense «No harm done!» •comments: about self, others etc.

2.4. Teaching Pragmatics

As learners are not given the chance to observe and participate in real life interactions, and they are not exposed to authentic use of target language as much as needed, they need to get the necessary knowledge from textbooks. This causes learners to produce grammatically correct but inauthentic and inappropriate utterances. Most of the time, they do not even produce, they just memorize the items in textbooks. These inappropriate utterances lead them to fail in real life interactions, fail to convey the intended message and cause communication breakdowns. In such situations, learners tend to respond the way they do in their native tongues and culture and transfer from their L1 to the target language without giving attention to cultural differences. Therefore, communication may turn into a complete chaos for language learners.

Over acknowledgement of the importance of developing pragmatic competence by language scholars and researchers, the methods provided by instructional pragmatics have been employed in language classes to develop learners' pragmatic competences. However, here raised the question 'Can pragmatics be taught?' (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013; Rose, 2005). It was a motivating question for the scholars to explore the ways that can interconnect the formal instruction and the area of socio-cultural and sociolinguistic abilities. Over the discussions and studies, the studies showed that most aspects of pragmatics were adaptable to instruction and instructional approaches pre-dominated non-instruction for pragmatic competence (Taguchi, 2015).

Having concluded that instructional methodology is beneficial in developing learners' pragmatic competences, linguists and scholars concentrated on finding which instructional methods work best to enhance pragmatic teaching. A large body of instructional interventions focused on promoting the acquisition of specific pragmatic features including comparisons of pre- to post instruction and experimental designs based on cognitively oriented SLA theories (Taguchi, 2015). One of the greatest contributions is provided by the Noticing hypothesis by Schmidt (1994), in which it is claimed that learners must first notice L2 features in the provided input in order to turn these inputs to intakes. For this, students' attention should be drawn onto the linguistic forms, the functions of these linguistic and contextual features. Only then, it can be argued that there has been a development into the pragmatic understanding of the learners. Schmidt (1994) puts the concentration on 'noticing' but defends the idea that, the notion of noticing is not same in explicit and implicit teaching. In implicit teaching, the acceptability of untrained rules and grammatical structures are by the learners is quite possible without verbalizing the rules, however, they fail to internalize these rules and abstract grammatical structures and they gain a very limited knowledge of permissible chunks, repetitions, alternations and so on which is slightly above incidental learning (Schmidt, 1994, 1995; Williams, 2009). Therefore, Schmidt claims that "... in order to acquire phonology one must attend to phonology, in order to acquire pragmatics, one must notice both linguistic forms and relevant contextual features, etc.," (Schmidt, 1994, p.176). The philosophy of Schmidt is consistent with the perspective with the *Form-focused Instruction* of Ellis (1994). He believes that linguistic constructions of form and meaning do not point to "the defining properties of morphological, syntactic and lexical form" independently, but it considers the

“semantic, pragmatic, and discourse functions that come associated with it” (Ellis N., 2004, p.50). In the light of these discussions, it can be concluded that, learners’ attention must be focused on linguistic forms, the functional meaning of these forms and the contextual features in order to learn the pragmatic aspect of the target language.

2.4.1. Meta-pragmatic Instruction

The recognition of pragmatic instruction and its contribution to the learning process, the focus of the scholars and language researchers shifted to how to teach pragmatics in a language classroom. Especially Schmidt’s Noticing Hypothesis (1994) and, in line with it, Form-Focused Instruction introduced by Ellis (2004) proved the essential role of pragmatic instruction in the teaching of target language. Therefore, the importance of the development of learners’ meta-pragmatic awareness is a crucial part of pragmatic instruction.

Meta-pragmatic instruction can be defined as “knowledge of the social meaning of variable second language forms and awareness of the ways in which these forms mark different aspects of social contexts” (Kingingier and Farrell, 2004: 2) and, therefore, it is “a crucial force behind the meaning-generating capacity of language in use” (Verschueren, 2000: 439). Meta-pragmatic instruction, as mentioned previously, utilizes input-based instruction to raise learners’ meta-pragmatic awareness. Kasper (1999) defends that in solely meaning-oriented L2 use, learners may not notice the relevant input features, so, in order to ensure learners’ noticing, input should be distinct through ‘input enhancement’. Input enhancement is believed to contribute learners’ consciousness about the target feature. Most of the developmental studies focusing on input enhancement propose the inclusion of description, explanation and discussion of the pragmatic feature and address it as the object of meta-pragmatic instruction. According to Kasper (1999), meta-pragmatic instruction can collaborate with meta-pragmatic discussions fostering active participation of target language learners in various forms of teacher-fronted-format, peer work, small groups, role-plays, semi-structured interviews, introspective feedback, and meta-pragmatic assessment tasks. Through meta-pragmatic instruction and discussions, meta-pragmatic awareness of the learners can be enhanced and, as McConachy (2018) mentioned, the development of meta-pragmatic awareness contributes to learners’ understanding that

language use is a form of social action and assists them become aware of the consequences of their linguistic choices and the immense possibilities to construct their own agencies.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

The present study deals with pragmatic competence, as an aspect of communicational competence and focuses on use of speech acts, which is one of the closely connected concepts to sociolinguistics.

The aim of this chapter is to introduce the methodological groundwork of the study. Therefore, this chapter provides an elaborate description of research aim, research design, the setting in which the study is conducted, the participants of the study and the instruments applied. In this process, the ethical concerns were not ignored, therefore, a broad explanation related to ethical concerns is given place at the end of the chapter.

3.1. Research Aim and Questions

Any language consists of many various structures and systems. These systems cover many other language units and components, however, four basic units are mainly dealt with: sound, word, sentence and meaning. Each unit is the subject of research of different fields. For instance, the field of Phonetics and Phonology studies sounds in language, whereas Morphology focuses on words. Syntax covers the sentence structures and meaning is handled by Semantics. All these units are necessitated in language systems so that communication can built properly. Pragmatics, on the other hand, is a brand-new and astounding field that deals with meaning in language. Pragmatics, in language studies, is like the missing piece of the puzzle. The puzzle has been completed with the introduction of pragmatics to language authorities.

Pragmatics is a study which deals with what is communicated, rather than what is directly said. The utterances produced by the speakers in a communication event may have broader meanings than the actual meanings of the words or sentences. Yule (1996:3) states that “pragmatics has consequently more to do with the analysis of what people mean by their utterances than what the words or phrases in those utterances might mean by themselves”. Pragmatics is strongly related with the context in which the communicational act takes place. The same utterance may refer to different meanings in different contexts

and situations. *Context* may change the nature of the communication and the overall meaning, therefore, speakers and researchers should focus on context.

Leech states that pragmatics is the study of meaning and strongly related with the speech acts (1983: 6). Speech acts are part of pragmatics where the utterances mean more than what the speaker says or what the hearer in a communicational act hears. According to Yule (1996) it is the study of how speakers and hearers use the language. Dawson and Phelan define speech acts as “actions that are performed only through using language” (2016: 210). Parallel to Dawson and Phelan, Austin (1975) mentions that speech acts are not something that convey information, they also perform actions. Warren et al. (1982: 134) explains further saying "almost any speech act is really the performance of several acts at once, distinguished by different aspects of the speaker's intention: there is the act of saying something, what one does in saying it, such as requesting or promising, and how one is trying to affect one's audience". These definitions point out that speech acts lead to actions through language. When someone utters a speech act, he can also urge the hearer to perform things. “It means that speech act describes the use of speech which emphasise the speaker’s intention or goal in producing an utterance” (Christianto, 2020: 70).

Leech (2005) mentions two elements of communicative competence: linguistic competence and pragmatic competence. Linguistic competence, also known as the grammatical competence and introduced by Noam Chomsky, is the system of linguistic knowledge such as syntax and phonology and how the native speakers of the language possess and use this system. It refers to “the unconscious knowledge of grammar that allows a speaker to use and understand a language” (Linguistic Competence: Definition and Examples, 2020.). Linguistic competence is often related to the language accuracy and fluency of the language learner, which means how accurate and fluent one speaks is associated with that learner’s language competence. On the other hand, pragmatic competence, which is strongly connected with and covers the contextual elements in interaction, is regarded as language appropriateness. Language appropriateness, rather than the linguistic knowledge, points to social rules and society’s understanding of social interaction. It “depends on sufficient linguistic and pragmatic knowledge, as well as on overall strategic capacities to implement the knowledge in communicative interaction” (Taguchi, 2006: 514). Bachman creates the term *sociolinguistic knowledge* which refers to both the “socio-cultural rules of the society and the rules of discourse” (1990: 85).

Taking communicative competence to a narrower point and highlighting the pragmatic issues, Boxer and Pickering claim “appropriate speech behaviour will rely heavily on those societies’ own rules” (1993: 45). For instance, there are a great number of greeting structures in every language, however, which one to use in a certain context necessitates pragmatic or sociolinguistic knowledge. This example embraces the role of sociolinguistic competence in language appropriateness.

In EFL classes, for an effective communication in the target language, teaching the social rules of the target language’s community is crucial to hinder misunderstandings and communicational blocks. Rather than teaching, actually, performing these social rules and rituals through authentic activities such as role-plays or dialogue-building activities has impressive outcomes in terms of developing a pragmatic perspective. Zhao and Throssell suggest “learners should practice the target language in real life to achieve communicative purposes” (2011: 92). Authentic activities, at this point, help learners practice the target language for real communication and become a good vehicle to develop a pragmatic insight.

Considering all these issues, this dissertation examines the current pragmatic understanding of the included EFL learners through speech acts and focuses on how to develop their pragmatic competences. One of the very important starting point of this present study is to find out how to develop this pragmatic insight for a better communication.

Within this framework, this study searches for answers for the following questions:

1. What are the frequently-used apology strategies by the EFL learners?
2. Can pragmatic competence be developed by meta-pragmatic instruction?
3. What are the factors which affect EFL learners’ manner of apology?

This study, within this framework, focuses on the use of speech acts, more specifically apology strategies, by the EFL learners. In the next part of this chapter, the research design and rationale of the study will be discussed.

3.2. Research Design and Rationale of the Study

A research design is a road map for any study, according to which the research is conducted. It is the overall plan that moves from the underlying philosophical foundations and leads the way to seek for answers to research questions. Durrheim defines research design as “a strategic framework for action that serves as a bridge between research questions and the execution or the implementation of the research (2006: 34). According to Selltiz, Jahoda, Deutsch and Cook (1965: 50), research design is “the arrangement of conditions for collecting and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure”. Research design is the planned and constructed procedure for observation. It is a systematic observation, which makes it different from every day observation, since it is designed for a specific purpose and guided by research questions. According to Mouton and Marais, the aim of a research design is to plan and structure a given research project in such a manner that the eventual validity of the research findings is maximised (1996, in Kivilu, 2003: 249).

According to Creswell (2014), there are three types of research approaches: qualitative, quantitative and mixed approaches. Qualitative and quantitative methods are not strictly and clearly differentiated from each other as they first introduced. Rather, it should be stated that they seem like they are the different ends on a continuum (Newman and Benz, 1998). Both methods borrow from each other, thus, researchers can only discuss which approach borrows more from the other one. On the other hand, mixed approach stand just on the middle of this continuum, it addresses to both of the qualitative and quantitative methods.

The primary distinction between the qualitative and quantitative methods, as Creswell (2014) suggests, is the use of words (qualitative) and numbers (quantitative) or the use of closed-ended questions (quantitative hypothesis) rather than open-ended questions (qualitative interview questions). In qualitative research design, researchers utilize research strategies based on qualitative data (e.g. through observation and case studies), while in quantitative research design, the research design is mainly based on statistical data. In post-positivist view, the knowledge is built upon observation and measurement of the objective reality (Creswell, 2014). Therefore, developing numeric measures and gathering statistical data, which can be measured by anyone, is the foremost

objective for the post-positivist view. On the contrary, qualitative research design stands on constructivist view or participatory research (PER) and utilize narratives, case studies, ethnographies, diaries and so on.

Mixed method design involves combining both the quantitative and qualitative methods in a research. It is based on the idea that all methods have strengths and weaknesses, therefore, combination of these two methodologies neutralizes the weaknesses of each data set. Mixed methods research potentially offers the researcher a deeper understanding of qualitative data utilizing quantitative techniques. The use of mixed methods, as Niaz suggests, “provides a rationale for hypotheses/ theories/ guiding assumptions to compete and provide alternatives” (2008: 64). Previously, the data gathered from researches were assumed only as numbers, a mark in a statistical response set, however, mixing methods and increasing the role of qualitative data made it possible to reach more ‘real’ people and more ‘real’ results. This approach stand against a positivist perspective and tends toward a postpositivist frame.

Post-positivism was introduced by the educational authorities as a reaction to the limitations of positivist paradigm. The educational researchers state that, since it is based on the observable and empirical analytic facts, positivism cannot fulfill the requirements for social sciences’ researches (Panhwar, Ansari and Shah, 2017). As a result, researchers from educational and social sciences have introduced mixed paradigm which combines the positivism and interpretivism and named it *post-positivism* (Petter and Gallivan, 2004; Deluca, Gallivan and Kock, 2008). Some scholars defended the idea that mixed methods design is a means of social transformation and greater social justice (Mertens, 2010). It is an indisputable fact that post-positivism is ‘a certain pluralism’ which combines positivist and interpretivist approaches. Post-positivism, along with quantitative analysis, handles the phenomena from historical, comparative, philosophical and phenomenological perspectives (Fischer, 1998). Post-positivism, unlike positivism, disagrees with the idea that there is an absolute truth to be found, nevertheless, it struggles to keep a scientific point of view to explore the phenomena (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Phillips and Burbules, 2000). Post-positivism does not aim to disregard the scientific/quantitative elements of positivism in the research, rather it focuses on gaining a perspective from multi-dimension and multi-methods (Guba, 1990; Fischer, 1998). Post-positivism can be regarded as a justification for an alternative research paradigm since the positivism has such limitations as including

individual/subjective perspective of facts. Post-positivistic paradigm values all kinds of researchable facts through various kinds of investigations and, for this aim, promotes the triangulation of qualitative and quantitative methods. It focuses on all findings gathered through these investigations and regards them as essential components for development of knowledge (Clark, 1998; Fischer, 1998). The table below shows a summary of quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods:

Table 5
Quantitative, mixed and qualitative methods (Creswell, 2014)

Quantitative Methods	Mixed Methods	Qualitative Methods
Pre-determined	Both predetermined and emerging methods	Emerging methods
Instrument based questions	Both open- and closed-ended questions	Open-ended questions
Performance data, attitude data, observational data, and census data	Multiple forms of data drawing on all possibilities	Interview data, observation data, document data and audiovisual data
Statistical analysis	Statistical and text analysis	Text and image analysis
Statistical interpretation	Across databases interpretation	Themes, patterns interpretation

As the Table 5 indicates, mixed methods design utilizes both the techniques and methodology of quantitative and qualitative methods designs. Mixed methods research design aims to combine both methods and eliminate the shortcomings of each other. At this point, it should be mentioned that mixed methods design stands on a pragmatic bases since it gathers both the numeric and textual data concurrently or alternately and strives to comprehend research problems (Onwuegbuzie and Jonhson, 2006). A mixed-methods research design is a practice in which both the data are gathered and the results are interpreted addressing both the qualitative and quantitative methodologies. Hence, it should be noted that a mix methods research design has a pluralist viewpoint and it is practice-oriented (Cresswell and Clark, 2011). Researches, especially in educational and social sciences, necessitates going further from numeric data and gain a deeper understanding of the participants through a qualitative aspect. Combining two methodologies and having two data sets of data as numeric and qualitative, valuing

participants' words and experiences, turning them into numeric data when required, taking the context of the events into consideration while analyzing the gathered data leads the researchers to more correct and detailed responses. " According to Christensen, Johnson and Turner (2014) the strengths of the mixed methods research are that they supply multi-methods of data collection, support validity in a single study, make diverse aspects of the phenomena clearer, represent more profound and intricate interpretations, supply both amic and etic aspects, aid the less stronger method by another one, grant more credible and effective results, and supply quantitative data with abundant, comprehensive, and idiosyncratic data in one study" (Ulum, 2018: 77).

Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989) clarified five purposes for employing mixed methods research as 1)Triangulation, 2)Complementarity, 3)Development, 4)Initiation and 5)Expansion. *Triangulation* is achieved using more than one method while gathering and analyzing data in order to seek convergence and corroboration and to eliminate the biases for applying only one method (Denzin, 1988; Greene et al. 1989). The intention of the researcher is to hinder the biases from using a single method. *Complementarity* seeks elaboration and enhancement of the results of a method with the results of another method. Here, it is intended to clarify and support the results of a method with the help of other method implemented in the research. *Development* means using the results of a method to develop and inform the other method. For instance, the results of a method can be useful to develop a questionnaire to assess the same phenomena (Crump and Logan, 2008). *Initiation* refers to seeking for paradoxes or new perspectives to investigate. And finally, *expansion* seeks to broaden the scope of the research using different methods.

There is a variety of typologies that classify and identify the research designs in mixed methods study. Creswell and Clark (2011) have identified several classification types from various fields including nursing, evaluation, education, health and social and behavioral sciences. Not only Creswell and Clark, but also other scholars has identified different typologies, most of which overlapping each other. For this present research, three basic mixed methods designs will be discussed.

Among these basic mixed methods designs, probably the most familiar one is *Convergent Parallel Mixed Methods Design*. In this design type, researchers are expected to gather both qualitative and quantitative data, analyze them separately and compare the

results to see if the findings confirm or disconfirm each other (Creswell, 2014). In this design, researchers presume that both qualitative and quantitative data provide different type of information and these data, together, lead the same results.

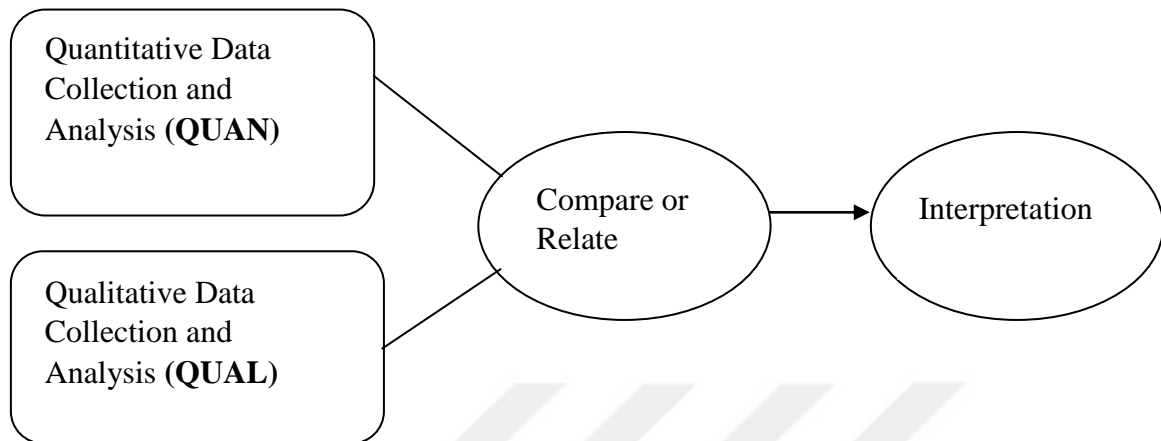


Figure 3. Convergent parallel mixed methods (Creswell, 2014: 270)

As the *Figure 3* indicates, in the Convergent Parallel Mixed Methods, two sets of research designs, as quantitative and qualitative, are implemented concurrently and two sets of data gathered from these researches are compared or related to better understand and interpret the research phenomena. In this type of design, the key assumption is that every data type has weaknesses and strengths and merging these data types can be helpful in compensating the weaknesses of a data set by utilizing the strengths of another data type (Clark & Creswell, 2014; Mackey & Gass, 2015). Main qualitative data to be used in Convergent Parallel Mixed Methods Research includes interviews, observations, documents and records. The most crucial point in utilizing this design is to gather both types of data using *the same or parallel variables, constructs or concepts* (Creswell, 2014). This means, if anxiety is being measured in quantitative part of research, say in the questionnaire, the qualitative part of the research should also measure anxiety and parallel questions addressing anxiety should be asked to the participants in the interview. Another important point is that, in Convergent Parallel Mixed Methods Research, quantitative and qualitative parts of the design may differ in *sample size*, that is to say, the number of the participants may be higher in quantitative research compared to qualitative research. This is because the aim of a qualitative research is to collect data from a smaller group of participants and gather extensive data. However, in order to gain meaningful statistical results, the number of the participants should be as high as possible in quantitative

research. Creswell (2014) discusses three ways to overcome the inequality in the sample size. First of all, the researcher may increase the number of qualitative sample and equalize the sample size in both of the researches. In this situation, the researcher should limit the amount of data gathered from the participants in the qualitative part of the research. Secondly, the researcher may increase the weight in the qualitative cases and equalize the sample size in the database. In another approach, the researchers may not consider the inequality in the sample as a problem. Eventually, the researchers will include the qualitative data into quantitative data to make a comparison and reach results.

There are two alternatives in order to analyze the data in Convergent Parallel Mixed Methods Research. First of all, the researcher can apply a side-by-side comparison. In side-by-side comparison, the researcher will first start with analyzing one part of the data – say, quantitative- and then the other part – qualitative-. Another procedure for analyzing is data transformation. In this procedure, qualitative data is turned into codes or themes and analyzed as quantitative data. The last procedure for researchers to analyze both types of data is to merge them in a joint table or graphic. While interpreting the data, the researcher can take them as two different results to make a comparison or interpret them as mixed data.

Second type to discuss is the *Explanatory Sequential Mixed Method Design*. It is prominent in the use of qualitative data. This design type consists of two phases. In the first phase of the research, quantitative data is collected, the results are analyzed, and the results are used to plan the qualitative part of the research which is the second phase. In *Explanatory Sequential Mixed Method Design*, the researcher uses the qualitative data to further explain the quantitative data in the research. The typical procedure in this design type includes collecting the survey data, analyzing the quantitative data and using the qualitative data to support the quantitative findings.

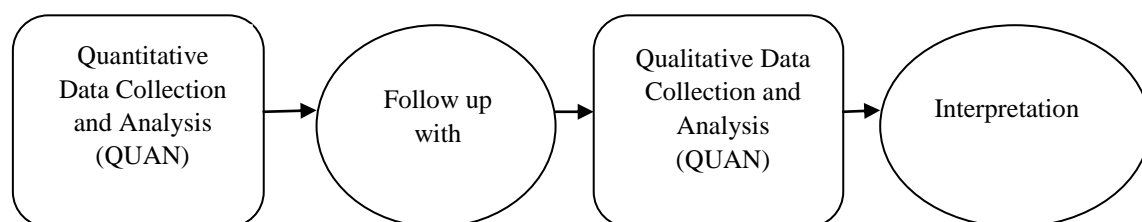


Figure 4. Explanatory sequential mixed method design (Creswell, 2014, p. 270)

The data collection procedure consists of two phases in this type of design. The first phase includes the collection of quantitative data. The second phase is implemented to gather the qualitative data in order to strengthen the quantitative data and built on the data in the first, quantitative phase. When it comes to data analysis, the data gathered from both phases are analyzed separately in this type of design. The quantitative results are used to plan the qualitative phase. It is noteworthy here that the quantitative data determines the qualitative data gathering procedure like the questions to be asked to the participants. These questions are expected to be general and open-ended. Explanatory Sequential Mixed Method Design is easier to implement and accomplish because the data in both phases are analyzed separately and, in time, one group of data can be eliminated.

In *Exploratory Sequential Mixed Method Design*, contrary to Explanatory Sequential Mixed Method Design, the researcher starts the research with qualitative phase with limited number participants and implements the second qualitative phase with a larger population. In this design type, the aim is to see whether the results with a few participants gathered in the first phase can be generalized into a larger sample group. A good example of this design type is the procedure of developing an instrument. Here, the researcher develops the instrument with a limited number of participants and, later, he implements it to a larger sample group.

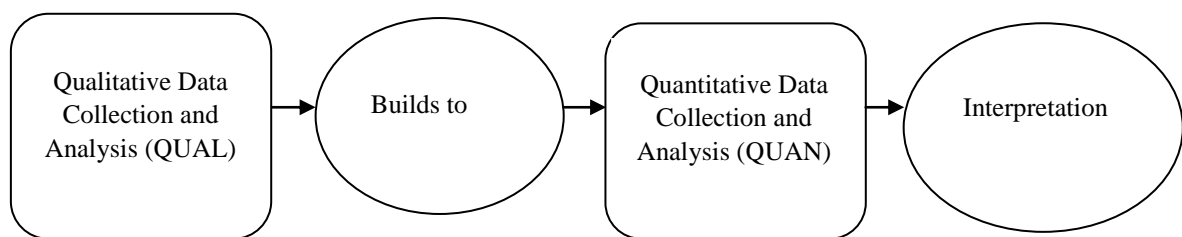


Figure 5. Exploratory sequential mixed method design (Creswell, 2014: 270)

In this type of design, the data collection has two phases as in the Explanatory Sequential Mixed Method Design. However, as mentioned, here the researcher starts with the qualitative phase and build a quantitative phase using the data from the first phase. This design type is quite appropriate to develop an instrument. The qualitative data can be coded and grouped and turned into a scale. The researcher may also find the design type useful to find out new variables.

In *Exploratory Design*, the data is analyzed separately and the qualitative findings are used to build quantitative measures. One challenge here is that the researcher may have a large number of qualitative data in the first phase and cannot decide how to use this database. At this point, the best thing to do is to group and code the qualitative data and find out what is most useful to build on. It is the strength of this design type that the researcher will gather a great number of qualitative data to make use of. It is also worthy of notice that, because of different sizes of samples, comparing the group of data is quite useless in this design type. It is aimed to build a quantitative phase on qualitative phase here.

In the present study, *Convergent Parallel Mixed Methods Design* is implemented to analyze the data gathered. Accordingly, the qualitative data and quantitative data will be analyzed separately and then the researcher will compare them to find out whether the quantitative data and qualitative data give similar results or how the findings are related to each other.

3.3. Setting and Participants

The study was carried out at Hitit University in the following departments: Political Science and Public Administration, International Trades and Logistics, Business, Banking and Finance, Economy and Finance. The main reason why these departments are selected for research implementation is that the students enrolled in these departments are, due to their departments, more interested in active use of English language. They also have additional English-related courses like “Business English-I” and “Business English-II”. The participants of the study are the 1st and 2nd grade students. Some of these students – students of Political Science and Public Administration- studied a one-year preparatory class. 134 students from the related departments participated in the research. The distribution of the students according to their departments is given in *Table 6* below:

Table 6
Departments of the participants

Department	Frequency (the Number of the Students)	Percent
Political Science and Public Administration	51	38,1
Finance	33	24,6
Banking and Finance	22	16,4
Economy	14	10,4
International Trades and Logistics	7	5,2
Business	7	5,2
Total	134	100%

As *Table 6* indicates, 134 students participated in the research. Among these students, 51 students are from the department of Political Science and Public Administration (38,1%), 33 students from the department of Finance (24,6%), 22 students from Banking and Finance (16,4), 14 students from the department of Economy (10,4%), 7 students from the department of International Trades and Logistics (5,2%) and 7 students from the department of Business (5,2%). As mentioned before, students from the departments of Political Science and Public Administration and International Trades and Logistics studied a one-year (two academic semesters) preparatory class, 58 students in total. The number of the students from these departments comprises 43,3% of the overall participants.

Although gender is not a variable to be examined in this research, it would be useful to see the number of male and female participants. *Table 7* below shows the distribution of the participants by gender:

Table 7
Gender of the participants

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Female	69	51,5
Male	65	48,5
Total	134	100%

Table 7 indicates that 69 female and 65 male students, and 134 in total, participated in the research.

Another demographic question directed to the participants was about their nation. The research was aimed to be conducted with EFL students, non-native speakers of English; hence, all the participants were intended to be selected among non-native students. For this aim, the participants were selected among non-native speakers of English. Table 8 below shows the participants' nationalities:

Table 8
Nationalities of the participants

Nationality	Frequency	Percent
Turkish	131	97,8
Azerbaijani	2	1,5
Afghan	1	0,7
Total	100	100%

As shown in *Table 8*, almost all the participants are from Turkish origin. Of 134 students participated in the study, only 3 students are from different origins- 2 Azerbaijani and 1 Afghan students. However, including these 3 students, all the students are EFL learners.

Lastly, students were asked about their overseas experience and the duration of this experience if they have any. Students were asked whether their experience is a) less than 2 months, b) between 2-12 months, c) more than 1-2 years, d) have no experience. Table 9 below summarizes the answers of the students to this question:

Table 9
Overseas experience of the participants

Overseas Experience	Frequency	Percent
Less than 2 months	4	3,0
Between 2-12 months	3	2,2
More than 1-2 years	1	0,7
No experience	126	94,0
Total	134	100%

As *Table 9* indicates, most of the students (94%) have no overseas experience. This situation, actually, is advantageous for the sake of the research since one of the aims of the research is to find out if students' preferences and insights towards the use of apology strategies can be changed when they are exposed to authentic language teaching materials such as role-plays, dialogues etc. The 3 students with overseas experience have no negative effect on the research since they have non-native background and are EFL learners.

There are types of sampling in research studies. Sampling in a research can be separated into two main headlines: probability sampling and non-probability sampling. In probability sampling, each member in the population has a chance to be selected for the research. This sampling type is mainly used in quantitative research and considered more valid compared to non-probability sampling. Probability sampling has four main types of probability samples. The figure below shows the types of probability sampling.

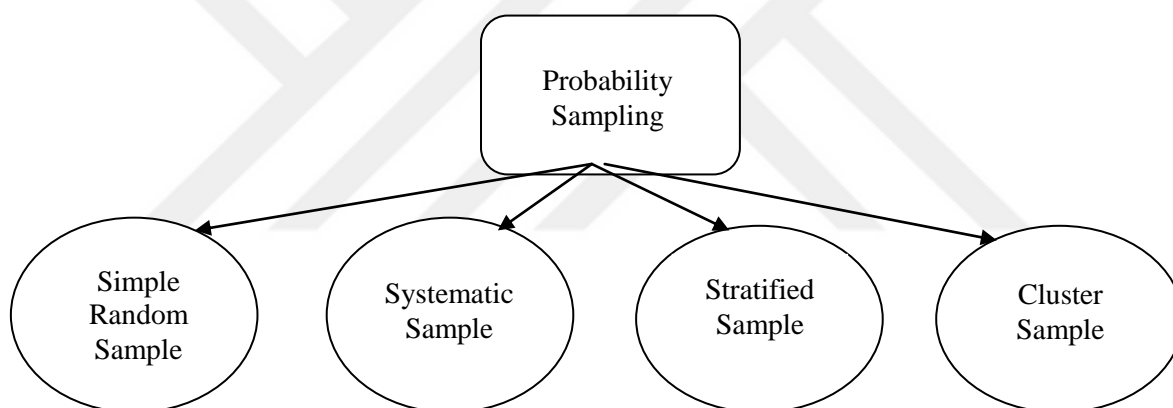


Figure 6. Types of probability sampling

In *Simple Random Sampling*, whole population is included in the sampling frame and every member of the population has a chance to be selected. In this type, tools like random number generators or similar techniques are often used.

The other type, *Systematic Sampling* is quite similar to Simple Random Sampling, however, this type is considered slightly easier. In this sampling, any tools like random number generator are not used. Each member is listed with a number and the individuals for the research are selected at regular intervals.

Stratified Sampling necessitates dividing the population into sub-groups (called strata) according to their characteristics such as gender, age, jobs etc. and, later, equal

number of participants are selected from these groups using random or systematic sampling. The aim here is to make sure that every sub-group is represented in the study with equal number of individuals.

In *Cluster Sampling*, the population is also divided into sub-groups. These sub-groups should have similar characteristics with the whole population. The researcher, instead of selecting individuals from each group, selects the whole group for the research. This type of sampling is advantageous while dealing with a very large population in the research.

When the *non-probability sampling methods* are considered, there are four types of sampling methods. In these methods, individuals' selection is based on non-random criteria, therefore, every individual does not have a chance to be selected for the research. This type of sampling is easier, however, the researcher may confront some sampling bias. First and foremost, the representativeness of non-probability sampling is weaker compared to probability sampling and, hence, the conclusions drawn from the research may be limited.

Non-probability sampling techniques are mostly used in exploratory and qualitative research since the aim in these research types is not to reach a broad population of samples but to develop an initial understanding of a small, limited group (Mccombes, 2021).

As mentioned above, there are four types of non-probability sampling. The figure below shows non-probability sampling methods:

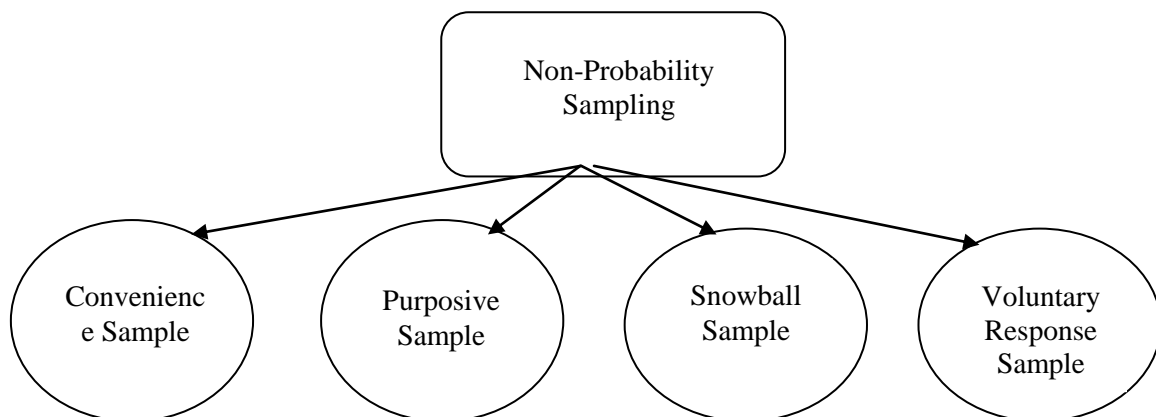


Figure 7. Types of non-probability sampling

Convenience Sampling is one of these methods. In Convenience Sampling, the researcher selects the most accessible individuals as participants. This is a very easy and effortless way to gather the data, however, it is weak to represent the whole population and the no generalizations can be done through this sampling.

In *Voluntary Response Sampling*, instead of the researcher's selection of the participants, people become volunteer to participate in the research. Although this method is stronger than Convenience Sampling, it still confronts some bias. For example, the researcher sends out a survey on a topic to be filled out by university students and students are asked to be volunteers to participate. Here, most probably, students who have interest in the specified topic will participate in the research and the researcher cannot make sure whether all the students have similar opinions. Therefore, the results founded are weak to generalize to a larger population.

In *Purposive Sampling*, the researcher selects the most relevant and useful individuals to participate in the research. Purposive sampling mostly preferred in qualitative research where the researcher wants to have detailed knowledge about a phenomenon rather than reaching statistical inferences. It is applicable in small groups of samples or specific groups of individuals (Mccombes, 2021).

Snowball Sampling is the fourth method to be discussed as non- probability sampling. In Snowball Sampling, the researcher reaches new participants via other participants. The sample group grows bigger like a snowball with the inclusion of new participants in the research.

In this present study, the researcher has selected the participants for the quantitative part of the research through *Simple Random Sampling*. The universe of the research is the EFL learners; the sample group includes students from the departments of Political Science and Public Administration, International Relations, International Trades and Logistics, Business, Banking and Finance, Economy and Finance at the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences at Hitit University. In the qualitative part of the study, *Purposive Sampling* is applied and students with higher level of English were selected. The participants were asked to participate in the research on a voluntary basis and informed that there is no obligation for participating in the research and they can withdraw from it any time.

3.4. Data Collection and Instruments

“Data collection is the process of gathering and measuring information on variables of interest, in an established systematic fashion that enables one to answer stated research questions, test hypotheses, and evaluate outcomes” (Sajjad Kabir, 2016: 202). It is one of the essential components of research studies including all disciplines from social sciences to physics, chemistry and even business. A researcher should, regardless of which field he is researching in, should collect the data in order to conduct the research and reach conclusions. Although methods applied in the research process vary considerably by discipline, the overall aim to reach accurate and reliable data remains constant.

In order to better understand the data collection process within the theoretical framework of the present study, it would be useful to examine research paradigms. This theoretical framework gives the researcher a path to follow throughout the research and often referred as “paradigm”. These research paradigms include positivist/postpositivist, interpretivist/constructivist, transformative and pragmatic paradigms and call for ontology and epistemology of the knowledge. According to Guba and Lincoln (2004: 21), ontology is “the form and nature of reality”. This means, ontology, as a philosophical field, examines what there is or exists and the different categories and entities within the reality. Some of the theories in ontology are pluralism, idealism and materialism. On the other hand, Teddlie and Tashakkori defines epistemology as “the relationship between the knower and known” (2009: 89) which means, as a philosophical field, epistemology focuses on the knowledge and how to reach it. One might also say that epistemology covers the knowledge. Examples of the theories within epistemology may include realism, relativism, rationalism/irrationalism. Table 10 below gives a summary of quantitative, qualitative and mixed methodologies including their ontology and epistemology.

Table 10
Nature of QUAN, QUAL and mixed methodologies (from Johnson& Christensen, 2014)

	Quantitative Research	Qualitative Research	Mixed-Methods Research
Scientific Method	Confirmatory or “top-down”- the researcher <i>tests</i> hypothesis and theory with data.	Exploratory or “bottom-up”- the researcher <i>generates or constructs</i> knowledge, hypothesis and grounded theory from data collected during fieldwork.	Confirmatory and exploratory
Ontology (i.e., nature of reality/truth)	Objective, material, structural, agreed-upon	Subjective, mental, personal and constructed	Pluralism; appreciation of objective, subjective and intersubjective realities and their interrelations.
Epistemology (i.e., theory of knowledge)	Scientific realism; search for truth; justification by empirical confirmation of hypothesis; universal scientific standards	Relativism; individual and group justification; varying standards.	Dialectical pragmatism; pragmatic justification (what works for whom in specific contexts); mixture of universal (e.g. always be ethical) and community-specific needs-based standards.
View of human thought and behavior	Regular and predictable	Situational, social, contextual, personal and unpredictable	Dynamic, complex, and partially predictable- multiple influences include environment/ nurture, biology/nature, freewill/agency and chance/fortuity
Most common research objectives	Quantitative/numerical description, causal explanation and prediction	Qualitative/subjective description, empathetic understanding and exploration	Multiple objectives; provide complex and fuller explanation and understanding understand multiple perspectives
Interest	Identify general scientific laws; inform national policy	Understand and appreciate particular groups and individuals; inform local policy	Connect theory and practice; understand multiple causation nomothetic (i.e., general) causation, and idiographic (i.e., particular, individual) causation; connect national and local interests and policy.
“Focus”	Narrow-angle lens, testing specific hypothesis	Wide-angle and “deep-angle” lens, examining the breadth and depth of phenomena to learn more about them	Multi-lens focus
Nature of observation	Study behavior under controlled conditions; isolate the causal effect of single variables	Study groups and individuals in natural settings; attempt to understand insiders’ views, meanings and perspectives.	Study multiple contexts, perspectives or conditions; study multiple factors as they operate together.
Form of data collected	Collect quantitative data based on precise measurement using structured and validated data collection instruments.	Collect qualitative data such as in-depth interviews, participant observation, field notes and open-ended questions. The researcher is the primary data collection instrument.	Collect multiple kinds of data.
Nature of data	Variables	Words, images, categories.	Mixture of variables, words, images and categories.
Data Analysis	Identify statistical relationship among variables.	Use descriptive data; search for patterns, themes and holistic features; and appreciate difference/variation.	Quantitative and qualitative analysis used separately and in combination
Results	Generalizable findings providing representation of objective outsider viewpoint of populations	Particularistic findings; provision of insider viewpoints	Provision of “subjective insider” and “objective outsider” viewpoints; presentation and integration of multiple dimensions and perspectives

Tablo 10 (continued)

Nature of QUAN, QUAL and mixed methodologies (from Johnson& Christensen, 2014)

Form of Final Report	Formal statistical report (e.g., with correlations, comparisons of means, and reporting of statistical significance of findings)	Less formal narrative report with contextual description and direct quotations from research participants	Mixture of numbers and narrative
-----------------------------	--	---	----------------------------------

This present study follows a mixed methodology in which a combination of qualitative and quantitative data were utilized to reach safe conclusions.

Table 11 below gives a summary of four main paradigms and main methodologies within:

Table 11
Paradigms, methods and tools (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006)

Paradigm	Methods (primarily)	Data collection tools (examples)
Positivist/ Post-positivist	Mainly quantitative (qualitative data can be utilized, still quantitative data is predominant)	Experiments Quasi-experiments Tests Scales
Interpretivist/ Constructivist	Qualitative methods predominate although quantitative methods may be utilized.	Interviews Observations Document reviews Visual data analysis
Transformative	Qualitative methods with quantitative and mixed methods.	Diverse range of tools - particular need to avoid discrimination. Eg: sexism, racism, and homophobia.
Pragmatic	Qualitative and/or quantitative methods may be employed. Methods are matched to the specific questions and purpose of the research.	May include tools from both positivist and interpretivist paradigms. Eg Interviews, observations and testing and experiments.

This study was conducted within the frame of *pragmatic paradigm*. Pragmatic paradigm in research provides a flexible approach to find out answers to the research questions. In pragmatic paradigm, different data collection tools can be employed to address different research questions. It can be stated that pragmatic paradigm does not restrict the researcher within a limited number of tools to collect data, rather, it focuses on what works best to reach better answers. Therefore, it provides more dynamic and innovative ways to research. According to this understanding of pragmatic paradigm, this

study employs a DCT to gather the quantitative data, addressing first and second research questions; on the other hand, it also utilizes semi-structured interviews to address the third research question.

3.4.1. Discourse Completion Test (DCT)

Discourse completion test, as an instrument in research, was developed by Shoshana Blum-Kulka in order to study speech act realizations comparing native and non-native Hebrew speakers (1989: 13-14). DCTs are used in pragmatics researches to find out the difference between naturally occurring language and scripted speech acts. DCTs, in researches, are often compared to role-plays in which the researchers also reach naturally occurring language, especially speech acts. However, in the use of role-plays, scoring the results matters and researchers or raters are expected to be fully objective, which is a problematic process. In DCTs, this evaluation process is more controlled and objective since evaluation criteria are more explicit.

“A discourse-completion test consists of scripted dialogues representing various scenarios, preceded by a short prompt describing the setting and situation” (Ivanovska et al., 2016: 438). This given prompt generally provides information about the social distance between the participants and preceding relationship of the participants and pre-event background to help the participants to create their own dialogues. The researcher never interferes the participants while they are constructing their dialogues. After the construction and presentation of the dialogues, the researcher may provide a session to talk about students’ performances.

DCTs are, currently, quite popular especially in cross-cultural studies. Its attraction for researchers stems from their being easy to implement and applicable to large number of participants. Besides, DCTs provides opportunity to reach results similar to real-world usage of language. McNamara and Roever state that DCTs “elicit something akin to real-world speech act performance and because they are still somewhat practical despite the need for rating - at least they can be administered to large numbers of test takers at the same time” (2006: 65). These points make DCTs preferable for the researchers.

On the other hand, DCT usage in language studies receives some critics. Firstly, as Golato (2003) mentioned, participants do not use language in DCTs in the same way they

use it in real-world communication. Rather, they observe their interlocutor and adjust their use of language according to interlocutor's reaction (Mcnamara and Roever, 2006). In this way, it should be argued how similar their word preferences in DCTs to their real-world communications. In addition to this, the differences between written and spoken language makes DCTs subject to critics. In real-world communication, facial expressions, tone of voice and numerous other non-verbal expressions play an important role and DCTs lack of these helpful indicators. In terms of these points, some scholars find DCT use meager comparing role-plays and other quantitative data gathering techniques. Nevertheless, its comfort and applicability in large number of participants in a limited time and its being advantageous for providing similar results with real-world language use makes it popular and preferable.

In the present study, a DCT developed by Rıdvan Tunçel was used. Tunçel developed the DCT named "Discourse Completion Test: An Investigation of Native and Non-Native Speech Act Realizations" in 1999 which was adapted from Cohen and Olshtein, 1981. The original version of the DCT consisted of 14 thanking and 14 apologizing situations. The reliability of the DCT was tested. To calculate the reliability, the final version of the DCT was repeated at certain intervals and the accepted level of 75% was reached. This calculation indicated that the DCT is reliable.

In the present research, the researcher has also examined the validity and reliability of the DCT. For this, Cronbach's Alpha was utilized to the test including 134 participants. According to the Cronbach's Alfa calculations, the DCT was found as reliable.

Table 12
Reliability of discourse completion test

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.714	56

For the validity, ANOVA Tukey's test was utilized and due to the test results, there was found a significant difference between the treatments. Tukey's test is used to assess whether the factor variables (categorical variables) are additively related to expected value of the response variable. Below is a table indicating test results for Tukey's test:

Table 13
Anova test results

ANOVA with Tukey's Test for Nonadditivity

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between People			38782,488	256	151,494		
Between Items			4426352,374	61	72563,154	712,383	,000
Nonadditivity			1329880,965 ^a	1	1329880,965	79636,369	,000
Within People	Residual	Balance	260761,403	15615	16,699		
Total			1590642,368	15616	101,860		
Total			6016994,742	15677	383,810		
Total			6055777,230	15933	380,078		

Grand Mean = 3,95

According to the Tukey's Test the mean value of implementation score was statistically significant between pre-test and post-test ($p = ,000$).

In order to test the validity, Hotelling's T Squared Test was also utilized and the scale value was found statistically significant at the level of $p = .000$. The table below gives the Hotelling's T Squared test results:

Table 14
Hotelling's T squared test results

Hotelling's T-Squared Test

Hotelling's T-Squared	F	df1	df2	Sig
19797,918	248,488	61	196	,000

Together with Hotelling's T Squared Test Results, Intraclass Correlation Coefficient also indicates that the results are statistically significant at the level of $p = .000$. The table below addresses the results of Intraclass Correlation Coefficient:

Table 15
The results of intraclass correlation tests

IntraclassCorrelationCoefficient							
	IntraclassCorrelation ^b	95% ConfidenceInterval		F Test with True Value 0			
		LowerBound	UpperBound	Value	df1	df2	Sig
SingleMeasures	,008 ^a	,004	,013	1,487	256	15616	,000
AverageMeasures	,328 ^c	,205	,440	1,487	256	15616	,000

In order to find out whether there is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test results, Chi-square was employed in the analysis. The reason behind the use of chi-square is that the data did not show a normal distribution. In such cases, non-parametric tests were employed in the analysis of the data. Chi-square, which is one of the non-parametric tests, provides to chance to make multiple comparisons among the data and it is helpful to reach meaningful results, as in this study.

Discourse Completion Test, developed by Tunçel, includes items concerning social distance between the speaker and hearer such as professor to student, parent to child, employer and employee or items concerning student to professor, child to parent and employee to employer. All these items provide different relationship prompts in order to investigate how social distance affects language use or understand whether the participants are able to use appropriate and authentic speech acts while apologizing. Additionally, students were provided meta-pragmatic instructions about the use of apology strategies in which they handled meta-pragmatic discussions for 3 weeks, and a pre-test at the beginning of the research and a post-test after it were implemented. The speech acts used by the participants in both tests were compared to find out whether there is a significant difference. This comparison has also revealed how effective is the meta-pragmatic instruction process for EFL students' development of a pragmatic competence in authentic use of speech acts.

For this present study, 14 items including apologizing situations were taken into consideration by the researcher. Examples from the DCT implemented in this research were given below:

Situation 5

You promised a textbook to your classmate within a day or two, after copying a chapter. You held onto it almost two weeks. Your classmate says “I’m really upset about the book because I needed it to prepare for last week’s class.” What do you say?

You say:

Example 5 from the DCT indicates a situation concerning a relationship between two friends which means it includes an informal context. Another example is given below:

Situation 11

You’ve forgotten to return the book you borrowed from your professor. On the staff corridor you come across your professor. What do you say?

You say:

Example 11 from the DCT indicates a situation including a relationship between students and a professor. This is a formal context in which the student is expected to follow the rules of courtesy and adjust the language accordingly. As can be observed, these two situations investigate the student’s approach to the hearer concerning the same situation in two different contexts (the speaker borrowed a book and didn’t return it back). However, in one situation the dialogue is between two friends and, in the second situation, the dialogue takes place between a student and a professor. Students’ usage of language and apology strategy preferences is necessitated to differ in these two contexts. In Example 5, the participant is expected to use an informal language and it may cause limited number of strategies. On the other hand, in Example 11, the participant is in the role of a student and communicates with his professor. In this example, the participant is expected to use a more kind language and make formal word choices. Additionally, a formal situation may result in a variety of apology strategies. Informal contexts may often lead the use of direct apology strategies (e.g. I’m sorry). Yet, in formal contexts participants tend to use of more strategies, especially indirect strategies like taking the responsibility (It’s my fault) or offering a repair (Let me fix it!). Use of intensity words are also expected to be used more in formal situations. The following example gives a similar sense:

Situation 2

You completely forgot a crucial meeting at the office with your boss. An hour later you call him to apologize. The problem is that this is the second time you've forgotten such a meeting. Your boss gets on the line and asks "What happened to you?" What do you say?

You say:

In Situation 2, a communicative act taking place between an employee and his boss is given. As stated above, here the speaker is expected to use a formal language and make word preferences accordingly. As Situation 3 is examined, it is seen that the same situation (forgetting a meeting) is given again. But this time, the speaker and the hearer are friends and the speaker is expected to explain his not attending meeting to his friend. Here, an informal use of language and word preferences can be observed and expected. These two situations examined speaker's strategy uses in two different contexts. Situation 3 is given below:

Situation 3

You forget a get-together with a friend. You call him to apologize. This is really the second time you've forgotten such a meeting. Your friend asks over the telephone "What happened?" What do you say?

You say:

As these examples indicate, the situations given in the DCT measure the role of social distance, the speakers' attitudes in a variety of context and try to find out the differences in the use of apology strategies. Additionally, as in Situation 5, the researcher aim to examine the attitudes of the speakers in contexts in which they commit the offense and need to apologize. Items like *Situation 4*, not only measures the characteristics of the preferred apology strategies, but also they measure the speakers' level of politeness towards familiar and unfamiliar individuals, especially when they face a deprecating attitude as in this situation. Situation 4 is given below:

*“Backing out of a parking lot, you run into the side of another car. It was clearly your fault. You dent in the right door slightly. The driver gets out and comes over to you angrily and say “Can’t you look where you’re going. See what you’ve done!”
What would you say?*

You say:

Situation 6 also provides a situation in which the speaker is the offender and need to apologize toward an unfamiliar individual.

Situation 6

You accidentally bump into a well-dressed elderly lady at an elegant department store, causing her to spill all over her packages on the floor. You hurt your leg, too. It’s clearly your fault and you want to apologize profusely. What do you say?

You say:

The participants’ attitude toward a familiar individual would be expected to be more polite and understanding compared to unfamiliar individuals. In such situations, participants tend to use *direct apology strategies* rather than indirect strategies and responses including more than one strategy. This present research also aims to examine the participants’ responses from this perspective. For this, Situation 14 includes a context in which one of the partners is expected to apologize from his/her spouse. In this situation, speaker’s level of politeness toward a familiar individual can be observed.

Situation 14

You are married. Both you and your spouse work. You come home late from work and find that your spouse has done some work around the house that you had promised to do but had not had a chance to do. What do you say?

You say:

These items in the DCT clearly show that the scale investigates the use of apology strategies in many perspectives. The analysis of the responses will provide a quite comprehensive viewpoint to the researchers.

Together with quantitative data collected through the DCT, a large quantity of qualitative data was gathered in the research. During the process in which students participate in meta-pragmatic discussions, the students participated in various awareness-raising activities in which they constructed their own dialogues, participated in peer work or small groups, performed role-plays and improved each other's dialogues due to the feedback by the researcher. For instance, the dialogue construction activity took part among the first week's activities. Later in the following weeks, after they were exposed to meta-pragmatic instruction, the participants were asked to focus on their dialogues and improve them accordingly to include more appropriate strategies. They were also reminded to consider the level of politeness in the dialogues. The responses gathered from dialogues were analyzed and compared to the DCT results to reach an overall conclusion. It is noteworthy that, the participants are asked to role-play their dialogues in the class to make them visible and discussable. Below is an example of a dialogue constructed in the first week:

Dialogue 1:

A: Shall we have a tea at 19:00 in a café today?

B: It is good idea, my friend.

A: See you in the evening.

(Person A forgets the meeting and explains.)

A: I'm very sorry, I couldn't come. I will call you later.

B: No problem. Ok.

In this first dialogue, there is observed quite limited number of apology strategies. In the second (improved) version of the dialogue, it is observed that the speaker uses more number and variety of apology strategies. Dialogue 1 after the meta-pragmatic discussions is in the following:

Dialogue 1 (developed version)

A: Shall we have a tea at 19:00 in a café today?

B: Yes, good idea my friend.

A: See you in the evening.

(Person A forgets the meeting and explains.)

A: I'm sorry, I'm really sorry, I'm really sick, I couldn't come. I left you in a difficult situation. How can I compensate?

B: No problem.

A: Oops, I should have notified you beforehand. I promise I will not make such mistakes again. Shall we go and eat this evening? It is on me this time.

B: Ok, thanks.

As the two versions of the dialogue show, after taking the meta-pragmatic instruction, participants had the tendency to use higher number of strategies. Participants also preferred to use a variety of strategies while apologizing compared to the first version of the dialogue. The dialogues will be analyzed in detail in Chapter 3- *Findings*. It should be noted here that the grammatical mistakes of the participants were not taken into consideration since this research aims to focus on pragmatic use of language.

3.4.2. Semi-Structured Interviews (SSI)

Semi-structured interviews are data collection processes, especially in social sciences, which blend closed- and open ended questions, and often accompanied by why and how questions (Adams, 2015). The dialogue between the interviewer and interviewee can meander around the topics on the agenda and go into unexpected issues instead of strictly following the items in a standardized survey. This is advantageous because issues unforeseen or overlooked by the interviewer may come into question and may help the interviewer gain a different perspective.

Unlike structured interview, a semi-structured interview does not deal with a rigorous set of questions. It includes quite limited number of questions which are debatable and open to new insights. SSIs mainly used in qualitative research where the in-depth answers of the participants are coined and regarded. However, it is a disadvantage of SSIs that they take time and almost impossible to employ to large group of participants. On the other hand, an adequate number of participants are necessitated in terms of the reliability of the research. SSIs require good planning, communication and interviewing skills or each

semi-structured interview may take hours to complete. They are, most of the time, are employed as a supporter of quantitative data in mixed-methods researches.

SSIs are well-suited to discuss issues which cannot be addressed in a quantitative data gathering processes or structured interviews. In this present study, in order to find out in-depth understandings of the participants for the third research question, semi-structured interviews will be employed by the researcher.

3.5. Data Analysis

The term “data” is defined, according to Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, as “facts or information, especially when examined and used to find out things or to make decisions”. It is also referred as “individual facts, statistics, or items of information, often numeric” in OECD Glossary of Statistical Terms (2008: 119). The glossary further explains data saying “in a more technical sense, data are a set of values of qualitative and quantitative variables about one or more persons and objects” (2008: 119). Hence, it can be inferred that, the term “data” means a set of information including facts, graphics, statistics, measurements to be analyzed later.

Data analysis is, in short, “a method of putting facts and figures to solve the research problem” (Ashirwadam, n.d. p.1). More broadly, it can be defined as a method of transforming, cleansing, and modeling data to find information relevant for commercial decision-making (Johnson, 2021). The aim of data analysis is to extract useful information from the gathered data and make reliable and generalizable interpretations based on it. There are two types of data analysis process: Linear and Cyclical. In linear process, the analysis proceeds step-by-step and one cannot move to the next step before completing the former. The linear model provides a more structured and organized model of analysis however, this organization may limit the effectiveness of the analysis since it does not let the researcher to move back and forth among the steps. For example, when the researcher finds out a new point to be discusses in the research, he has no chance to move back and re-organize the process. Below is a model of Linear Analysis Process:

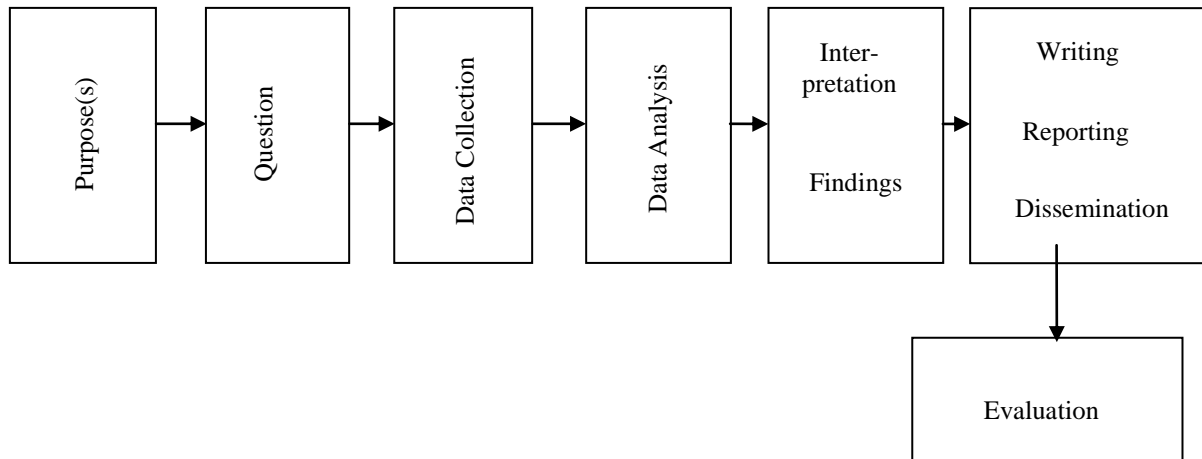


Figure 8. Data analysis as a linear process (Richmond, 2006: 14)

Cyclical data analysis is, on the other hand, provides to opportunity to work on different components of the analysis process at different times and in different orders as long as the researcher(s) reach up to the end. Hence, it ensures the flexibility of the analysis process. The researcher(s) can go back to any step of the process to handle an issue or improve the process. One disadvantage of the model is that it is less structured compared to the Linear Process, on the other hand, the opportunity of the model to go back and fix the details and its “learn-by-doing” nature may be considered as an advantage. Figure 9, below, shows the Cyclical Data Analysis Process:

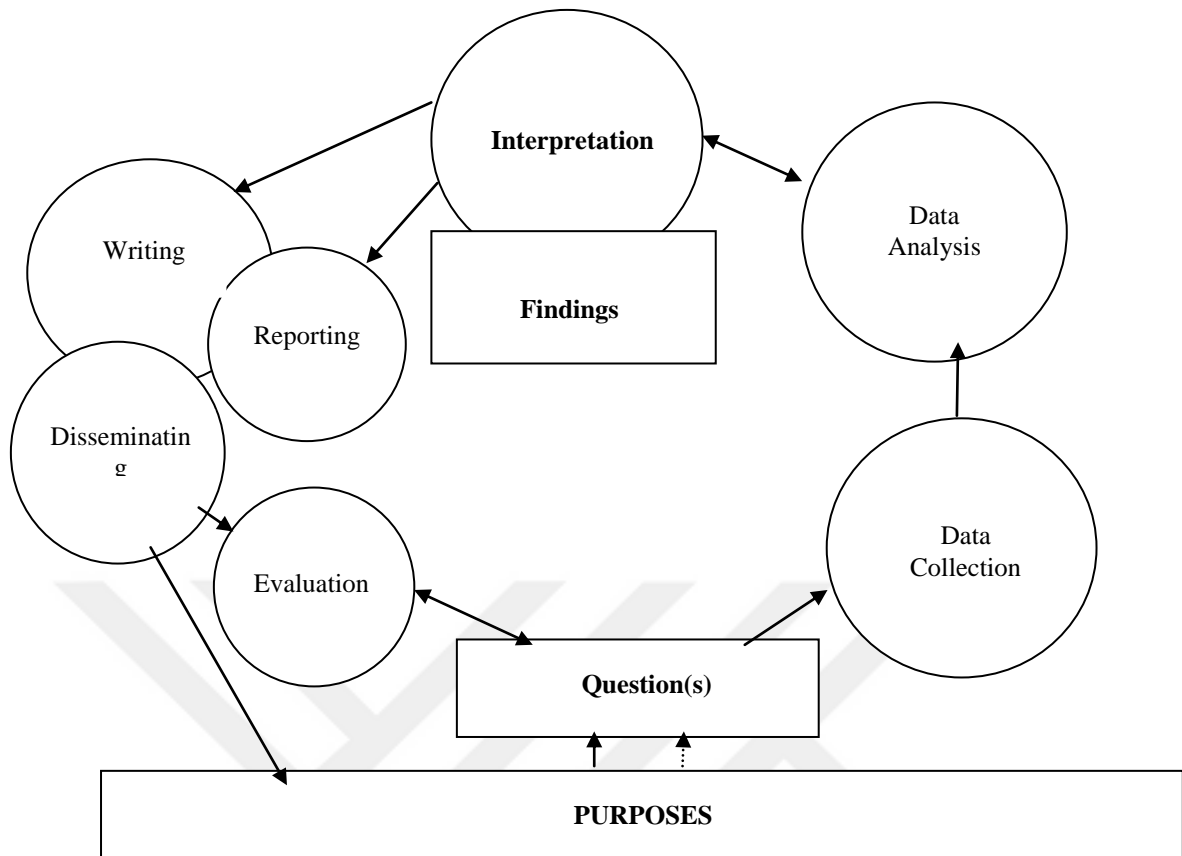


Figure 9. Data analysis as a cyclical process (Richmond, 2006: 15)

As Figure 9 shows, Cyclical Data Analysis process maintains the interaction among the steps throughout the whole analysis process. The interaction, especially among processes of Interpretation and Data Analysis, and, Research Questions and Evaluation contribute to the process and improve the research due to the its flexible nature.

In this present study, Linear Data Analysis Process will be followed by the researcher. As mentioned, this process of analysis offers a more structured and organized model. Its well-structured nature hinders the unexpected problems and confusions during the research.

The gathered data were analyzed according to a classification of apology strategies by Andrew Cohen and his colleagues in 1985. In this study, he developed a taxonomy of apology speech acts which is given below:

Table 16
The taxonomy of apology speech acts (Adapted from Cohen et al. 1985)

Five Apology Strategies	Combination or Absence of Strategies	Modification of Strategies
<p>Direct Apology (IFID): “Sorry”, “Excuse”, “Forgive”, “Apologize”, “Pardon” +combinations and repetition</p>	<p>Combination of Strategies</p>	<p>Intensity of Apology: Really, very, so, terribly, awfully, truly +combinations and repetitions</p>
<p>Explanation: non-specific (e.g., “There have been a lot of things distracting me at work lately”); specific (e.g., My boss called me to an urgent meeting)</p>	<p>No apology Strategies (Absence of Strategies)</p>	<p>Minimizing Responsibility: (e.g., “Didn’t I tell you I don’t know the bus stops so well?”)</p>
<p>Responsibility: implicit (e.g., I was sure I gave you the directions correctly), lack of intent (I didn’t mean to...); self-deficiency (How could I be so clumsy?); self-blame (It’s my fault)</p>		<p>Denial of Responsibility: Denial of fault (It’s not my fault), Blaming hearer (It’s your fault!)</p>
<p>Repair: -unspecified- (e.g., Can I help you?); specified-“Let me pick up these books for you)</p>		<p>Emotionals: Interjection (Oh!, Oops!), invocation (god!, Jesus!), or curse (Shit!), +combinations</p>
<p>Promise of Forbearance: (e.g., I promise it won’t happen again)</p>		<p>Minimizing Offense (e.g., “It’s OK. No harm done.”)</p>
		<p>Comments: -about self (How could I?); about others (Are you O.K.?); about situation (I don’t see any damage, thank goodness!) +combinations</p>

In this taxonomy of apology strategies, Cohen and his colleagues (1985: 6) define five main apology strategies and six types of modification strategies. They also mention situations including combination or absence of strategies. These, together, form a taxonomy of apology strategies.

First and foremost, Cohen et al. (1985) focus on five main apology strategies. These main strategies can be divided into two as direct and indirect strategies. Direct strategies indicate “an expression of apology” which is also called illocutionary force indicating device (IFID). *Direct strategies*, although their role is similar, are used to fulfill three main tasks:

a. An expression of regret

“I’m sorry”

b. An offer of apology

“I apologize”

c. A request for forgiveness

“Excuse me” or “Forgive me”

These three speech acts are direct expressions of regret, apology and forgiveness request. They are directly included into the sentence with sample words and not open to implications. That is why they are called *direct strategies*.

On the other hand, indirect strategies can be included in the sentences with direct expressions or they may be implied by the speaker. These indirect strategies can be examined under four sub-headings:

Explanation (EXP)

While expressing their apologies, speakers may prefer to make explanations. For instance, a student misses the bus and cannot attend the class and explains it to his professor saying *“I couldn’t attend the class because I missed the bus this morning.”* Here the student provides an explanation for he is being late for the class. These explanations may be specific and provide clear reasons as *“My boss called me to an urgent meeting”* or may be non-specific and provide more general reasons as *“There have been a lot of things distracting me at work lately”*.

Responsibility (RES)

The speaker may prefer to take the responsibility of his offense while apologizing. He can express it implicitly, for example saying *“I was sure I gave you the directions correctly”*; express his lack of intent in the offense saying *“I didn’t mean to...”*; can mention his self-deficiency *“How could I be so clumsy?”*; or blame himself for the offense saying *“It’s my fault”*. These expressions indicate that the speaker takes the responsibility of his offense.

Repair (REP)

When the speaker is aware of his offence, he can offer to repair it. For example, if someone borrows a book from a friend and loses it, he can feel guilty and offer to buy a new one. This is the strategy of repair in the taxonomy of apology. An offer of repair can be specified- "*Let me pick up these books for you.*" or unspecified- "*Can I help you?*"

Promise of Forbearance (FORB)

The speaker may ask for forbearance while apologizing and promise to never repeat the mistake again. This is an indirect strategy of apology. After making a mistake and regretting, one can say "*This will never happen again!*" and this is a promise of forbearance and accepted as an indirect apology.

Cohen et al. (ibid.) also defined modification of strategies in their taxonomy. These modification strategies include intensity words (INTS) such as (very, really etc.) and emotionals (EMOT) (Oh!, Oops! etc.) together with strategies to strengthen or lessen the impact of the apology. Among these the below strategies are listed:

Minimizing Responsibility (MRES)

In this strategy, the speaker is aware of the mistake he commit, however, tries to minimize the responsibility he needs to take on. For example, someone asks which bus to take to school to his friends, receives and answers and walks to the bus stop to take on the bus. But, later, he realizes that the bus stop was not the correct one and he missed the bus. In this situation, the friend can say "*Didn't I tell you I don't know the bus stops so well?*" Here, the friend seems to minimize the responsibility.

Denial of Responsibility (DRES)

In the above example, when his friend misses the bus, one can say "*It's not my fault!, You should have checked it from the schedule.*" In this situation, this shows *a denial of responsibility*. Similarly, if one says "*It's your fault!*" over his offense, he tries to deny the responsibility.

Minimizing the Offense (MINOFF)

In the above situations, the person tries to avoid the responsibility of the mistake that is committed by another person. However, when someone minimizes the offense, the committer is himself, the offense is already done and this person tries to avoid from the outcomes of the offense. For instance, when a person poured tea on his friend's book and said "*No harm done! Don' worry!*", he is aware of the mistake he made and he wants to avoid from the outcomes.

Comments on Self (COMT)

Over committing a mistake, one can comment about himself like "*How stupid I am!*" or about the situation "*Thanks God! This is an easy situation to overcome!*" Commenting on himself or about the situation is also a modification strategy.

Combination of Strategies

The strategies in this taxonomy introduced by Cohen et al. (1985, p.7) can also be used as a combination. In other words, the responses of the participants can possibly include more than one strategy and make a combination of strategies. It is frequently observed that participants tend to use one strategy (mostly direct) or combination of two strategies (one direct + one indirect strategy such as IFID+EXP) in informal situations or socially close situations (social distance). In a broad sense, one can express his apologies saying "I'm sorry, I couldn't call you last night" or "I'm sorry, I forgot to take my phone with me". The first statement offers one direct strategy and the second statement includes a combination of an IFID and EXP, a combination. Most of the time, speakers tend to use one direct strategy only while talking to a friend or family member. However, in more formal situations, such as where they express apologies to their boss or a professor from the university, they tend to use various strategies including more than 2 or 3 apology strategies. In such situation, people tend to express their apologies as such "I'm very sorry sir! I forgot to call you last night and that's my mistake. How can I compensate for it?" and this sentence is a combination of a direct apology (IFID) + responsibility (RESP) + repair (REP) + an intensity word 'very' (INTS). The quality of the apology strategies in speakers' responses depends on the situation/context.

A very simple example expresses it well. In this example, the same participant's reactions to two situations:

Situation 2

You completely forgot a crucial meeting at the office with your boss. An hour later you call him to apologize. The problem is that this is the second time you've forgotten such a meeting. Your boss gets on the line and asks "What happened to you?" What do you say?

Response: I'm sorry, sir. I was late for a family reason. I will not repeat.

Situation 2 is a formal context in which the speaker needs to express apologies for not attending a meeting. The response received from Student 87 (S87) includes three strategies which is a combination of I'm sorry (IFID) + Explanation (EXP) + A promise of Forbearance (FORB). This response includes 3 apology strategies; one direct and two indirect strategies. Situation 3, on the other hand, includes a more informal context in which the speaker communicates with a friend:

Situation 3

You forget a get-together with a friend. You call him to apologize. This is really the second time you've forgotten such a meeting. Your friend asks over the telephone "What happened?" What do you say?

Response from S87: I'm sorry man. I can buy you a coffee tomorrow.

Compared to Situation 2, Situation 3 is a more informal setting and the speaker is expected to express his apologies to a friend. When the response from the same student (S87) is examined, it is observed that the response includes one direct (IFID) + one indirect (REP) strategies. It is still a combination, but with less number of strategies.

As suggested, the participant used more number of strategies in a formal context and less number of strategies in an informal context. He did not even need to provide an explanation for not coming to the meeting in Situation 3. Besides, the participant tended to use a more informal language in Situation 3 which is discussed in the next topic, Politeness.

The gathered data will also be analyzed in terms of politeness strategies. Some responses may include face threatening acts (FTAs) especially in the pre-test. This is mostly due to the low level of knowledge about social distance or cultural differences. Some other responses can be rude in nature. In post-test, these inappropriate responses are expected to decrease in number and turn into FSAs. These will be examined separately.

The analysis of the each response will be analyzed according to a sample coding schema. Table 8 below shows an example of it:

Table 17
Sample coding schema

Situation:											
Participant:											
Pre-test / Post-test											
Situation	IFID	EXP	RESP	REP	FORB	MRES	DRES	MINOFF	COMT	INTS	EMOTS
1											
2											
3											

All the responses from the participants are coded into this schema and later turned into SPSS data for statistical analysis. For example, below is a response from S71 to Situation 2:

“I’m so sorry Sir. I forgot because of the rush. I promise it won't happen again.”

This answer will be coded as IFID + EXP+ FORB + INTS which means the response includes a direct apology + an explanation + a promise of forbearance + and intensity word.

Another example is a more complicated response from S41 to Situation 4 including various strategies. To better understand, it will be useful to have a look at Situation 4:

Situation 4

Backing out of a parking lot, you run into the side of another car. It was clearly your fault. You dent in the right door slightly. The driver gets out and comes over to

*you angrily and say “Can’t you look where you’re going? See what you’ve done!”
What would you say?*

First of all, it should be mentioned that Situation 4 includes a context which can lead the speaker to face threatening acts (FTAs) and impolite responses. Below is the response of P41 to Situation 4:

“Sorry! Accidents happen without warning. I will cover your expenses. Don't worry about it. Please forgive me for my mistake”

It is clearly visible that this response is a combination of direct and indirect strategies. This statement can be coded as IFID+ MINOFF+REP+ IFID+MINOFF. However, the researcher prefers to note down one strategy for one response, which means no matter how many times IFID is used by the participants, it will be coded as IFID only once in the schema. This is because some participants tended to overuse the strategies which is way not consistent with real life and causes a turgidness in the number of strategies. Hence, no matter how many times a strategy is preferred in a response, it will be coded once. This response will be coded as IFID+MINOFF+REP. It is also worthy of notice that this response includes a modification strategy which is *minimizing the offense*. Here, the speaker clearly minimizes his offense saying “*Accidents happen without warning*” and “*Don’t worry about it*”.

All the quantitative data gathered through DCTs and classified according to the taxonomy created by Cohen et al. (1985) were analyzed in Statistical Program for Social Sciences (SPSS) using Person Chi-Square Tests in order to find out whether there is a significant difference between pre-test and post-test implementations. The qualitative data gathered from semi-structured interviews were also used to see whether they support the results received from DCT implementation and uncover the factors which affect learners as they apply the apology strategies in their responses.

In the data analysis process, inter-rater reliability was performed in order to avoid any kind of mistakes or inconsistencies in the categorization of strategies in the participant responses. The researcher worked with another expert from ELT department for the content analysis. This expert has experience more than 10 years in language teaching and his doctoral studies in English Language Teaching are ongoing which means he is

competent in language studies. These two experts, one of which is the researcher of the present study, worked together in the categorization process of the responses in the DCT according to the taxonomy of Cohen et al. (1985) and discussed under which category each response should be placed. They also worked together to analyze the semi-structured interviews to reach reliable results.

When it comes to the ethical considerations, all the ethical applications were made to the related departments through the Deanship of the faculty. These departments include Political Science and Public Administration, International Relations, International Trades and Logistics, Business, Banking and Finance, Economy and Finance at Hitit University. These departments were kindly asked to give the necessary permission for the study and application of DCT. After the permission, the study was carried out with the voluntary students. They were informed about the research, where to use the gathered data and mentioned that they can withdraw from the research any time. After this process, the raw data gathered from the research were analyzed to reach reliable and generalizable results. It is also noteworthy that, the study, before its implementation at Hitit University, was accepted by the Ethics Committee at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University and was given the necessary information to conduct.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS

In this section of the study, the results and findings gathered from the participants through the specified instruments are presented. This section also includes the interpretation of the gathered data and discussions.

4.1. Discourse Completion Test

4.2. Results of Pre-Test Implementation

As mentioned in the previous chapter, this research includes 134 participants from the departments of Political Science and Public Administration, International Trades and Logistics, Business, Banking and Finance, Economy and Finance at the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences at Hitit University. These participants took a DCT with 14 items on the use of apology strategies. Here, the pre-test results of the implemented DCT will be given place.

4.2.1. Pre-Test Results of Situation 1

The first situation in the DCT includes a formal context in which the participants are asked to apologize from one of the participants of a formal meeting for insulting him in a community. This situation necessitates the participants to use a more formal language and often requires use of more number of apology strategies, especially explanation (EXP) strategy. Before giving the frequencies, it would be helpful to give the situation. Situation 1 in the DCT is given below:

Situation 1

You're at a meeting and you say something that one of the participants interprets as a personal insult to him. What do you say?

This situation received 247 responses in total, most of which is direct apology (IFID). IFID is followed by Explanation (EXP) and Denial of Responsibility (DRES). The frequency of the apology strategies applied in the present situation is given in Table 18 below:

Table 18
The frequencies of situation 1

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	95	38.4
EXP	39	15.7
RES	33	13.3
REP	2	0.8
FORB	-	-
MRES	2	0.8
DRES	58	23.4
MINOFF	2	0.8
COMT	-	-
INTS	5	2.0
EMOTS	2	0.8
RUDE	9	3.6
TOTAL	247	100

As Table 18 indicates, the total number of the responses given to Situation 1 by the participants is 247. Most of the responses, as observed, include direct apology words such as sorry or apologize (IFID). It is easily observed that participants tended to offer quick apologies when they have offenses towards others. The total number of IFIDs in Situation 1 is 38,4 percent of all the preferred apologies, which is a quite high number. Direct apologies are followed by Denial of Responsibility which makes the 23, 4 percent of all the responses. The number of DRES is considerably high in Situation 1 in the pre-test results. As the participant responses are examined, it can be observed that quite high number of responses include the below statements which address to DRES:

“You misunderstood!”,

“You got it wrong!”

Following DRES, the participant responses indicate that the EXP comes third in the list which means the participants tended to explain the reasons for their offenses. Total number of EXPs in Situation 1 makes 15, 7 percent of all the strategies used. One of the responses including EXP is as such:

“Sorry, ma’am. I’m very tired and couldn’t talk appropriately.”

“I’m very sorry for insulting you. I didn’t mean to offend you but I’m very nervous nowadays.”

Participant responses, later, show that participants tended to take the responsibility of their offenses with the percent of 13.3 among all the strategies preferred. This shows large number of participants accepted their offenses and ingenuously took the responsibility saying:

P17: "Seemingly, you misunderstood me, sir. sorry, I didn't mean to say that."

P24: "I'm sorry you took it personally. I didn't mean to offend you. I didn't say it as an insult."

P70: "Sorry! I couldn't think this subject could hurt you."

The use of RES strategies in Situation 1 is followed by REP, MRES and MINOFF at the level of 0.8 percent for each. This means each strategy was used two times in the responses for this situation.

It is noteworthy that, among 247 responses given for Situation 1, there are 9 responses which can be considered as "rude". In short, 3,6 percent of all responses are listed as rude. Some of these responses are given below:

P73: "Glad you feel!"

P72: "This is my opinion. You may not like it, but you have to respect it."

P59: "Defend yourself, defend your ideas but listen first."

P51: "I've never said anything about you, but I'd like to point out that your attitude is a paranoid disease."

When it comes to modification of strategies, 5 of the responses for Situation 1 include intensity words (INTS) like very, really etc. which is 2.02 percent of total number of responses. Besides, 2 of the responses (0, 80%) have emotional (EMOTS) such as "Oh!" or "Ah!".

4.2.2. Pre-Test Results of Situation 2

Second situation in the DCT describes a context between a worker and his boss. In this situation, the worker forgets a meeting with his boss and needs to express apologies for this situation. It is a context in which the participant is necessitated to use a more formal language due to the nature of the communication between the offender and the hearer. Situation 2 is given below:

Situation 2

You completely forgot a crucial meeting at the office with your boss. An hour later you call him to apologize. The problem is that this is the second time you've forgotten such a meeting. Your boss gets on the line and asks "What happened to you?" What do you say?

Situation 2 received 269 responses from the participants in total, which is a very high amount. The frequencies of the apology strategies preferred by the participants are given below in Table 19:

Table 19
The frequencies of situation 2

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	100	37.1
EXP	59	21.9
RES	30	11.1
REP	10	3.7
FORB	41	15.2
MRES	0	-
DRES	0	-
MINOFF	0	-
COMT	4	1.4
INTS	22	8.1
EMOTS	0	-
RUDE	3	1.1
TOTAL	269	100

As Table 19 indicates, IFID is the mostfavoured apology strategy in Situation 2. The situation received 100 direct apologies which makes 37,1% of the total amount. EXP, taking place in 59 participant responses, comes second in the list of preferred strategies which shows that participants tended to make explanations for their offenses (21,9%).

Number three in the list is FORB, which is considerably higher comparing to Situation 1, and makes the 15,2% of total amount of strategies applied. Some of the responses including EXP are given as examples below:

P32: Sorry I had an accident while coming to the meeting so I couldn't come.

P7: "Traffic was very busy."

P42: "Sorry. I have family problems. It came out of my mind. I forgot that there was a meeting.(S42)

As the examples above show, many participants have asserted acceptable explanations and apologies for their offenses. It is clear that, most of the time, participants preferred to use combination of strategies rather than being stick to one strategy. For example, the first statement from S32 is a combination of IFID and EXP. The third example from S42 given above is also a good combination of IFID and EXP, on the other hand, the second apology includes only one strategy which is EXP.

Some examples from participant responses addressing to FORB are as such:

P98: "Sorry for forgetting. I am a bit forgetful these days. It won't happen again."

P129: "Sir, I know I'm wrong, but it won't happen again. I'm sorry."

P127: "I know it was an important meeting and it was the second time I forgot to attend the meeting. I apologize from my bottom of the heart and I promise you that it will not be repeated again, I will take it seriously."

P66: "Completely out of my mind. Will never happen again."

One of the popular strategies in this Situation is RES. 30 of 269 participant responses include RES strategy which is 11,15 percent of all responses. Some examples are given below:

P126: "I realize that this is a very big mistake and I repeat it second time. You can believe that I will not make any mistakes again."

P84: "I'm so sorry boss. I forgot between the hustle and bustle. Please forgive me for this time."

The number of REP strategies, in Situation 2, is 10 which is 3,7 percent of total number of responses.

P85: "Boss, I'll make it up to you."

P29: "I'm sorry, sir. I am having a very bad time these days, it is completely out of my mind but I will really fix myself as soon as possible. I'll be more careful, sorry there will be no such problem again, sorry again"

P6: "I am so sorry sir I will compensate for my mistake in the best way."

P117: "Sorry. How can i compensate for this?"

In Situation 2,2 of the responses include intensity words such as *really*, *so* or *very*. The below examples are indicators. 4 of the responses include participants' comments about themselves (1,4 percent), the examples are given:

P41: "I'm so sorry, boss, I'm so pensive these days, I'm sorry."

P5: "I am a little bit pensive nowadays.. Such a situation will not happen again."

P69: "I apologize for my second time, I was confused, and this will not happen again."

Below is a good example of strategy combination which includes IFID+EXP+RESP+FORB strategies and a COMT:

P45: "Nowadays I am experiencing some problems so I am quite distracted. I apologize for the trouble I created, you have my sincere apology. I assure that such a thing will never happen again."

There are also 3 rude responses which makes 1.1 percent of all responses. Rude answers are as followed:

P35: I had more important things than the meeting. sorry.

P118: “This is the end of my job.”

4.2.3. Pre-Test Results of Situation 3

Third situation in the DCT describes a similar context with Situation 2, however, the context here can be considered more informal than it. It again describes a setting in which a meeting will take place, but not with boss but with a friend. Situation 3 is given below:

Situation 3

You forget a get-together with a friend. You call him to apologize. This is really the second time you've forgotten such a meeting. Your friend asks over the telephone "What happened?" What do you say?

Table 20
The frequencies of situation 3

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	91	38
EXP	65	27.1
RES	15	6.2
REP	33	13.8
FORB	8	3.3
MRES	0	-
DRES	0	-
MINOFF	0	-
COMT	5	2
INTS	15	6.2
EMOTS	0	-
RUDE	7	2.9
TOTAL	239	100

According to the Table 20, IFID is the most popular apology strategy preferred by the participants in Situation 3 (38%). IFID is followed by EXP with 27,1% of the total number of responses. Some of the responses including IFID+EXP are given below:

P9: “I’m sorry. I was taking a shower.”

P19: “Sorry. I’ m very busy these days. Forgive me please.”

P69: “My mother got sick and we took her hospital, I am sorry about it”

P71: "An unexpected guest came, so I forgot you. sorry about that."

As the frequencies are considered, REP comes after EXP in the list. Among the total number of responses, 33 include REP strategy (13.8%). Some of the responses including REP are given below:

P22: "I am very sorry buddy , I will compensate this soon and take your heart."

P88: "I forgot. Please don't be mad at me. I will compensate. I'm so sorry."

P116: "I'm very busy at work. I forgot that we will meet. Sorry but i will compensate."

RES comes after REP in the list of frequencies for this Situation. 15 of the responses have a RES strategy (13.8%) which means these participants take the responsibility of their offenses:

P96: "Excuse me, It's completely out of my mind."

P86: "very sorry my fault"

Out of total, 8 responses include a FORB strategy which makes 3.34% of all responses. This means 8 of the participant accept their offenses and promise that they will not commit the same offense again:

P103: "My dear friend, It won't happen again. I love you."

P48: "My friend, I had an urgent job. I did not call. Sorry, it never happens again."

When it comes to modification of strategies, the number of the responses including an intensity word such as really, very etc. is 15, which is 6.27% of all the responses. Besides, while expressing apologies, participants commented about themselves in 5 of the responses (2%). Below, some examples are given:

P97: I am sorry, I am forgetful nowadays.

P110: I was so pensive, I don't know how I forgot, I am so sorry.

Lastly, 7 of the responses are considered as rude in this Situation. These are the responses that failed in adjusting where they should be formal or informal or troubling choosing the right words or the right strategies:

P91: "Don't be sad my friend we will meet again."

P59: "I forgot to take my B12 pills."

P20: "Bus broke down."

4.2.4. Pre-Test Results of Situation 4

Situation 4, in the DCT, describes rather a formal situation. In this situation, the speaker had a trouble with a stranger while parking his car and need to express his apologies. The situation is given below:

Situation 4:

Backing out of a parking lot, you run into the side of another car. it was clearly your fault. You dent in the right door slightly. The driver gets out and comes over to you angrily and say "Can't you look where you're going. See what you've done!"
What would you say?

For Situation 4, the frequencies have been calculated and the variety of the strategies used was examined. Below is the table of frequencies:

Table 21
The frequencies of situation 4

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	92	29.5
EXP	26	8.3
RES	53	17
REP	93	29.9
FORB	2	0.6
MRES	-	-
DRES	3	0.9
MINOFF	6	1.9
COMT	3	0.9
INTS	21	6.7
EMOTS	-	-
RUDE	12	3.8
TOTAL	311	100

According to Table 21 which indicates the frequencies of preferred apology strategies, REP is the most favorite strategy among others. 93 of the total number of responses include a REP strategy in the pre-test implementation (29.9%). IFID is the second highly-preferred response with the total of 92 responses (29.5%). RES comes third in the list with 53 responses including RES strategy (17%). As for the apology strategies, EXP comes forth with the total of 26 responses including this strategy (8.3%). Lastly, FORB is at the end of the list with 2 responses (0.6%). The frequency of the strategies indicates that, in Situation 4, the participants tended to accept their fault, offer their apologies and they volunteered to compensate their mistakes. Unexpectedly, only 8.36 per cent of all the responses include an explanation for the offense.

In the case of modification strategies, DRES and COMT are included in 3 responses each (0.96%). 6 of the total responses feature a MINOFF (1.9%). The number of responses with intensity words are quite high with the total of 21 responses (6,7%). Lastly, 12 responses considered as rude are provided by the participants in this situation (3.8%). Some of the examples of participant responses are given place here:

Significantly, the responses include conspicuously high number of REP strategy in this Situation. RES is the third frequently used strategy in this Situation, and it was observed that both of these strategies were used together in the responses. Some of the sample responses applying REP and RES include:

P94: *“Sorry I didn't mean that, I'll pay your expenses.” (IFID+RES+REP)*

P74: *“ I am sorry this is my mistake. I will cover all expenses.” (IFID+RES+REP)*

P103: *“Forgive me. My fault. I will cover the expenses. Sorry again.” (IFID+RES+REP+IFID)*

P90: *“I know it's been an accident, I'm guilty.” (EXP+RES)*

Some responses including EXP is given below:

P61: *“Sorry. I couldn't step on the brake”. (IFID+EXP)*

P46: *“Sir, I had an urgent job and when I hurried out of the parking lot, I hit your car and I was going to cover all your expenses.” (EXP+REP)*

P127: *“I am sorry it was my fault i was little hurry i am ready to pay for the damage.” (IFID+EXP+REP)*

P31: *“Take it easy, man! Don't come on me. My head is messy today. I broke up with my girlfriend. I'm so sorry for your car. I will pay for the damage.” (EXP+IFID+REP+INT)*

In Situation 4, there are 12 responses considered as rude by the researcher. Some of these rude responses are noted here:

P125: *“Do you wanna fight? If you wanna fight i am here.”*

P87: *“Can't you see it happened by mistake?”*

P89: *“What are you shouting, uncle? I did not want to do that. anyway i pay the expense.”*

P35: *“don't yell at me, what is that car doing there?”*

P106: *“Sorry my aunt, I accidentally banged.”*

Even though the last response include an EXP, this response could be considered as rude since the speaker calls a foreigner as “aunt” and threaten her positive face.

Some of the participants preferred to use a single strategy as given below:

P118: "I'm so sorry."

P113: "I pay the expense"

Eventually, a few of the participants commented on themselves in their responses including the examples below:

P119: "I'm a little novice, sorry. I can afford the expenses."

P87: "I'm sorry I was pensive."

As for MINOFF and DRES, some of the participants tended to refuse or minimize their mistakes and, sometimes, blamed the owner of the car they crashed. Some MINOFF and DRES examples from the responses for this situation are given below:

P35: "don't yell at me, what is that car doing there?" (DRES)

P85: "you could have parked your car a little further away." (DRES)

P52: "Relax I'll pay for it." (MINOFF)

P53: "No need to exaggerate the incident, whatever the costs." (MINOFF)

4.2.5. Pre-Test Results of Situation 5

In Situation 5 in the DCT, there is rather friendly context in which the offender borrows a book from a friend of him and forgets to return it back over a few weeks. Both parties involved in this communicational event get to know each other for some time, therefore, a less formal atmosphere is expected. Situation 5 is given below:

Situation 5

"You promised to return a textbook to your classmate within a day or two, after copying a chapter. You held onto it almost two weeks. Your classmate says: "I'm really upset about the book because I needed it to prepare for last week's class." What do you say?"

The frequencies for Situation 5 have been calculated, and the range of strategies used has been analyzed. The following is a frequency table:

Table 22
The frequencies of situation 5

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	104	39.8
EXP	26	9.9
RES	35	13.4
REP	35	13.4
FORB	16	6.1
MRES	7	2.6
DRES	8	3
MINOFF	2	0.7
COMT	4	1.5
INTS	22	8.4
EMOTS	1	0.3
RUDE	1	0.3
TOTAL	261	100

As the responses gathered for pre-test analyzed, it is observed that IFID is the most favorable response for this situation (39.8%). IFID is followed by RES and REP with equal number of responses including the strategy (13.4%). EXP is ranked fourth in the ranking (9.9%) and FORB comes after it (6.1%). Some of the responses including these strategies are presented below:

P19: "I had family problems. Please forgive me." (IFID+EXP)

P85: "I'm sorry, my friend. I went out of town to my parents. I couldn't return your book to you, so I'm giving it back to you. thanks." (IFID+EXP)

P23: "You are right but I could not do the copy work yet I would give it immediately"(RES+EXP)

P71: "You're right to be angry but I was a little sick these days so I couldn't give you the book" (RES+EXP)

P55 "I'm so sorry, I will make up for my mistake as soon as possible" (IFID+REP+INTS)

P124: *“I do not know what to say sorry. My grandfather died 2 weeks ago. So it slipped out of my mind. I will deliver it immediately tomorrow.”(IFID+EXP+REP)*

P125: *“Excuse me my friend but I am very busy this month. I have some family and work problem. I forgot it.” (IFID+EXP+RES+INTS)*

P21: *“Sorry, but I was very busy. I don't know how to make it up, but if you want, let's talk in the canteen.”(IFID+EXP+REP+INTS)*

P25: *“You are right my friend. I always brought the book to school to give it to you. But somehow it didn't happen. Please forgive me. I am so sorry.” (IFID+EXP+RES+INTS)*

P51: *“I forgot. I'm sorry. How can I make it up to you?” (IFID+ RES+ REP)*

Some of the participants tended to prepare single strategy use:

P20: *“I couldn't find you”(EXP)*

P10: *“It will never happen again”(FORB)*

Among modified strategies, the number of responses including MRES (2.68%) and DRES (3%) is quite remarkable when compared to previous situations. Some participants seem to have tended to deny their responsibilities on their excuses. Some sample responses are given below:

P3: *“Why didn't you tell me again?” (DRES)*

P43: *“I'm sorry, but it's all your fault, you had to remind me.” (DRES)*

P30: *“I'm sorry you're right, but you didn't inform.” (DRES)*

P123: *“Why didn't you want it last week?” (DRES)*

P22: *“Sorry, wish you remind me. You know I'm forgetful these days” (MRES)*

As for MINOFF, below responses are good representatives of MINOFF. The participants here committed the offense but they preferred the minimize it:

P33: *“Sorry I lost that book in the library. Are you talking about a book? I’ll buy a new one for you....!” (MINOFF)*

P114: *“We are all human after all.” (MINOFF)*

In Situation 5, some participants commented on themselves while apologizing or explaining their excuses (1.5%):

P53: *“I’m really sorry, I’m irresponsible.” (IFID+COMT+INTS)*

P99: *“You are very right. Sorry. I am so forgetful.” (IFID+RES+COMT+INTS)*

P116: *“Sorry forgive my mistake. I was irresponsible. I will not make the same mistake again. I am so sorry.” (IFID+ RES+FORB+COMT+INTS)*

P115: *“I’m very distracted these days. Sorry bro. This will never happen again. You didn’t work because of me. Forgive me bro.” (IFID+RES+FORB+COMT+INTS)*

4.2.6. Pre-Test Results of Situation 6

Situation 6, in the DCT, defines a formal atmosphere in which the speaker bumps into a woman, hurts her leg and needs to express his apologies. It should be noted that, here, the speaker deals with a foreigner in a very sophisticated place which necessitates a formal atmosphere and language use. Situation 6 is given below:

Situation 6

“You accidentally bump into a well-dressed elderly lady at an elegant department store, causing her to spill over her packages on the floor. You hurt her leg, too. It’s clearly your fault and you want to apologize profusely. What do you say?”

The frequencies for Situation 6 have been calculated, and the range of strategies used has been analyzed. The following is a frequency table:

Table 23
The frequencies of situation 6

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	122	37.7
EXP	24	7.4
RES	37	11.4
REP	91	28.1
FORB	-	-
MRES	-	-
DRES	-	-
MINOFF	-	-
COMT	6	1.8
INTS	40	12.3
EMOTS	2	0.6
RUDE	1	0.3
TOTAL	323	100

When the frequencies and the range of responses in Situation 6 are examined, there is remarkable number of responses including REP strategy as the situation actually necessitates (28.1%). The details and the motives for this tendency will be discussed in the next chapter. Following REP, the use of IFID seems quite high (37.7%) in this situation. RES comes third (11.4%) and EXP comes fourth (7.4%) in the order of strategies. Any response including FORB, MRES, DRES and MINOFF strategies weren't observed which is also quite interesting and calls for discussions. Some of the responses are given in the following:

P127: "Oh I am so sorry for hurting you. I was in a little hurry, I did not see you, If you need any medical assistance, I would be happy to help you." (IFID+EXP+REP+INTS+EMOTS)

P129: "Ma'am, I 'm very sorry. What can I do for you?" (IFID+REP+INTS)

P5: "I'm sorry, are you okay? Let's go to the hospital immediately." (IFID+REP)

P11: "I'm so sorry, I didn't see you. I was wrong. Are you OK ? Do you want to go to the hospital?" (IFID+RES+REP+INTS)

P16: "Excuse me, I'm so sorry, definitely my fault. I will compensate." (IFID+RES+REP+INTS)

*P17: "I'm very sorry madam, forgive my clumsiness. I didn't mean to injure you."
(IFID+RES+INTS)*

*P21: "Madam, how are you? I am so sorry, do you want water? If you need, we can go to the hospital."
(IFID+REP+INTS)*

*P27: "Excuse me I didn't see you, but I'm so sorry. Let me help you."
(IFID+RES+REP+INTS)*

*P31: "I'm so sorry, lady. It's my fault. Let me help you pack your things, please. If your leg is bad, I can take it to the hospital, lady."
(IFID+RES+REP+INTS)*

When the responses are analyzed, it is observed that the use of INTS is quite high (12.3%). Besides, some of the participants commented on themselves in their responses (1.8%). Some examples are given as such:

*P25: "I am sorry, ma'am. My clumsiness. I'm so sorry, I didn't mean to hurt. Please forgive me."
(IFID+RES+COMT+INTS)*

*P69: "Forgive me, please. I am very pensive nowadays."
(IFID+COMT+INTS)*

*P80: "I'm very sorry, my mistake. I should have been more careful. I'm really sorry."
(IFID+RES+COMT+INTS)*

*P116: "I'm very sorry, ma'am. I had to pay attention. Does your leg hurt a lot?"
(IFID+COMT+INTS)*

One of the participants preferred to give a rude response. It is stated below:

P41: "Sorry whatever, I'm so hurt, I'm hurting everyone."

Compared to other Situations analyzed up to now, it is noticeable that Situation 6 has a different range of strategies. In this situation, the participants tended to apply some certain strategies intensively and never included some of the strategies in their responses.

4.2.7. The Pre-Test Results of Situation 7

Situation 7, in the DCT, has a rather informal and easy-going context for the offender, however, still necessitates expression of apologies to the hearer in the dialogue. Situation 7 is given in the following:

Situation 7

Spending an evening at a friend's apartment, you accidentally break a small ornament belonging to her. What do you say?

The frequencies for Situation 7 have been calculated, and the range of strategies employed has been analyzed. The Table 24 below indicates a summary:

Table 24
The frequencies of situation 7

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	95	35.1
EXP	30	11.1
RES	24	8.8
REP	88	32.5
FORB	1	0.3
MRES	-	-
DRES	-	-
MINOFF	2	0.7
COMT	3	1.1
INTS	22	8.1
EMOTS	2	0.7
RUDE	4	1.1
TOTAL	271	100

When the number of strategies is taken into consideration, the number of REP stands out compared to other strategies (32.5%). IFID (35.1%) always comes first in the responses, however, what generally makes difference comes in the following strategy after IFID. The motive and the intention of the speakers mostly come out in the second strategy. Here, the use of REP gives the researcher feeling that the speaker accepts his offence and tends to repair it. REP is followed by EXP (11.1%) and RES comes after it (8.8%). One of the participants used a FORB in his response (0.3%). Some of the examples of responses including these strategies are exemplified:

P8: *“I am sorry this is my mistake.” (IFID+RES)*

P9: *“Sorry. I will pay whatever it costs.” (IFID+REP)*

P11: *“My dear friend I'm so sorry tomorrow I'm getting a new one right away.”
(IFID+REP+INTS)*

P15: *“I'm sorry. My fault. I will buy the same to you my dear.” (IFID+RES+REP)*

P24: *“Sorry, I didn't do it deliberately how can i pay you back?”
(IFID+RES+REP)*

P25: *“Sorry. My fault. I don't understand how. Forgive me. I will buy you more
beautiful tomorrow. Please forgive.” (IFID+RES+REP)*

P33: *“I did not understand how it suddenly fell out of my hand, I am sorry, I will
buy you a new one.” (IFID+EXP+REP)*

P63: *“Sorry. I will buy a new one as soon as possible.” (IFID+REP)*

P98: *“I hit my arm and accidentally broke this vase. Forgive me. I will buy a new
one.” (IFID+EXP+REP)*

P106: *“Sorry my friend happened by mistake, I will get you more beautiful.”
(IFID+RES+REP)*

The only response including a FORB is given below:

P76: *“I'm so sorry, I'm sorry, I accidentally did it. I'll get a new one and I'll be
more careful from now on” (IFID+RES+FORB+REP+INTS)*

As for modification of strategies, two of the participants applied MINOFF (0.7%).
Three of the responses cover a COMT which makes 1.1% of the total. Before the examples
for MINOFF and COMT are given:

P5: *“Don't worry bro, I will bring the best.” (MINOFF)*

P107: *“I'm sorry. Don't break our hearts, man.” (IFID+MINOFF)*

P116: "I was clumsy, I'm so sorry. Was it very important to you? If you want, I can buy you a one to compensate." (IFID+REP+COMT+INTS)

P59: "I'm very clumsy. Sorry. I will make a trinket for you with my own hands" (IFID+REP+COMT+INTS)

P74: "I'm a very clumsy person. I didn't intentionally break it, I'm sorry. I will buy a new one." (IFID+RES+REP+COMT+INTS)

As the examples indicate, some of the responses included an INTS (8.1%). Few participants tended to apply an EMOTS (0.7 %). One of the responses with an EMOTS is given in the following:

P104: "Oh my god, I'm so sorry, Sara. I accidentally hit my hand." (IFID+EXP+INTS+EMOTS)

Some of the responses, in Situation 7, were considered as rude by the researcher. These rude responses are specified below:

P83: "Evil eye came out!" (RUDE)

P58: "Bro, I broke this. I'm sorry. Will it be a problem?" (RUDE)

P114: "It was like nothing anyway" (RUDE)

P41: "Forget it was already old, I'll buy you a new one." (RUDE)

As the examples indicate, in Situation 7, participants tended to apply a variety of strategies and types of modification. Participants preferred combination of strategies in their responses rather than a single strategy use.

4.2.8. Pre-Test Results of Situation 8

In Situation 8, the speaker promises to attend a co-worker's farewell party, but he couldn't attend due to family problems. For this, he needs to express apologies to his friend. This context is a hard one as it includes both formal and informal aspects. Since it is a friend's farewell dinner it may be considered as informal, but it is still a farewell party and this makes it rather formal. The Situation 8 is presented below:

Situation 8

You agreed to attend a colleague’s farewell party, but at the last minute family business prevented you from going. The next day you call her to explain why you didn’t show up. What do you say?

The frequencies for the results of Situation 8 have been calculated, and the range of strategies employed has been analyzed as the Table 25 indicates:

Table 25
The frequencies of situation 8

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	93	37.8
EXP	107	43.4
RES	2	0.8
REP	24	9.7
FORB	3	1.2
MRES	-	-
DRES	-	-
MINOFF	-	-
COMT	-	-
INTS	15	6
EMOTS	-	-
RUDE	2	0.8
TOTAL	246	100

As the participant responses are examined, the extensive use of EXP is noteworthy (43.4%). EXP is the most frequently used strategy in Situation 1, as the context necessitates. IFID is the second frequently applied strategy with a high percentage of preference (37.8%) and REP comes third (9.7%). A few responses included RES (0.8%) and FORB (1.2%). Some of the responses including these strategies are exemplified below:

P25: “I really wanted to come to your invitation last night. But I encountered an unexpected problem. This was really an important problem for me. About my family. I’m so sorry I couldn’t be with you.” (IFID+EXP+INTS)

P4: “I couldn't be with you because of family problems, forgive me.” (IFID+EXP)

P5: “Sorry I couldn't attend for family reasons but I owe a coffee to make up for this” (IFID+EXP+REP)

P6: *“My dear friend, I couldn't come because of my family situation, but I promise to make it up to you.” (EXP+REP)*

P42: *“Sorry I could not come to the farewell dinner because of a family situation. I will compensate as soon as possible.” (IFID+EXP+REP)*

P63: *“I could not come for a family reason. Sorry.” (IFID+EXP)*

P80: *“I am sorry but I could not come yesterday due to some problems with my family forgive me.” (IFID+EXP)*

P84: *“My dear friend, I wanted to come a lot, but I could not come because of a family problem. So sorry” (IFID+EXP+INTS)*

P95: *“I couldn't be there for a family reason. I'm so sorry. I want to make it up to you.” (IFID+EXP+REP+INTS)*

P120: *“Sorry I couldn't join you because of a problem. If I have a chance to make up for it, no doubt I'll make it up.” (IFID+EXP+REP)*

P69: *“We have some family issues. Forgive me I did not attend the party.” (IFID+EXP)*

As the results already indicate, most of the responses for Situation 8 include the combinations of IFID+EXP or IFID+EXP+REP. It's worth mentioning that, rather than claiming that they were unable to participate owing to family obligations, several of the participants made alternative justifications. These responses were still taken into account and considered as an EXP. Some examples are given:

P61: *“Sorry.I did an accident while coming.I was at the police station.” (IFID+EXP)*

P68: *“My boss called to work.” (EXP)*

P73: *“my father got sick, I couldn't come.” (EXP)*

P96: *“Ahmet sorry, My brother-in-law had an accident. I'm going to the hospital.” (IFID+EXP)*

*P104: "Sorry, Sara. I couldn't come because my grandfather got sick."
(IFID+EXP)*

Some of the participants applied a single strategy while responding. Some sample responses with a single strategy are specified below:

P39: "I have family problems." (EXP)

P52: "I got a very important job." (EXP)

P105: "I will compensate." (REP)

P130: "Please, forgive me" (IFID)

P68: "My boss called to work." (EXP)

P2: "I have problems with my family." (EXP)

P77: "I'm sorry my friend." (IFID)

Two of the responses were considered as rude for Situation 8. These are also specified:

P3: "I spent time with my family." (RUDE)

P107: "My family is more important than my friends." (RUDE)

4.2.9. Pre-Test Results of Situation 9

In Situation 9, the offender is asked to express his apologies to a fellow student for bumping into him in the school hallway. This context can be considered rather informal since it necessitates apologizing from another student. Situation 9 is given below:

Situation 9

Rushing to get to class on time, you run round the corner and bump into one of your fellow students who was waiting there, almost knocking him down. What do you say to him?

The frequencies and the range of the strategies applied in the pre-test results of Situation 9 were calculated and analyzed. Table 26 gives a summary:

Table 26
The frequencies of situation 9

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	124	45.2
EXP	99	36.1
RES	18	6.5
REP	12	4.3
FORB	1	0.3
MRES	-	-
DRES	1	0.3
MINOFF	1	0.3
COMT	3	1
INTS	11	4
EMOTS	1	0.3
RUDE	3	1
TOTAL	274	100

As the Table 26 points out, in Situation 9, the total number of strategies is 274 which is quite high. Besides, participants' responses have a wide variety of strategies; almost all the strategies and modification of strategies were applied at least one of the responses. However, it is immediately noticeable that most of the strategies applied are IFID and EXP. 124 responses out of the total number of 274 responses are IFIDs (45,2%) , whereas 99 of them are EXPs (36,1%). It can be stated that most of the responses include an IFID+EXP combination. Aside from these, 18 of the total number of responses are RES (6,5%) , and 12 are REPs (4,3%). There is only 1 response including a FORB among pre-test responses (0,3%). Some sample responses are given as such:

P8: "I am sorry, this is my mistake, I was in a hurry." (IFID+EXP+RES)

P11: "I'm so sorry I was trying to catch up to class sorry." (IFID+EXP+INTS)

P25: "Sorry. I'm late for class. I am in a hurry. Please forgive me." (IFID+EXP)

P26: "Sorry I'm late for school, so I was in a hurry, Is there anything I can help?" (IFID+EXP+REP)

P33: *“I had to catch up with the class so I was in a hurry. I did not see you. Sorry, I did not do on purpose. Sorry.” (IFID+EXP+RES)*

P34: *“Sorry.” (IFID)*

P46: *“I'm gonna be late for class, so I was in a hurry, and I didn't notice you. I'm so, so sorry. You're okay, right?” (IFID+EXP+RES+REP+INTS)*

P103: *“I was really in a hurry. Do I pay the apology later with a coffee?” (EXP+REP)*

P127: *“Oh, I am so sorry, It's my fault. Are you all right? If you need any first aid, I would love to help you.” (IFID+RES+REP+INTS)*

As for modification of strategies, it was observed that there aren't quite a lot of responses. 1 response including each of the DRES (0.3%) and MINOFF (0.3%) strategies and 3 responses for COMT (1%) were determined. These responses are specified below:

P118: *“Dude, I'm late for class. I'm sorry but you came across to me!” (IFID+EXP+DRES)*

P89: *“You are a young man. Don't be afraid you won't die. I am in a hurry. Come on god bless you” (EXP+MINOFF)*

P63: *“Sorry. I'm a little bit pensive.” (IFID+COMT)*

P80: *“I'm so sorry, I was in a hurry, I should have paid attention.” (IFID+EXP+COMT+INTS)*

P96: *“I'm sorry, I should have been more careful.” (IFID+COMT)*

In this situation, 3 of the responses (1%) were considered as rude by the researcher. Some of the rude responses are as follows:

P125: *“Look at the front!” RUDE*

P131: *“Look ahead bro!” RUDE*

Besides, 11 of the total number of responses included INTS (4.01%) and 1 response included an EMOTS (0.3%). Some of the above responses also exemplify the use of INTS such as very, really, so etc, therefore, the researcher did not need to mention them once more. However, 1 response by S77 with an EMOTS is specified below:

P77: "Upsss! I'm sooooo sorry."

4.2.10. Pre-Test Results of Situation 10

Situation 10 includes a context in which one of the friends forgot to buy the tickets for a concert to which they agreed to go together. It can be considered rather informal. The Situation is mentioned:

Situation 10

You and a friend have arranged to go to a concert. You promised to buy the tickets. But when your friends come round on the evening of the concert you realize that you have forgotten to get the tickets. What do you say?

The frequencies and variety of strategies applied by the participants in the pre-test results of Situation 10 were calculated and analyzed. The results are presented in Table 27 below:

Table 27
The frequencies of situation 10

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	81	36.8
EXP	23	10.4
RES	24	10.9
REP	52	23.6
FORB	3	1.3
MRES	1	0.2
DRES	1	0.2
MINOFF	4	1.8
COMT	2	0.9
INTS	19	8.6
EMOTS	-	-
RUDE	10	4.5
TOTAL	220	100

As the participants' responses were analyzed, it is observed that the number of IFIDs is quite high (36.8 %). The number of responses including a REP, on the other hand, is strikingly high in Situation 10 (23,6 %). The number of responses with an EXP and RES has an equal gravity in the total number of strategies preferred (10.4 % and 10.9 %, respectively). 3 of the responses included a FORB for the present Situation (1.3 %). Some of the examples from participants' responses given below:

P3: "I have no money left." (EXP)

P7: "Tickets were over." (EXP)

P9: "I'm so sorry my friend I forgot. Forgive me." (IFID+RES+INTS)

P11: "I'm so sorry. I was thinking about the important meeting tomorrow. I'll go get the tickets right away." (IFID+EXP+REP)

P25: "I thought I bought the tickets. But i was wrong. I do not know what to say. Sorry for my mistake come, let me buy you food better than a concert." (IFID+EXP+RES+REP)

P43: "I'm sorry. Although I promised you I couldn't get the tickets because I had an urgent job." (IFID+EXP+RES)

P45: "There is absolutely no excuse for this. I won't do this ever again. Can you forgive me?" (IFID+ FORB)

P56: "Completely out of my mind. I'm sorry." (IFID+RES)

P64: "Sorry. I forgot the tickets, I can make up for dinner." (IFID+RES+REP)

P104: "I know you will be mad at me. But it's really totally out of my mind. I am so sorry." (IFID+RES+INTS)

P120: "My mind is so full. Sorry for forgetting. I will reserve tickets to another concert in advance." (IFID+EXP+REP)

*P74: "I was going to buy the tickets, but I forgot. I will buy a VIP ticket at the next concert and we will watch it from the front. I will compensate for my mistake."
(EXP+REP)*

*P115: "Bro I have bad news for you. I forget to buy the tickets. I'm so sorry bro. That's my fault."
(IFID+RES+INTS)*

*P12: "I am sorry, my friend I forgot to buy the tickets, but we'll be together next week in concert."
(IFID+RES+REP)*

As for the modified strategies, the results show that each of these strategies was applied at least once in the participant responses. Among these, 4 of the responses include a MINOFF (1.8%); 1 response includes a DRES and 1 includes a MRES (0.2% each). Besides these, 2 of the responses include COMT (0.9%) and 19 of the responses include an INTS (8,6%). Lastly, it is striking for this Situation that 10 of the participant responses were considered as rude (4.5%). Some of the samples are specified below:

*P22: "I m so sorry I forgot, let's go to the mall if you want."
(IFID+RES+REP+INTS)*

*P71: "I'm very, very sorry I forgot the concert tickets. To compensate, I'll take you to the movies."
(IFID+ REP+INTS)*

*P24: "I'm really sorry to say this just now but I have forgotten to get the tickets for tonight's concert. I know you were looking forward to it but it completely slipped my mind."
(IFID+RES+INTS)*

*P76: "I forgot the tickets, I'm sorry, I'm so distracted, I apologize, I forgot to take it because I was dealing with different jobs during the day."
(IFID+EXP+RES+COMT+INTS)*

*P29: "I forgot to buy the tickets, I was very embarrassed. I am really sorry. Let's go to dinner, get the accounts from me."
(IFID+RES+REP+INTS)*

*P105: "Sorry I forgot to buy tickets I m a little bit pensive these."
(IFID+RES+COMT)*

P84: “I was distracted, I forgot these concert tickets. I promise to give you another concert ticket. Sorry.” (IFID+RES+REP+COMT)

P87: “Wouldn't you buy the tickets? :)” (DRES)

P35: “the concert was not what I expected, I chose not to buy tickets.” (RUDE)

P59: “Beat me if you want or let's cry together :p” (RUDE)

P41: “let's go to the cinema I don't like this guy anyway.” (RUDE)

4.2.11. Pre-Test Results of Situation 11

In Situation 11, the a student forgets to return back a professor’s book. This context may be considered as rather a formal one compared to previous situation. Situation 11 necessitates more attention on word choices since it includes a dialogue with a professor. The Situation 11 is given below:

Situation 11

You’ve forgotten to return the book you borrowed from your professor. On the staff corridor you come across your professor. What do you say?

For the pre-test results of Situation 11, the frequency and range of methods applied by the participants were calculated and analyzed. The results are given in Table 28 below:

Table 28
The frequencies of situation 11

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	73	38.8
EXP	20	10.6
RES	6	3.1
REP	22	11.7
FORB	49	26
MRES	-	-
DRES	-	-
MINOFF	-	-
COMT	1	0.5
INTS	9	4.7
EMOTS	-	-
RUDE	8	4.2
TOTAL	188	100

As the results for Situation 11 were analyzed, it is obvious that some of the strategies were favored by the participants and some of the strategies were not even mentioned. Especially modified strategies such as MRES, DRES or MINOFF were never applied in any of the responses.

First of all, IFID is the most favored strategy for Situation 11 when compared to other strategies (38.8%). FORB comes second (26%) with a quite high percentage of preference. It is followed by REP (11.7%) and EXP (10.6%). RES comes fifth with a lower percentage (3.1%). Some of the examples from participant responses are specified below:

P2: "I forgot your book, I will bring it as soon as possible." (REP)

P19: "I 'm busy these days. I'll give the book tomorrow." (EXP+REP)

P25: "Have a nice day teacher. The book I bought from you was very nice. I read it a second time, hopefully it will not be a problem for you. I will try to finish tomorrow." (EXP+REP)

P31: "My teacher, I know you are angry with me. Sorry. I will bring your book as soon as possible." (IFID+REP)

P39: "Sorry to forget the book. I will give your book as soon as possible." (IFID+REP)

P45: "I feel so bad about the book. I will return it as soon as possible. Please, forgive me." (IFID+REP)

P75: "I'm sorry, sir, I haven't finished the assignment yet, so I didn't bring it." (IFID+EXP)

P101: "I am sorry teacher I forgot the book. I will buy you a new one." (IFID+REP)

As for modified strategies, few of the responses include a COMT or INTS (0.5% and 4.7%, respectively). No other strategies among this kind were applied by the participants. Besides these, 9 of the responses were considered as rude by the researcher (4.2%). Examples are specified:

P11: “Teacher, I’m so sorry I couldn’t come to school because I got sick. I’m bringing your book tomorrow.” (IFID+EXP+REP+INTS)

P71: “Sir, I am very, very sorry. I will bring the book back to you as soon as possible.” (IFID+REP+INTS)

P83: “I like the book.” (RUDE)

P91: “Sorry, I’m forgetful.” (IFID+COMT)

4.2.12. Pre-Test Results of Situation 12

Situation 12 includes rather an informal context compared to previous one. In this situation, the offender borrows a book from a friend, pours coffee over the book and needs to express his apologies when returning the book back. Situation 12 is given below:

Situation 12

You borrowed a book from your friend and poured coffee over it. When you give it back, what do you say?

The frequency and the range of strategies applied in Situation 12 were calculated and analyzed. Below table summarizes the results:

Table 29
The frequencies of situation 12

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	82	32.4
EXP	42	16,6
RES	8	3.1
REP	93	36.7
FORB	1	0.3
MRES	-	-
DRES	-	-
MINOFF	-	-
COMT	4	1.5
INTS	18	7.1
EMOTS	-	-
RUDE	5	1.9
TOTAL	253	100

When the results are analyzed, it is observed that REP is the most favored strategy by the participants, which is quite exceptional (36.7%). REP is followed by IFID, which was always the favorite strategy in other situations, with a quite high number of responses included (32.4%). With 42 responses (16.6%) EXP is ranked third and, followed by RES with fewer number of responses (3.1%). Some examples are given as such:

P83: "Sorry" (IFID)

P3: "Sorry I can buy a new one if you want." (IFID+REP)

P5: "If you want, I can buy a new one, I'm sorry." (IFID+REP)

P35: "I accidentally spilled coffee on the book. Sorry, I want to buy you a new book." (IFID+RES+REP)

P21: "I poured coffee in the book Accidentally, but today I will give you a new one, sorry. (IFID+RES+REP)

P46: "I accidentally spilled coffee on your book and made it unusable, sorry I'm sure I will replace it tomorrow." (IFID+RES+REP)

P61: "Sorry. I did not pour the coffee on purpose." (IFID+RES)

P66: "I did not want to do that. I will buy you a new book. Sorry" (IFID+RES+REP)

P94: "I am sorry, I didn't mean to damage your book, I can buy the same thing." (IFID+RES+REP)

P103: "Sorry for what happened. It was completely unintentional. I will buy a new one." (IFID+RES+REP)

P82: "Coffee was spilled on your book by mistake, but don't worry, I bought you a new one." (RES+REP)

As for modification of strategies, there is no response with DRES, MRES or MINOFF observed in the results. Besides, the use of INTS seems quite higher than other

modified strategies with 18 responses included (7.1%). 4 of the participants used a COMT in their responses (1.5%).

P13: "I am so sorry. Happened by mistake." (IFID+RES+INTS)

P31: "I'm so sorry, my friend. It happened unintentionally. If you don't accept, I can get you a new one." (IFID+RES+REP+INTS)

P9: "I'm so sorry. I poured coffee on the book. I will buy you a new book." (IFID+REP+INTS)

P76: "I am so sorry, I accidentally poured coffee, I know it is important for you tomorrow I will get you the same, I apologize again." (IFID+RES+REP+INTS)

P45: "I am such an idiot for pouring coffee over the book. Please don't be mad at me. What can I do to fix this?" (RES+REP+COMT)

P59: "I'm ruining everything :((((" (COMT)

P88: "That's my carelessness. I will buy you a new book . Please excuse me." (IFID+REP+COMT)

Lastly, 5 of the responses were considered as rude by the researcher in Situation 11. Some of the rude responses were exemplified:

P107: "Thank you for the book. Sorry about the coffee." (RUDE)

P26: "Buddy, I poured coffee in your book while drinking coffee. I can apologize if you want." (RUDE)

P73: "It asked me for coffee a lot and I gave it too." (RUDE)

4.2.13. Pre-Test Results of Situation 13

Situation 13 is a context in which the speaker borrows his friend's car and has an accident while in it. For this accident, he needs to express his apologies to his friend. The Situation is given below:

Situation 13

You have had an accident with a car you borrowed from your friend. When you give it back, what do you say?

The frequency and the range of strategies applied in Situation 12 were calculated and analyzed. The results are presented in Table 30:

Table 30
The frequencies of situation 13

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	85	34.1
EXP	18	7.2
RES	13	5.2
REP	93	37.3
FORB	-	-
MRES	-	-
DRES	6	2.4
MINOFF	4	1.6
COMT	2	0.8
INTS	25	10
EMOTS	-	-
RUDE	3	1.2
TOTAL	249	100

As the results of pre-test implementation considered, the number of strategies applied by the participants is 249 in total. Among these, REP is the most favored strategy with 93 responses included (37.3%). It is followed by IFID with a total of 85 responses (34.1%). 18 of the responses has an EXP (7.2%) and 13 of the responses include a RES (5.2%) due to the results. There is no FORB observed in the participant responses. Some of the examples from participant responses are exemplified in the following:

P10: "This is my fault. I will pay your money." (RES+REP)

P11: "I had a fight with my boyfriend before the accident, and then I came to my limp and shot the car." (EXP)

P134: "My mother was very sick and I had to bring her to the hospital and suddenly panicked and caused an accident." (EXP)

P14: "It was accidentally I will have the car repaired." (RES+REP)

P32: *"I had an accident with your car, I am sorry I will bear all the expenses."*
(IFID+REP)

P27: *"I'll get your car fixed."* (REP)

P33: *"When I came to deliver your car to you, I went through the green light on the Gazi Street. A person who did not follow the rule passed in the red light and hit the right front door of your vehicle"* (EXP)

P67: *"My friend, I am sorry, I had an accident, but I am sorry I'll pay for the damage."* (IFID+REP)

P71: *"hey man I crashed your car sorry. But don't worry, I'll fix your car back and give it to you like I got it."* (IFID+REP)

P82: *"When I stopped at the red light, a vehicle shot behind me."* (EXP)

P39: *"my fault. I am sorry. I will cover your loss."* (IFID+RES+REP)

For modification of strategies, it is observed by the researcher that almost all the strategies were applied in at least few of the responses. 6 responses include a DRES (2.4%) and 4 responses has a MINOFF (1.6%). There is not any response with a MRES. The use of INTS is pretty high in the pre-test, 25 of the total responses include an INTS due to the results (10%). Lastly, 2 of the responses has a COMT within (0.8%). Below, some sample responses are given:

P40: *"Accident can happen to everyone. I compensate for all damage. I say I'm very sorry for this accident."* IFID+REP+MINOFF+INTS)

P18: *"You don't give me your car again please."* (DRES)

P125: *"This is your fault. You know, I don't know drive a car. But I can help you for repair."* (DRES+REP)

P8: *"A little accident but sorry i can compensate."* (MINOFF+REP)

P3: *"Sorry a little accident."* (IFID+MINOFF)

P31: "You will be very angry with me, but I must say, my friend. They hit the car from behind. I'm so sorry, buddy. I will cover the damage."
(IFID+EXP+REP+INTS)

P80: "I'm so sorry I wouldn't want to be like this but I had an accident with my car but I will cover all the damage." (IFID+RES+REP+INTS)

P29: "I'm so sorry I crashed the car, I'm so sorry, I will really pay for the damage to the car." (IFID+REP+INTS)

P24: "Sorry, my carelessness caused I will pay your damage."
(IFID+REP+COMT)

P54: "I used the car carelessly. I will cover all the expenses. Sorry."
(IFID+RES+REP)

In terms of politeness, 3 of the responses were considered as rude by the researcher. Examples for rude responses are given in the following:

P35: "I did it unintentionally, sorry. But I think it looks better like this." (RUDE)

P73: "There was an exhaust in your car but no more." (RUDE)

4.2.14. The Pre-Test Results of Situation 14

Situation 14 is a quite informal and intimate context in which one of the spouses needs to express regrets and apologize from other for not doing the work that he/she had promised to do before. The Situation is given below:

Situation 14

You are married. Both you and your spouse work. You come home late from work and find that your spouse has done some work around the house that you had promised to do but had not had a chance to do. What do you say?

The frequency of the strategies for Situation 14 applied by the participants were calculated and analyzed. The summary of the results is given Table 31:

Table 31
The frequencies of situation 14

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	61	35.4
EXP	44	25.5
RES	7	4
REP	20	11.6
FORB	15	8.7
MRES	2	1.1
DRES	-	-
MINOFF	-	-
COMT	2	1.1
INTS	14	8.1
EMOTS	-	-
RUDE	7	4
TOTAL	172	100

As the results are considered, the number of strategies applied for this Situation seems quite lower compared to other Situations. For Situation 14, 172 strategies were applied by the participants while responding. In detail, IFID is the most favored strategy with the total of 61 responses included (61.4%). The number of responses with an EXP is 44 (25.5%). REP is ranked third with total of 20 responses included and FORB comes fourth with 15 responses within it (8.7%). RES is at the bottom of the list with 7 responses (4%). Some examples from participant responses are given:

P3: "I promise I will do it next time." (REP)

P4: "I am a little busy nowadays and I will do it as soon as possible." (EXP+REP)

P17: "I've promised to do it but I didn't have time at all. Sorry for breaking my promise." (IFID+EXP)

P24: "Sorry, I'll cook for you because I forgot." (IFID+RES+REP)

P30: "Sorry, I was going to do it, I did not have time thanks." (IFID+RES+EXP)

P35: "I forgot it because of the workload. I will compensate as soon as possible." (RES+REP)

P43: "I'm sorry sweetie, I had a very urgent job and I forgot completely, next time I will handle all the work of the house." (IFID+EXP+RES+REP)

P45: *“I know it was a bit rude of me not doing it. Please don't mad at me. Give me another chance. It won't happen again.” (RES+FORB)*

P54: *“Due to the intensity of my work, I could not do my responsibilities at home. I will be more careful from now on. Sorry.” (IFID+EXP+FORB)*

P66: *“Sorry. Completely out of my mind. It will never happen again.” (IFID+RES+FORB)*

P134: *“Today, due to the intensity of the works, my meeting was extended, I had to come late. Sorry, my dear wife, I will make up for this.” (IFID+EXP+REP)*

As for modification of the strategies, 2 of the responses included a MRES (1.1%) and 2 included a COMT (1.1%) 14 of the participant responses have an INTS within (8.1%). On the other hand, 7 of the responses were considered as rude by the researcher. Examples are given in the following:

P9: *“I'm so sorry I couldn't. I was busy. Thank you my darling.” (IFID+EXP+INTS)*

P63: *“I am very sad. I was supposed to do it but I'm working hard these days.” (IFID+EXP+RES+INTS)*

P31: *“My love, it was my duty, but I couldn't help you because things took a long time at the company. I know this is not an excuse but I will compensate. I am so sorry my love. I love you.” (IFID+EXP+RES+REP+INTS)*

P11: *“Baby, I'm so sorry I didn't do what I promised, but I'm getting so tired, I promise I'll do it next time.” (IFID+EXP+RES+REP+INTS)*

P13: *“I'm so sorry. I couldn't keep my word.” (IFID+RES+INTS)*

P14: *“I have a problem why you didn't do your job?” (RUDE)*

P62: *“Please don't start again!” (RUDE)*

P87: *“Good luck with it:))” (RUDE)*

P114: “Get out of here they're my job!” (RUDE)

4.2.15. Overall Results of Pre-Test

After the calculation of each Situation in the pre-test, the overall frequencies of the Situations were calculated. A summary is given below in the Table 32:

Table 32
The overall frequencies of pre-test results

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	1298	36.8
EXP	622	17.6
RES	305	8.6
REP	668	18.9
FORB	140	3.9
MRES	10	0.2
DRES	77	2.1
MINOFF	21	0.5
COMT	39	1.1
INTS	258	7.1
EMOTS	8	0.2
RUDE	75	2.1
TOTAL	3.521	100

In the pre-test section of the research, 1.876 participant responses were analyzed in total. Each of the responses, most of the time, contained more than one strategy: that is to say, combination of strategies. The researcher examined each response attentively and detected the strategies used. The results indicate that, due to the pre-test results, the participants applied 3.446 strategies in their responses and provided 75 rude responses to the Situations in the DCT.

IFID is the most favored apology strategy for the participants with the total of 1298 responses included (36.8%). REP is the second highly preferred strategy with 668 responses included (18.9%). Later comes EXP with the number of 622 responses within (17.6%). RES comes fourth in the list of strategies with 305 responses included (8.6%). The last is FORB with the total of 140 responses within (3.9%).

As for modified strategies, the use of INTS is quite noteworthy among others, with 258 participant responses including it (7.1%). DRES comes second with 77 responses included (2.1%). COMT is the third modified strategy preferred by the participants and 39

of the responses has one COMT (1.1%). There comes MINOFF after it with the total of 21 responses included (0.5%). It is followed by MRES with 10 responses within (0.2%).

In the pre-test section of the research, 75 participant responses were considered as rude in total. These responses were not analyzed and examined in terms of strategies included due to the improper nature they have in terms of apologizing.

4.3. Results of Post-Test Implementation

This part of the study focuses on the post-test results of the gathered participant responses. Here, the frequencies of the responses in each Situation and the Chi-Square Analysis results of the related Situation in pre-test and post-test implementation will be mentioned.

4.3.1. Post-Test Results of Situation 1

a Situation 1 in the DCT is, as mentioned previously, a more formal context in which the speaker is expected to express apologies in a formal setting. Post-test results of this situation are given below:

Table 33
Post-test frequencies of situation 1

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	122	36.2
EXP	51	15.1
RES	61	18.1
REP	7	2
FORB	2	0.5
MRES	2	0.5
DRES	57	16.9
MINOFF	2	0.5
COMT	1	0.2
INTS	21	6.2
EMOTS	4	1.1
RUDE	7	2
TOTAL	337	100

In this situation, participants applied 337 strategies in the total of 134 responses, which is quite higher than the number of strategies in Situation 1 in the pre-test

implementation. In the pre-test, the participants applied 247 strategies in their responses in Situation 1, however, in the pre-test this number increased to 337 strategies in total.

When the chi-square test results between the responses in the pre-test and post-test results of Situation 1 are considered, it is observed that there is a statistically significant difference between two results ($X^2(12, N = 134) = 58,205, p < 001$).

Chi-Square Results for Situation 1

Pearson Chi-Square Tests		
		Grup
	Chi-square	58,205
\$S1	Df	12
	Sig.	,000 ^{*,a,b}

When it comes to the detailed results, it is observed that the number of some of the strategies increased dramatically. The increased number of strategy and variety in strategy use is preferred in the well-developed responses.

First and foremost, the number of IFIDs is higher than pre-test which is 95 in pre-test and 122 in post-test (36.20%). The number of EXPs seems to have increased in post-test as well. The number of EXPs in pre-test is 39; however, this number is 51 in post-test results (15.13%). In the case of RES strategy, it appears to have increased from 30 to 61, which is double the pretest results and which makes the 18.10% of total number of responses. Following RES, REP seems to have increased comparing to the pre-test results, which increased from 2 to 7 which is 2.07 % of all the responses in the post-test. FORB also increased in the post-test results. Rather, there was no response including FORB in the pre-test results, on the other hand, in the post-test, 2 responses including FORB stand out.

When MRES, DRES and MINOFF strategies are considered, the number of these strategies in pre-test and post-test results is almost the same. Especially the number of DRES (16.91%) is expected to fall down considerably in the post-test; however, the reasons leading this situation will be discussed later.

The number of INTS in the post-test seemed to have increased dramatically, as well. Intensity words are the signals of authentic language use and in the post-test

participants tended to use more number of intensity words. The number of intensity words increased from 5 to 21, which is 6.23% of total number of responses. Besides, the number of EMOTS and COMMT also increased in the post-test which is quite preferable. The number of RUDE answers decreased from 9 to 7 in the post-test.

Here are some examples from post-test results. For example, P70 have further improved his response in post-test. The first response of this participant to Situation 1 turned into *“I’m sorry. I didn’t know it would upset you this. I promise to be more careful about this.”*(IFID+RES+FORB)while his pre-test answer was *“Sorry! I couldn’t think this subject could hurt you.”* (IFID+EXP).This participant’s response seems to have improved both in number and in quality.

Another example is the response of P51. This participant’s response turned into a decent response from a RUDE one. His response in pre-test was *“I’ve never said anything about you, but I’d like to point out that your attitude is a paranoid disease”*; however, it turned into *“I never said anything about you. I’m sorry if I hurt you unintentionally”* (IFID+EXP).

4.3.2. Post-Test Results of Situation 2

In Situation 2, the speaker needs to express apologies to his boss for not attending to a formal meeting. The details are given previously. The frequencies of this situation are given below in Table 34:

Table 34
Post-test frequencies of situation 2

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	116	31.4
EXP	92	24.9
RES	17	4.6
REP	24	6.5
FORB	65	17.6
MRES	-	-
DRES	-	-
MINOFF	1	0.2
COMT	1	0.2
INTS	50	13.5
EMOTS	2	0.5
RUDE	1	0.2
TOTAL	369	100

In Situation 2, according to post-test results, the number of responses including a strategy or a modification of strategy is 371, which is considerably higher compared to pre-test results. According to Chi-Square Test results, there is a significant difference between the results of pre-test and post-test implementation. The Chi-Square results are given below:

Chi-Square Results for Situation 2

Pearson Chi-Square Tests		
		Grup
	Chi-square	93,025
\$\$2	Df	12
	Sig.	,000 ^{*,a,b}

Chi-Square calculations indicate that the results are statistically significant. ($X^2(12, N = 134) = 93,025, p < 001$). This means, the participants' responses differ in number and range.

Firstly, it is quite clear that there is a considerable increase in some of the strategies. For example, the number of responses including IFID increased from 100 to 116 (31.26%) which means participants tended to use direct apology words more than pre-test. IFID is followed by EXP, which is another strategy increasing dramatically in the post-test. The number of EXPs in post-test increased from 59 to 92 which is 24.79% of total

responses. Responses including REP strategy seem to have increased from 10 to 24 in post-test which means 6.46% of the participant responses applied a REP strategy while apologizing. Besides, the number of FORBs increased from 41 to 65 which is 17.52% of the total responses. A decrease in the number of REPs is also observed. The number of RES strategy applied in post-test decreased from 30 to 17, which means 6.46% percent of the total responses include a RES. This means, participants tended to take less responsibility of their offenses.

Some examples from the post-test will be given place here. For example, the response that S117 gave in the pre-test, which was already including some strategies, further improved in the post-test:

P117 response in pre-test *“Sorry. How can i compensate for this” (IFID+REP)* turned into *“I am sorry sir. There were some problems but I'll take care of it right away. It will never happen again”* in the post-test (IFID+EXP+REP+FORB).

Another example is from P86. His response in the pre-test was *“I'm sorry sir, very bad luck” (IFID)*. It turned into *“As you know, I had to go to the hospital because my wife is pregnant, I am sorry” (IFID+EXP)*.

The response taken from P35 was a rude one in the pre-test. However, in the post-test, he gave a completely different response:

“I know it is the second time, please forgive me, I'm so sorry, I promise it won't to happen again” (P35 in the post-test).

This response, rather than being rude, is a well-developed and favorable response including various strategies and intensity words (IFID+ FORB+ INT).

4.3.3. Post-Test Results of Situation 3

Situation 3 requires the speaker to express his apologies to his friend which is rather an informal context. The frequencies of apology strategies and modified strategies used in participant responses are given below in Table 35:

Table 35
Post-test frequencies of situation 3

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	96	30.9
EXP	70	22.5
RES	18	5.8
REP	74	23.8
FORB	14	4.5
MRES	1	0.3
DRES	-	-
MINOFF	-	-
COMT	5	1.6
INTS	25	8
EMOTS	5	1.6
RUDE	2	0.6
TOTAL	310	100

To begin with, as Table 35 indicates, the total number of strategies used in participant responses seemed to have increased in post-test implementation. The number of responses has increased from 239 to 311 in post-test. Besides, the number of some of the strategies in responses seemed to have increased dramatically, one of which is REP. REP is an abbreviation for responsibility strategy. In the post-test results of Situation 3, the participants have volunteered more to take the responsibility of their offenses compared to pre-test results. The number has increased from 15 (6.27%) to 74 (23.7%) which can be considered a development. Not only REP, but also all the other strategies have increased in the post-test. The number of IFIDs increased from 91 to 96 (30.8%); the number of EXPs to 70 (22.5%); the number of RES' to 18 (5.7%); FORBs to 14 (4.5%).

As for modification of strategies, there was no MRES in the pre-test, however, in the post-test there is one response including MRES (0.3%). The number of participants' commenting on their selves remained the same, but there is a dramatic increase in the use of intensity words. The number of intensity words in the responses seems to have increased from 15 to 25 in the post-test (8.03%). Yet, the number of rude answers decreased from 7 to 2 (0.6%) which is quite demanding for a post-test implementation. Surprisingly, there is one response including a lie in the post-test responses (0.3%).

One of the responses in the pre-test “*I'm sorry. I was taking a shower.*” (P9) turned into “*Sorry my friend. Our meeting at work took too long. Next time, we will meet*”.

This response both includes more number of strategies (IFID+EXP+REP) and sounds more polite.

Another response taken from P86 was “*very sorry my fault*” in the pre-test (IFID+RES+INT) has improved his response to “*My friend, I'm totally sorry, how do we compensate for this?*” which is a well-developed and polite response including various strategies compared to pre-test version.

One of the responses considered as rude was from P20 which is “Bus broke down”. In this response, although it contains an EXP strategy, the way the sentence uttered doesn't sound like an apology. This response, in the post-test, has improved to “Sorry, I forgot, we shall meet tomorrow.” which expresses an apology using some strategies in a polite way (IFID+RES+REP).

Some of the other well-structured responses from post-test implementation are given below:

P4: “Sorry my friend, I'm a little bit pensive these days. At the first meeting, I will order the coffees” (IFID+REP+COMT)

P43: “My friend, I'm really sorry, I was busy with other problems, and you're completely out of my mind. I will do my best to compensate for this. (IFID+EXP+RES+REP+INT).

According to Chi-Square Test results, for Situation 3, there is a significant difference between pre-test and post-test results. According to Chi-Square Test results, there is a significant difference between the results of pre-test and post-test implementation. The Chi-Square results are given below:

Chi-Square Results for Situation 3

Pearson Chi-Square Tests		
		Grup
	Chi-square	48,978
\$\$3	Df	12
	Sig.	,000 ^{*,a,b}

Chi-Square calculations indicate that the results are statistically significant. ($X^2(12, N = 134) = 48,978, p < 001$). This means, the participants' responses differ in number and range.

4.3.4. Post-Test Results of Situation 4

In Situation 4, the offender runs into the side of another car while backing out of a parking lot. Here, the speaker is mistaken and needs to offer his apologies. This situation covers a formal context where both sides do not know each other. In pre-test results, the responses include a variety of strategies. The post-test frequencies of Situation 4 is given below:

Table 36
Post-test frequencies of situation 4

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	106	27.3
EXP	33	8.5
RES	84	21.7
REP	105	27.1
FORB	-	-
MRES	-	-
DRES	-	-
MINOFF	3	0.7
COMT	5	1.2
INTS	37	9.5
EMOTS	7	1.8
RUDE	7	1.8
TOTAL	387	100

When a quick look at the pre-test and post-test frequency tables of Situation 4, there has been a significant growth in the number of the strategies used in the responses can be observed. The total number of 4 of the modification strategies which are IFID, EXP, RES

and REP seem to have increased, while the use of FORB, DRES, MINOFF and the number of RUDE answers decreased. In addition, the responses including COMT and INTS have increased as well. The Chi-Square calculations show that the findings of Situation 4's pre-test and post-test show a considerable difference, as the table below highlights:

Chi-Square Results for Situation 4

Pearson Chi-Square Tests		
		Grup
	Chi-square	63,770
\$S4	Df	12
	Sig.	,000 ^{*,a,b}

Chi-Square calculations indicate that the results are statistically significant. ($X^2(12, N = 134) = 63,770, p < 001$). This means that the number and range of responses differ among the participants.

As mentioned above, the number of modification strategies in the post-test results for Situation 4 has differed from pre-test results. The number of IFIDs has increased from 92 to 106 (27.3%) which means the participants preferred to use direct apology words like “sorry, forgive” more in the post-test. The number of EXPs has also increased from 26 to 33 which makes 8.5 % of total number of strategies applied. It shows the participants tended to explain why they run into the other car. As for responses including RES, which is a critical strategy for this Situation, there is an impressive growth in the number which goes from 53 to 84, which shows the speakers have tended to take the responsibility of their offenses (21.7%). Next strategy, REP, with an increasing number of responses included, has supported the use of RES. Participants has taken the charge of their offenses and volunteered on how to compensate.

When it comes to modification of strategies, DRES and MINOFF appear to have declined, which coincides with the increased adoption of REP and RES methods. The use of MINOFF fell by half (from 6 to 3) which is 0.7 percent of total number of responses in the post-test, and there is no observable DRES strategy. The number of responses which can be considered as rude has also decreased from 12 to 7 (1.8 %). Besides, the number of intensity words-INTS (9.5 %) and emotionals-EMOTS (1.8 %) has showed a tremendous

increase. In the pre-test results, there was observed no responses with emotionals. Some of the sample responses from Post-test are discussed below:

P118 was one of the participants that used a single strategy in the pre-test. His response *"I'm so sorry"* (IFID+INT) changed into *"Please sorry, if you want we can have it repaired."* in the post test (IFID+REP). On the other hand, another participants, P113 has replied *"I pay the expense"* (REP) in the pre-test, however, he further improved his response in the post-test to *"my fault. I will cover the expenses"* (RES+REP). In these responses, the number of the preferred strategies seems to have increased, on the other hand, the nature of the responses have improved.

When the rude responses are considered, one of the rude responses was from P125 saying *"Do you wanna fight? If you wanna fight I am here"*. This response has a considerable improvement and turned into;

"Oh' sorry for this Sir.This is my mistake.We can handle this between us.I will pay the expenses" (IFID+RES+REP+EMOTS).

The response from P35 in the pre-test was also a rude one which is *"Don't yell at me, what is that car doing there?"*. This rude response has come a long way and is now at its best;

"Sorry, this was my fault, hope we can fix it" (IFID+RES+REP).

However, the response from P87 in the pre-test was *"Can't you see it happened by mistake?"* has little improvement and can still be considered as rude: *"buddy calm down."*

As discussed previously, the strategies EXP, RES and REP has an impressive growth in the number in post-test for Situation 4. Some of the examples including these strategies are mentioned below:

P45: "I know this is clearly my fault and I am very sorry about this. I did not pay attention because I am in a hurry. But if you want I can pay the damage or I can find someone who can fix this." (IFID+EXP+RES+REP+INTS)

P51: "I'm sorry, it's my fault. I'll pay for it. Can you please try to stay calm?" (IFID+RES+REP)

P109: *“Sir, I’m so sorry. I should have been more careful. I will cover all your losses.” (IFID+REP+COMT+INTS)*

P16: *“I’m sorry.I could not notice your car. Please forgive me. I will compensate as I can.” (IFID+RES+REP)*

P89: *“I was in a hurry, there is an important meeting to catch up. Whatever your loss is, i can cover it later. Here is my phone number.” (EXP+REP)*

As for DRES and MINOFF, in the post-test, no response including DRES was observed and the number of responses with MINOFF seemed to have decreased. For example, the response of P85 improved to a well-structured and more favorable one from a rude response. His response *“you could have parked your car a little further away”* turned into *“I’m sorry, sir. I’m ready to cover the costs” (IFID+REP)* in the post-test. Another response including DRES was from P35 which is *“Don’t yell at me, what is that car doing there?”* This response of S35, then, improved to *“Sorry, this was my fault, hope we can fix it” (IFID+RES+REP)* which is a combination of strategies.

Another response with a MINOFF was received from P52 which is *“Relax I’ll pay for it”* improved and turned into *“You are right it is my fault how much do I owe?” (RES+REP)*, which is more favorable and preferable in a communicational event.

4.3.5. Post-Test Results of Situation 5

Situation 5 represents a rather informal context in which one of the friends forgot to return another’s book on time. The frequencies for this situation were calculated and given in Table 37:

Table 37
Post-test frequencies of situation 5

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	104	30.5
EXP	38	11.1
RES	33	9.6
REP	83	24.3
FORB	11	3.2
MRES	5	1.4
DRES	4	1.1
MINOFF	5	1.4
COMT	5	1.4
INTS	42	12.3
EMOTS	9	2.6
RUDE	2	0.5
TOTAL	341	100

As the frequencies and the distribution of strategies are considered, the significant growth in the number of strategies is noteworthy. This large increase in the number is quite visible especially in EXP and REP strategies, although the number of responses including IFID and RES remains almost the same. The number of responses with EXP strategies increased from 26 to 38 in the post-test (11.1%), and the number of responses covering a REP increased from 35 to 83 (24.3%) which is quite notable. Responses including a FORB strategy seem to have decreased from 16 to 11 in the post-test (3.2%). Some of the responses from post-test implementation including these strategies are given below:

*P106: "Sorry dear I took a photocopy of his book but I forgot to bring his book I accept my mistake, I'm really sorry, I will be more careful next time."
(IFID+EXP+FORB)*

*P17: "I'm so sorry, I just didn't know that you needed the book. I will compensate."
(IFID+EXP+REP+INTS)*

*P12: "You're right, but I forgot I was going to bring, if you want, I can buy a cup of coffee to make up for it."
(EXP+REP)*

*P31: "You are very right to be angry with me, but I forgot because of the intensity of the lessons. I'm so sorry, buddy, it won't happen again."
(IFID+EXP+FORB+INTS)*

P24: I'm really sorry that I didn't return your textbook in time. I didn't know you needed it to prepare for last week's class if I did, I wouldn't have held onto it as long. Please forgive me. (IFID+EXP+INTS)

P97: How I can fix this? I can give you my notes. (REP)

P82: I left the book to the stationery to make copies, but the stationer lost the book. I can get you a new one if you want. (EXP+REP)

P35: Sorry to make such a mistake, please let me fix it. (IFID+REP)

P19: I'm sorry. I lost your book. I can buy a new book for you or I can pay for it if you wish. (IFID+EXP+REP)

P62: I'm so sorry that. I lost the book that I borrowed from you. I feel so bad about it. How can I fix this? (IFID+EXP+REP+INTS)

P63: Oh, I'm sorry, I understand you. My fault. How I can fix this? Let me buy you coffee. (IFID+RES+REP+EMOTS)

P69: I forgot about it. This is my fault. (RES)

As the MRES and DRES strategies considered, a decrease in both of the strategies is observed. MRES seems to have decreased from 7 to 5 (1.4%) and DRES from 8 to 4 (1.17%). On the other hand, the number of responses including a MINOFF increased from 2 to 5 (1.4%). Participants' comments on themselves also increased from 4 to 5 (1.4%) and there observed a significant growth in the use of INTS which increased from 22 to 42 (12.3%) in the post-test implementation. Parallel to INTS, the number of EMOTS significantly raised from 1 to 9 in the responses (2.6%). Some of the responses including modification of strategies are given below:

P43: I didn't know you needed for the lesson. Sorry buddy, but you didn't remind me you need it, so I didn't think the book was important! (IFID+EXP+ DRES)

P75: Oh, my god, I really forgot. I wish you'd reminded me. Now I'm very depressed but I'll make it up to you. (RES+DRES+COMT+EMOTS+ REP)

P114: First, I am sorry because I did not give it to you back. I forgot because I had many exams but if you need the book, you could say that to me and I would give it to you because you know that I'm forgetful. (IFID+EXP+MRES)

P1: Oh my friend, What happened? I would give you back already. Calm down. (MINOFF + EMOTS)

One of the rude responses in the post-test of Situation 5 is given as such:

P59: It's your fault to give the book. I'm sorry anyway.

Some of the participants tended to comment on themselves while responding. Some of the examples are given:

P7: I'm so embarrassed to you, please forgive me. (IFID+COMT)

P44: Ah really? I am forgetful. I gonna give you your textbook. Please forgive me for that. (IFID+COMT+EMOTS)

P120: Sorry very much, I started to be irresponsible lately. Please understand me I have some problems. If there is anything I can compensate, you should not doubt that I will compensate. (IFID+EXP+REP+COMT+INTS)

When the responses in the pre-test are considered, some of the responses seem to have improved well in the post test. For example, P33 had responded as “*Sorry I lost that book in the library. Are you talking about a book? I'll buy a new one for you....!*” in the pre-test, however, this response has improved to “*I'm sorry, but I hurried out of the dorm. I forgot to put the book in my bag.*” (IFID+EXP)

One of the DRES responses, from P3, further improved to “*I was going to bring the book to you last week, but I forgot the book at home, sorry.*” (IFID+EXP) while it was “*Why didn't you tell me again?*” in the pre-test.

The response received from P22 was a complete MRES in the pre-test which was “*Sorry, wish you remind me. You know I'm forgetful these days.*” turned to a more favorable response as “*I'm so sorry I forgot how can I make it up.*” (IFID+REP+INTS)

All the pre-test and post-test responses of the participants are considered, the chi-square test indicates a significant difference:

Chi-Square Results for Situation 5

Pearson Chi-Square Tests		
		Grup
	Chi-square	75,332
\$S5	Df	15
	Sig.	,000 ^{*,a,b}

Chi-Square calculations indicate that the results are statistically significant. ($X^2 (15, N = 134) = 75,332, p < 001$). Therefore, it should be mentioned that, in Situation 5, the researcher found out noteworthy results.

4.3.6. Post-Test Results of Situation 6

In Situation 6, in the DCT implemented, the participants are asked to express their apologies to an elderly lady in a formal context. It should be noted for this Situation that the offender really hurt the lady's leg and is expected to take an action for his offense. The frequencies for post-test results of Situation 6 are given in the following table:

Table 38
Post-test frequencies of situation 6

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	122	31
EXP	23	5.8
RES	60	15.2
REP	107	27.2
FORB	-	-
MRES	-	-
DRES	-	-
MINOFF	-	-
COMT	7	1.7
INTS	58	14.7
EMOTS	11	2.7
RUDE	5	1.2
TOTAL	393	100

As the table indicates for Situation 6, the range of strategies preferred by the participants didn't vary dramatically, however, the number of some of the strategies seem to have increased, notably RES and REP. Along with these, the number of responses including a comment about self (COMT), intensity words (INTS) and emotionals (EMOTS) increased as well. The number of responses with an IFID remained the same while the number of EXPs are very slightly lower than pre-test. Some of the examples are specified below:

P114: "Oh, I am really sorry ma'am. I did not mean to bump into you. How can I fix this? Can I buy you a cup of coffee?" (IFID+RES+REP+INTS+EMOTS)

P58: "I'm sorry, ma'am, sir. You fell down because of my mistake. I am really sorry. Is there anything I can do." (IFID+RES+REP+INTS)

P96: It was not consciously done, let me help you. Sit here please. (RES+REP)

P125: "God! I beg for your pardon Mrs. Let me get you to the hospital. I am so so sorry that was big mistake." (IFID+RES+REP+EMOT+INTS)

P104: "Oh, are you okay? I'm very sorry it's all my fault. What can I do to make it right?" (IFID+RES+REP+EMOTS+INTS)

Some of the responses with COMT are indicated as such:

P130: "I'm so sorry, beautiful lady, how do I get myself forgiven?" (IFID+REP+INTS)

P42: "Excuse me, I'm so sorry, madam. Happened by mistake. I had to pay attention. please excuse me. Are you hurt?" (IFID+RES+COMT+INTS)

P75: Ma'am, I'm very sorry. it's my fault. Are you okay? I'm definitely pensive. How can I apologize to you? (IFID+RES+COMT+REP+INTS)

P49: "Sir, I'm so sorry, I was distracted, I didn't see you let me put your bags together please let's go to the nearest hospital." (IFID+EXP+REP+COMT+INTS)

P55: I was in a hurry, so I wasn't careful. I would like to help you to carry your bags. (EXP+REP+COMT)

*P45: “Oh, God! How careless I am! I am very sorry, I didn't do it deliberately. Let me take you to the hospital to check if you are fine or not. Please, forgive me.”
(IFID+RES+REP+COMT+INTS+EMOT)*

*P89: “Lady, I'm so sorry, I'm a bit distracted because we argued with my girlfriend forgive me. If you have a serious injury, we can go to the hospital.”
(IFID+EXP+REP+COMT+INTS)*

Surprisingly, the number of rude responses increased from 1 to 5 in the post-test. Some examples are given:

P87: “Sorry.”

P131: “my eyes don't see please sorry :)”

P35: “Sorry.”

Essentially, these responses still include an apology strategy and seem to express apologies on behalf of the speaker; however, since the context necessitates more of it and as it may be intended to get rid of the trouble by simply saying sorry, these responses were considered as rude by the researcher.

As the chi-square calculations are considered, there is a significant difference between pre and post-test results of the implementation. Table below indicates the chi-square measurement details:

Chi-Square Results for Situation 6

Pearson Chi-Square Tests		
		Grup
	Chi-square	42,556
\$\$6	Df	9
	Sig.	,000 ^{*,a,b}

Chi-Square calculations indicate that the results are statistically significant. ($X^2(9, N = 134) = 42,556, p < 001$). This means, as the number and range of responses are considered, the researcher reached out noteworthy results.

4.3.7. Post-Test Results of Situation 7

Situation 7 involves a context in which the speaker breaks a friend's ornament and needs to express apologies. This context is rather informal and friendly one which may affect the way how the apologies are delivered. The frequencies and Situation 7 is specified in Table 39:

Table 39
Post-test frequencies of situation 7

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	99	28.7
EXP	38	11.
RES	32	9.3
REP	108	31.3
FORB	2	0.5
MRES	-	-
DRES	-	-
MINOFF	4	1.1
COMT	7	2.03
INTS	38	11
EMOTS	13	3.7
RUDE	3	0.8
TOTAL	344	100

Initially, the total number of strategies applied in the participant responses seems to have increased from 271 to 344 in the post-test and, there has been an increase in the number of all strategies more or less.

Here, in Situation 7, the number of REPs expanded from 88 to 108 (31.3%) which is a quite significant result. Another significant increase was observed in the number of RES which increased from 24 to 32 (9.3%). The number of EXPs also seems to have increased from 30 to 38 (11%). IFIDs in the responses, which was already quite high in the pre-test, increased from 95 to 99 (28.7%). In the pre-test, there was only one participant applying FORB in his response, and this number doubled in the post-test to 2 (0.5%). Some examples of responses are exemplified below:

P89: "I hope it's not a gift from someone special. Because I broke it unintentionally, buddy, if you desire, I can buy you a new one. I really apologize, it was unintentional." (IFID+RES+REP+INTS)

P71: *"I am so sorry. I broke it by mistake. I can buy you a new one if you want."*
(IFID+RES+REP+INTS)

P32: *"I'm sorry buddy, I hit my hand accidentally and broke it. I will buy a new one as soon as possible."* (IFID+EXP+REP)

P48: *"Sorry, I broke your ornaments but i can buy you some ornaments or give you money if you want."* (IFID+REP)

P31: *"Oh, I'm so sorry, my friend. I really didn't see it. Was it a valuable thing? I can get the same."* (IFID+RES+REP+INTS)

P97: *"How I can fix this? I can buy you a new one."* (REP)

S82: *"Sorry, I can buy you a new one if you want."* (IFID+REP)

P63: *"I'm very sorry. How I can fix this? I can get you a new one."*
(IFID+REP+INTS)

P109: *"I'm sorry, honey, I hurt you, I'm going to buy you a new beautiful ornament, forgive me."* (IFID+REP)

P103: *"I don't believe. Fell out of my hand. but do not worry I will get more beautiful. by the way i am sorry. let me kiss."* (IFID+EXP+REP)

For modification of strategies, almost all the strategies increased in number in the post-test. Responses including a MINOFF increased from 2 to 4 (1.1%); participant comments from 3 to 7 (2.03%); responses including INTS increased from 22 to 38 (11%) and use of EMOTS from 2 to 13 (3.7%). A slight decrease in the number of rude answers were also observed; this number decreased from 4 to 3 (0.8%) in the post-test. The examples with a MINOFF are given:

P5: *"Sorry my brother, it doesn't matter, I buy a new one."* (IFID+MINOFF+REP)

P40: *"I am really really so sorry. Forgive me I know you are the best friend in this world."* (IFID+MINOFF+INTS)

P35: *"I will buy you more beautiful ornaments."* (MINOFF)

*P12: "it was a mistake I'm sorry, but I'll get you a better present"
(RES+REP+MINOFF)*

Some sample responses including a COMT are specified below. The majority of the participants stated how clumsy they are while they were expressing apologies:

P59: "Damn! I'm so clumsy, forgive me?" (IFID+COMT+EMOTS)

P25: "I am very sad, I will get you a new one as soon as possible, please forgive my clumsiness." (IFID+REP+COMT+INTS)

*P45: "Oh, I am so clumsy today! I accidentally break your ornament, I am sorry. I will buy you a new one or I can pay, anyway you like."
(IFID+RES+REP+COMT+INTS+EMOTS)*

*P51: "Oh, man, it was a mistake. I'm clumsy. I think I can get the same."
(RES+REP+COMT+EMOTS)*

*S94: "Oh I am so sorry, you know I am a clumsy girl, I will get you the same thing."
(IFID+REP+COMT+INTS)*

P104: "Sorry, it's my own fault and I'm sorry for my carelessness. Please, will you allow me to pay for this?" (IFID+RES+REP+COMT)

The specified responses below also include examples of EMOTS and INTS. Eventually, in the post-test, the number of rude responses seem to have decreased from 4 to 3 (08%). The following are some of the rude responses:

P22: "You will be talking about an ornament item among us. You shame, you lost me." (RUDE)

*P75: "Don't make a big deal out of it, man. How much is it? I'll pay for it."
(RUDE)*

When the participants' pre- and post-test responses are taken into account, the chi-square test reveals a significant difference:

Chi-Square Results for Situation 7

Pearson Chi-Square Tests		
		Grup
	Chi-square	36,591
\$S7	Df	11
	Sig.	,000 ^{*,a,b}

Chi-Square calculations indicate that the results are statistically significant. ($X^2(11, N = 134) = 36,591, p < .001$). This signifies that the researcher came up with notable conclusions based on the amount and variety of responses.

4.3.8. Post-Test Results of Situation 8

In Situation 8, the speaker is expected to express his apologies for not attending one of his friend's farewell party. The details were given before. The frequencies and the range of strategies applied by the participants in the post-test were summarized in Table 40:

Table 40
Post-test frequencies of situation 8

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	101	33.6
EXP	111	37
RES	7	2.3
REP	45	15
FORB	2	0.6
MRES	-	-
DRES	-	-
MINOFF	-	-
COMT	-	-
INTS	34	11.3
EMOTS	-	-
RUDE	-	-
TOTAL	300	100

As the participants' responses for post-test were examined, the first thing to notice is the increase in the number of the strategies applied. The total number of strategies increased from 246 to 300 in the post-test. When the range of the responses was analyzed, there wasn't much difference observed. Participants tended to use the same groups of strategies in the post-test.

First of all, as in the pre-test, among the other strategies, the EXP strategy is the most popular one in this situation (37%). The number of EXPs seems to have increased, however, it is observed that the percentage of it in the total number decreased compared to pre-test. After EXP, IFID comes as the second most preferred strategy (33.6%) for the participants, but the percentage of IFID also decreased in the post-test. However, it is worth noting that both strategies continue to have the highest preference. As the number of REPs taken into consideration, it increased both in number and percentage (15%). Additionally, the number of responses with a FORB decreased from 3 to 2 in the post-test (0.6%).

As for modification of strategies, only responses with INTS were observed in the post-test. No other modification strategy was applied. Some of the sample responses are exemplified below:

P29: "Sorry I left you in a difficult situation, but I had a family problem, I have to solve it. I will compensate this, my friend." (IFID+EXP+REP)

P109: "Forgive me for not attending the farewell dinner. I was dealing with a family problem. let's meet later." (IFID+EXP+REP)

P122: "For important reasons, I could not come. My fault." (EXP+RES)

P68: "sorry I couldn't make it to this special dinner, we had some family issues." (IFID+EXP)

P84: "My dear friend, I wanted to come a lot, but I could not come because of a family problem. so sorry. We can compensate." (IFID+EXP+INTS+REP)

P96: "I know this dinner was meaning to you a lot, I really wanted to be there with you, but my sister was sick. I have taken her to the hospital." (EXP)

P12: "I couldn't come for family reasons, but can I buy you dinner tonight to make up for it." (EXP+REP)

S31: "I knew this was a special meal for you, my friend. I'm so sorry, but my grandfather got sick. I had to be with him, but I will compensate. How about going out for dinner tomorrow?" (IFID+EXP+REP+INTS)

P52: *“I had a family emergency sorry, I couldn’t make it.” (IFID+EXP+RES)*

P80: *“I’m so sorry, but yesterday I had a huge problem with my family and I couldn’t come to dinner, but I will make up for it when it comes to it.” (IFID+EXP+REP+INTS)*

P63: *“I could not come because of a family situation. Let me make it up. Would you like to have dinner with me tonight?” (EXP+REP)*

As the Table 40 indicates, for Situation 8, some of the strategies were used extensively by the participants including IFID, EXP and REP. Most of the responses are combinations of these strategies as the examples above exemplify. Aside from the strategies, some of the responses contain INTS, as the examples above demonstrate.

Lastly, despite the absence of rude responses in the post-test results, the rude responses in the pre-test were examined. One of the rude responses which was *“I spent time with my family.”* from P3 improved to

“I’m sorry I couldn’t come to the farewell dinner. I couldn’t come because my brother had a meeting in school I went there” (IFID+EXP)

Another rude response was from P67, which was *“My family is more important than my friends.”* improved well including combination of strategies and turned into *“I have to apologize, I couldn’t make it. Sorry to keep you waiting.” (IFID)*

In the light of these data, the chi-square calculations of Situation 8, including the pre-test and post-test implementations show that the results are statistically significant. Table below indicates the chi-square results:

Chi-Square Results for Situation 8

Pearson Chi-Square Tests		
		Grup
	Chi-square	31,912
\$\$8	Df	8
	Sig.	,000 ^{*,a,b}

According to the Chi-Square calculations, the results are statistically significant. ($X^2(8, N = 134) = 31,912, p < 001$). This indicates that the researcher drew important conclusions from the number and variety of responses in this situation.

4.3.9. Post-Test Results of Situation 9

Situation 9, as mentioned before, is a rather informal context in which the speaker is asked to express his apologies one of the fellow students. In this situation, although the responses seem to crowd around some certain strategies, some modified strategies were also observed. The frequencies and the range of strategies applied by the participants in the post-test were summarized in Table 41 below:

Table 41
Post-test frequencies of situation 9

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	120	35.7
EXP	101	30
RES	29	8.6
REP	32	9.5
FORB	1	0.2
MRES	-	-
DRES	1	0.2
MINOFF	3	0.8
COMT	2	0.5
INTS	26	7.7
EMOTS	14	4.1
RUDE	7	2.08
TOTAL	336	100

First of all, when the responses are considered, a dramatic increase in the number of strategies and modified strategies applied by the participants is observed in the post-test of Situation 9. The total number of strategies in the responses increased from 274 to 336 which is worthy of attention. Besides, the range of strategies is quite well, almost all the strategies and modified strategies seem to have increased except a few. Correspondingly, the chi-square calculations for this situation reveal a significant result:

Chi-Square Results for Situation 9

Pearson Chi-Square Tests		
		Grup
	Chi-square	52,726
\$S9	Df	12
	Sig.	,000 ^{*,a,b}

The chi-square calculations indicate that there is a notable difference between pre-test and post-test results and these results are statistically significant ($X^2(12, N = 134) = 52,726, p < 001$).

For Situation 9, it can be stated that, despite a few ups and downs, the number of IFIDs and EXPs in participant responses remained almost the same as the pre-test. Although the number of IFIDs has a slight decrease in post-test, it is still the most common response for the participants (35.7%). IFID is followed by EXP (30%) which also seems to have increased a few numbers. The number of responses with RES has growth a lot in the post-test and increased from 18 to 29 (8.6%). The number of REPs has also scaled up from 12 to 32 in the post-test which is quite impressive (9.5%). And there is only 1 response including FORB in the post-test (0.2%). Some examples from participants' responses are given below:

P133: "It won't happen again bro, sorry." (IFID+FORB)

P44: "Ah! are you okay? Sorry? I need to catch up with class." (IFID+EXP)

P127: "I'm sorry I couldn't see you, I was trying to catch the class, that's why I hit you." (IFID+EXP+RES)

P120: "I'm so sorry, buddy, there is a lesson to catch up with. Please forgive me." (IFID+EXP+INTS)

P114: "I'm sorry, Excuse me! I did not mean to bump into you. I have to get to class on time. If you want, I can buy you a coffee after the class." (IFID+RES+EXP+REP)

P84: "I'm so sorry, my friend. I was trying to catch up with the class so I couldn't pay attention. So sorry." (IFID+EXP+INTS)

P130: "Man, I'm wrong, I'm in a hurry. Let's drink tea in the canteen after class." (EXP+RES+REP)

P109: "Sorry to hit you, man, I'm late for class. I would like to compensate for my mistake by ordering you coffee and let's meet after class." (IFID+EXP+REP)

P45: "I didn't know you were there, I am very sorry! I have to be in class on time that's why I am rushing. I hope I didn't hurt you." (IFID+EXP+RES+INTS)

For modified strategies, 3 of the responses include a MINOFF which seem to have increased in the post-test (0.8%). There is 1 response with a DRES which is same with pre-test results (0.29%). 2 of the responses include a COMT (0.5%) which is a slight decrease. A notable increase is observed in the number of responses with INTS and EMOTS in the post-test. The number of responses including an INTS increased from 11 to 26 (7.7%), and the number of responses with an EMOTS increased from 1 to 14 (4.1%). A few examples for modified strategies are given as such:

P5: "Sorry dear, you understand me best." (IFID+MINOFF)

P89: "Oh shit. You got nothing, dude. We were getting injured. Sorry my foolishness. See you." (IFID+COMT+MINOFF)

P20: "I'm sorry but look ahead!" (IFID+DRES)

P94: "I am sorry, I am trying to catch up the lesson. You know sometimes it happens." (IFID+EXP+MINOFF)

P77: "Ups! I'm so sorry." (IFID+ EMOTS+INTS)

The number of rude responses seems to have increased from 3 to 7 in the post-test (2.08%). One of the examples of rude responses is given below:

P107: "Oops, COME SLOW!" (RUDE)

Despite the increase in the number of rude responses, some of them turned into well-developed responses expressing apologies in the post-test. For instance, the response gathered from P125 was “*Look at the front!*” in the pre-test but it turned into “*I’m sorry for that, I was late for class. You understand student status. Sorry.*” (IFID+ EXP) in the post-test. Another response considered as rude in the pre-test was from P131 which was “*Look ahead bro!*” turned into “*I’m in a hurry, sorry!*” (IFID+EXP) which is more appropriate and polite.

4.3.10. Post-Test Results of Situation 10

Situation 10, as examined in the previous parts, includes an informal context in which two friends had planned to go to concert. One of the friends was responsible for buying the tickets, however, he forgot to buy the tickets and needs to express his apologies. The frequencies for pre-test implementation were mentioned before, in this part of this dissertation, the results and frequencies for post-test implementation will be analyzed.

Table 42
Post-test Frequencies of Situation 10

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	101	31.7
EXP	27	8.4
RES	37	11.6
REP	81	25.4
FORB	7	2.2
MRES	1	0.3
DRES	1	0.3
MINOFF	1	0.3
COMT	6	1.8
INTS	35	11
EMOTS	14	4.4
RUDE	7	2.2
TOTAL	318	100

At first glance, the number of strategies applied by the participants is quite remarkable, having increased from 220 to 318 in total. As the responses are examined, the participant responses seem to have improved and included a wide range of strategies. Although the responses including a DRES and MRES still exist, the number of responses with a MINOFF decreased in the post-test. As all the responses are taken into consideration, the chi-square calculations for this situation reveal a significant result:

Chi-Square Results for Situation 10

Pearson Chi-Square Tests		
		Grup
	Chi-square	65,152
\$S10	Df	14
	Sig.	,000 ^{*,a,b}

According to the chi-square calculations, there is a considerable difference between pre-test and post-test findings, which are statistically significant ($X^2(14, N = 134) = 65,152, p < 001$).

When examined in depth, as mentioned before, there is a noteworthy increase in the number of strategies applied by the participants. The total number of strategies used in the pre-test increased from 220 to 318. The number of IFIDs in the participants responses increased from 81 to 101 (31.7%), the number of RES' to 37 (11.6%) and the number of REPs from 52 to 81 (25.4%). The number of FORBs, similarly, increased from 3 to 7 (2.2%) and the number of EXPs seem to have increased from 24 to 27 (8.4%) in the post-test. Some of the responses from post-test results are exemplified in the following:

P74: "I don't know how to say it, but I forgot to buy a ticket. I will buy VIP tickets to the next concert and we will listen to the artist from the front row. I promise. I will compensate." (RES+REP)

P2: "I forgot to buy concert tickets, forgive me, I will make up for next time." (IFID+RES+REP)

P31: "I'll tell you something, but don't be angry. My classes are very busy these days. I forgot to buy the tickets. I am really sorry. Can we go to the cinema today?" (IFID+EXP+REP+INTS)

P89: "My father forgot to send money to my account. I couldn't get tickets because I don't have money. Sorry." (IFID+EXP)

P48: "Sorry my friend, forgot to buy a ticket. It won't happen again." (IFID+RES+REP)

P120: "I'm so sorry, I forgot to buy the tickets, but I can book two tickets for the next concert if you wish. Please let me compensate." (IFID+RES+REP+IFID)

P87: "Sorry, sorry i forgot to buy tickets. How about drinking coffee instead?" (IFID+RES+REP)

As the modified strategies are considered, the number of MRES' and DRES' remains the same (0.3%) and MINOFF seems to have decreased from 4 to 1 in the post-test (0.3%). Together with this, the number of responses with a COMT increased from 2 to 6 (1.8%); the number of INTS increased from 19 to 35 (11%). The total number of EMOTS in the post-test is 14 (4.4%). It is noteworthy that there isn't observed any participant response including an EMOTS in the pre-test results. Some samples including these strategies are specified below:

P4: Sorry my friend, I'm a little bit distracted today, actually I forgot to buy the tickets. We can go somewhere else if you want. (IFID+RES+REP+COMT)

P13: "Oh shit. I wouldn't want it to be like this. But we can do something else together. For example, we can go to another concert." (EMOTS+RES+REP)

P22: "I so sorry I forgot to buy the tickets. If you want, let's go to the restaurant .I'll buy you kebab." (IFID+RES+REP+INTS)

P63: "God! I really forgot about it! Oh, I'm sorry. There is a group concert tomorrow. Do you want me to buy tickets for them?" (IFID+RES+REP+EMOTS+INTS)

P91: "My friend very sorry you know I'm very forgetful. We go to the other concert. (IFID+REP+COMT+INTS)

P42: "I forgot to buy tickets. Sorry buddy. I wish you remind me. Next time I will not forget. Let's have a meal with you. What do you say?" (IFID+RES+REP+MRES)

Lastly, the number of responses considered as rude also decreased from 10 to 7 in the post-test (2.2%). Some examples are given belows:

P131: “See you at the next concert :)” (RUDE)

P72: “I forgot bro, I will sing to you. LoL.” (RUDE)

In the post-test, some of the rude answers seems to have improved. For instance, the response provided by P35 which was “The concert was not what I expected, I chose not to buy tickets” turned into “I forgot to buy a ticket, we can go to the other concert (RES+REP)” in the post-test. Another response from P59 was “Beat me if you want or let’s cry together”. This response turned into a well-developed one in the post-test: “I must me really stupid. I will understand if you don’t want to speak. Sorry my friend. (IFID+COMT)”

4.3.11. Post-Test Results of Situation 11

Situation 11 includes rather an informal context in which the speaker forgets to return the book he has borrowed from his professor and he is expected to express his apologies to his professor. The frequencies of the strategies were calculated for this Situation and given in Table 43 below:

Table 43
Post-test frequencies of situation 11

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	102	33.3
EXP	40	13
RES	21	6.8
REP	64	20.9
FORB	32	10.4
MRES	-	-
DRES	-	-
MINOFF	-	-
COMT	1	0.3
INTS	40	13
EMOTS	2	0.6
RUDE	4	1.3
TOTAL	306	100

As the results and frequencies are reviewed quickly, it is noteworthy that there is a considerable increase in the number of strategies applied by the participants in the post-test. Especially, there is a striking growth in the number of responses including IFID, EXP, RES and REP strategies; however, there is a decrease in the number of responses with a

FORB. These indicate that there is a significant difference between pre-test and post-test results of Situation 11, as shown in the following:

Chi-Square Results for Situation 11

Pearson Chi-Square Tests		
		Grup
	Chi-square	108,424
\$S11	Df	11
	Sig.	,000 ^{*,a,b}

According to the chi-square calculations, there is a difference between pre-test and post-test findings are , which is statistically significant ($X^2(11, N = 134) = 108,424, p < 001$).

A detailed analysis shows that, the number of strategies applied by the participants increased dramatically in the post-test. The total number of strategies increased from 188 to 306 in the post-test, which is quite worthy of attention. The number of IFIDs increased from 73 to 102 (33.3%) in the post-test implementation. The number of EXPs was exactly doubled and increased from 20 to 40 (13%). The number of responses with a RES increased from 6 to 21 (6.8%) and REP increased from 22 to 64 (20.9%) in the total number of strategies. On the other hand, there is a decrease in the number of FORB applied in the post-test, the number decreased from 49 to 32 (10.4%). Some examples from student responses are provided below:

P35: "Sorry for forgetting the book. Would you give me a chance to make up for it?" (IFID+RES+REP)

P19: "I'm so sorry that I lost the book that I borrowed from you. I feel so bad about it. How can I fix this?" (IFID+EXP+REP+INTS)

P43: "Professor, sorry for forgetting your book at home, forgive me. I will bring your book to you tomorrow." (IFID+EXP+REP)

P57: "Sir, I forgot to give the book, sorry, I will give it as soon as possible." (IFID+RES+REP)

P127: *“Sorry I could not bring the book due to the exams last week, i know it not excuse it’s my mistake, it will never happen again.” (IFID+EXP+RES+FORB)*

P84: *“Sir I apologize to you. I forgot to bring your book. I will deliver the book as soon as possible and will not make such a mistake again. (IFID+RES+REP+FORB)*

P101: *“I 'm sorry, my teacher is completely out of my mind but tomorrow I will definitely deliver the book to you.” (IFID+RES+REP)*

P45: *“I was going to give you the book Sir, but I forgot it because of the exams. Please accept my apology for the delay. I assure that I will never behave like this again.” (IFID+EXP+FORB)*

When it comes to modified strategies, it is observed there isn’t any response with a MRES, DRES or MINOFF included. There is only 1 response with a COMT, same with the pre-test results (0.3%). There are 2 responses including EMOTs (0.6%) which is significant since there was no EMOT in the pre-test. There is a dramatic increase in the number of INTS, which increased from 9 to 40 in the post-test (13%). On the other hand, the number of responses considered as rude decreased from 8 to 4 (1.3%), the number seems to have reduced by almost half. The samples from participant responses are exemplified below:

P24: *“Good afternoon professor, I was meaning to speak to you as soon as possible. I happen to have forgotten to return the book you let me borrow. I am really sorry, I was hoping to give to you the end of the week if that works for you?” (IFID+EXP+REP+INTS)*

P53: *“I am sorry, will you forgive me for being lazy.” (IFID+COMT)*

P90: *“Sir, I'm so sorry, I forgot to give your book but I will really bring it tomorrow.” (IFID+RES+REP+INTS)*

P33: *“I am so sorry I could not bring the book I bought from you because it is in my other bag. I feel really bad for this. Please let me make it up, I assure you that this will not happen again.”*

P62: “God! I really forgot about it!” (RES+EMOTS)

P91: “Teacher, I’m pensive these days. I will bring your book tomorrow , forgive me .” (IFID+REP+COMT)

P38: “I have a little work with the book, I will deliver it to you in a few days.” (RUDE)

P85: “Teacher, don't worry. (RUDE)

One of the rude responses from P83 turned into a well-developed response in the post-test. The response was “I like the book!” in the pre-test, which was considered as rude; however, it improved to “Sorry, I will bring as soon as possible” (IFID+REP) in the post-test implementation.

4.3.12. Post-Test Results of Situation 12

Situation 12 includes a context in which someone borrows a book from a friend and poured coffee on it. Compared to previous similar situations, this situation can be considered rather informal and necessitates a proper language use. The frequencies and range of strategies applied in Situation 12 are provided in the below table:

Table 44
Post-test frequencies of situation 12

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	105	32.1
EXP	37	11.3
RES	21	6.4
REP	111	33.9
FORB	1	0.3
MRES	-	-
DRES	-	-
MINOFF	4	1.2
COMT	9	2.7
INTS	33	10
EMOTS	3	0.9
RUDE	3	0.9
TOTAL	327	100

As the Table 44 indicates, the increase in the number of strategies applied by the participants is worthy of attention. The total number of strategies for Situation 12 increased

from 253 to 327 in the post-test. Almost all the strategies are observed to have increased in number except a few of them. The Chi-square calculations for Situation 12 are given in the below table:

Chi-Square Results for Situation 12

Pearson Chi-Square Tests		
		Grup
	Chi-square	57,119
\$\$12	Df	13
	Sig.	,000 ^{*,a,b}

The chi-square results for Situation 12 indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between pre-test and post-test findings ($X^2(12, N = 134) = 57,119, p < 001$).

A detailed analysis shows that the number of REPs in the participant responses is quite dramatic; the number of REPs increased from 93 to 111 in the post-test (33.9%) which was already considerably high in the pre-test. Following REP, the number of IFIDs seems to have increased from 82 to 105 (32.1%) in the post-test. The number of responses with a RES increased from 8 to 21 (6.4%), on the other hand, responses including an EXP decreased from 42 to 37 (11.3%). The number of FORB remained the same, only 1 response included a FORB in the post-test (0.3%). Some examples from participant responses are exemplified:

P2: "How I can fix this? Let me buy you a new book." (REP)

P7: "It's all my fault, I'll get a new one as soon as possible my friend." (RES+REP)

P4: "Hey buddy, coffee was spilled on your book by mistake. But don't worry I'll get the same book to you." (RES+REP)

P57: "It happened unintentionally, excuse me, I can buy a new one if you want." (IFID+RES+REP)

P6: "I'm so sorry, it really happened by mistake." (IFID+RES+INTS)

P92: *"I'm sorry buddy, I will take new edition."* (IFID+REP)

P38: *"Sorry it happened by mistake. I want to buy you a new book to forgive myself. Is there a book you want?"* (IFID+RES+REP)

P85: *"You may be mad at me, but I didn't want to do this. That's why I ordered you a new one."* (RES+REP)

As for modified strategies, there are 4 responses including a MINOFF in the post-test (1.2%) although there isn't any in the pre-test. 9 of the responses in the post-test has a COMT (2.7%), however, the number of responses with a COMT is 4 in the pre-test which means there is an increase. On the other hand, the number of INTS seems to have increased from 18 to 33 (10%) and 3 of the responses include a COMT (0.9%) due to the post-test results; there isn't any response with a COMT in the pre-test. Some samples are given in the following:

P116: *"Sorry. Coffee was poured into his book. But Does it have a word between us, friend?"* (IFID+ MINOFF)

P125: *"Ah, this is little problem. I'll buy another book. Never mind."* (EMOTS+MINOFF+REP)

P71: *"hey I'm so sorry. I accidentally spilled coffee on the book I borrowed from you. I will buy you a new book."* (EMOTS+RES+REP+INTS)

P24: *"Here is the book I borrowed from you; however I wanted to let you know that I accidentally spilled coffee on it. I'm so sorry."* (IFID+RES+INTS)

P15: *"I am very, very sorry, my friend, I want to buy you a new book."* (IFID+REP+INTS)

P74: *"I did not willingly pour coffee into his book. You know I'm clumsy, buddy. Sorry. I want to compensate by buying a new one."* (IFID+RES+REP+COMT)

P13: *"I 'm so sorry my stupidity. I will buy you two books in return. I hope you will forgive me."* (IFID+REP+COMT+INTS)

P89: *“Brother, I did some damage to the book I bought from you. But still readable. I can buy a new one if you wish. It is my clumsiness. Sorry.”*
(IFID+RES+REP+COMT)

P91: *“My friend very sorry. I’m clumsy. I will buy you a new book.”*
(IFID+REP+COMT+INTS)

P17: *“I’m so sorry, because I am a very incompetent person I poured coffee over the book you lent to me. I’ll buy new one for you.”*
(IFID+RES+REP+COMT+INTS)

Considering rude responses, the results indicate that there is a decrease in the number of responses considered as rude. The total number of rude responses decreased from 5 to 3 (0.9%) in the post-test:

P20: *“Sorry use like this.”* (RUDE)

P87: *“Should I buy a new one?”* (RUDE)

P72: *“It wasn’t beautiful book, never mind.”* (RUDE)

On the other hand, some of the rude responses in the pre-test seem to have improved in the post-test. For example, P73 responded to this situation as *“It asked me for coffee a lot and I gave it, too.”* which is a pretty rude response. In the post-test, P73 provided a better response to the same situation which is *“Sorry, my child poured coffee while reading the book. I will take the new one and bring it to you as soon as possible”* (IFID+EXP+REP). His response in the post-test is a well-structured one including useful strategies for expressing his offense.

4.3.13. Post-Test Results for Situation 13

Situation 13 includes a context in which a person borrows his friend’s car and has an accident with it. He needs to express his regret and apologize while giving the car back. The frequencies and the range of strategies were calculated and summarized in the below table:

Table 45
Post-test frequencies of situation 13

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	108	31
EXP	36	10.3
RES	33	9.4
REP	107	30.7
FORB	1	0.2
MRES	-	-
DRES	1	0.2
MINOFF	6	1.7
COMT	1	0.2
INTS	49	14
EMOTS	4	1.1
RUDE	2	0.5
TOTAL	348	100

Due to the post-test results for Situation 13, there is a dramatic increase in the number of strategies applied in the participant responses. The total number of strategies increased from 249 to 348 which is quite remarkable. On the other hand, the distribution of the strategies is almost the same as the pre-test results. . The Chi-square calculations indicate that there is a significant difference between two implementations:

Chi-Square Results for Situation 13

Pearson Chi-Square Tests		
		Grup
	Chi-square	72,510
§§13	Df	14
	Sig.	,000 ^{*,a,b}

As the Table shows, due to the chi-square results for Situation 13, there is a statistically significant difference between pre-test and post-test findings of the implementations ($X^2(14, N = 134) = 72,510, p < 001$).

The results indicate that, the number of REPs has an increase; the total number of REPs increased from 93 to 107 (30.7%) in the post-test. As in pre-test, REP is followed by IFID. The number of responses with an IFID seems to have increased from 85 to 108 (31%). EXP is ranked as third; the number of responses including an EXP increased from 18 to 36 (10.3%) and RES also has a growth from 13 to 33 (9.4%). Different from pre-test,

there is 1 response including a FORB within (0.2%). No response with a FORB observed in the pre-test results. Some samples from participant responses are highlighted below:

*P2: "Forgive me, I will cover all expenses, sorry, I have a mistake."
(IFID+RES+REP)*

*P14: "Sorry. I'm going to cover your damage now I'm looking for a mechanic, don't worry your car will be better than before."
(IFID+REP)*

*P82: "While waiting at the red light, a car hit. But don't worry. It will cover your damage."
(EXP+REP)*

*P23: "There was a place I had to catch up urgently so I had a car accident. I will cover the damage"
(EXP+REP)*

*P101: "I know I'm very guilty but I don't know how it happened how can I forgive myself I promise to restore your car."
(IFID+RES+REP+INTS)*

*P45: "When I was driving the car last night, I looked at my phone for two seconds and suddenly the car got out of control. You are right whatever you say, you have no idea how sorry I am... Don't worry, I will cover all repair costs."
(EXP+RES+REP)*

*P50: "I accidentally damaged your car and I want to compensate for the damage of your car."
(RES+REP)*

In terms of modified strategies, it is visible that the number of responses with a MINOFF increased from 4 to 6 (1.7%) in the post-test, on the other hand, the responses including a DRES decreased from 6 to 1 (0.2%). Besides, the number of COMTs has also decreased and only 1 response included a COMT within (0.2%). The number of INTS has increased excessively, from 25 to 49 (14%). Lastly, there was not any EMOTS observed in the pre-test responses, however, there are 4 responses with an EMOT in the post-test (1.1%). Some samples are given in the following:

*P31: "I'm so sorry, buddy. On the road, they hit the car from behind. Nothing too important, but I will cover the damage."
(IFID+EXP+REP+INTS)*

P7: *"I'm so sorry, my dear friend, I will repair your car." (IFID+REP+INTS)*

P97: *"I'm so sorry, I will cover the repair costs." (IFID+REP+INTS)*

P19: *"I'm very sorry. I didn't mean to. I can buy a new one if you want." (IFID+RES+REP+INTS)*

P89: *"Thanks God, I wasn't in my heart, but I will cover the damage I caused to your vehicle. I wish you understanding. Sorry." (IFID+RES+REP+EMOTS)*

P127: *"I'm so sorry buddy, the accident happened suddenly. I am ready to pay for all your damage." (IFID+RES+REP+INTS)*

P38: *"Sorry it's all my mistake I'm so sorry I will bear all the expenses" (IFID+RES+REP+INTS)*

P91: *"Oh , my friend , believe that it happened by mistake. I will cover your loss. Please forgive me." (IFID+RES+REP+EMOTS)*

P99: *"I'm very sorry. I didn't do it deliberately. I will cover all the damage." (IFID+RES+REP+INTS)*

P42: *"I'm so sorry, my friend, really. I will cover all your expenses. I will not leave you in a difficult situation. I never wanted this to happen, but it happened. Whatever you say you're right. I'm very sorry again." (IFID+RES+REP+INTS)*

P85: *"Oh, man, it really came out of nowhere. I didn't notice. I'm ready to cover your expenses. Very, very sorry." (IFID+EXP+RES+REP+INTS)*

P29: *"Sorry, I'm really distracted for a moment. I will compensate for the cost of the car, but you forgive me, my friend." (IFID+REP+COMT+INTS)*

P134: *"My brother was very sick, I had to bring him to the hospital, I had an accident because of panic, I'm so sorry, I'm sorry for the damage." (IFID+EXP+INTS)*

P96: *"You should have told me that I need to be careful, I have had an accident. I am really sorry about what happened. I am sorry." (IFID+RES+DRES+INTS)*

In the post-test, there were only 2 responses which can be considered as rude by the researcher. One example is given here:

P59: "I don't have any money. You can take my life." (RUDE)

One of the rude responses in the pre-test was *"I did it unintentionally, sorry. But I think it looks better like this."* provided by P35. This response turned into a better one in the post-test: *"Sorry, I will repair."* (IFID+REP). Another rude response, in the pre-test, is given by P73 which was *"There was an exhaust in your car but no more."* which is pretty rude and out of favor. This response turned into a well-structured one in the post-test: *"Sorry it happened by mistake. I will have it repaired tomorrow"* (IFID+RES+REP).

4.3.14. Post-Test Results for Situation 14

Situation 14 describes a context in which one of the partners had promised to do some household but forgot to do it. When he comes back home, he realizes that his spouse has done the work and he needs to apologize. The detailed were discussed in the pre-test analysis part. The frequencies and the range of strategies for post-test results were calculated and given in the below table:

Table 46
Post-test frequencies of situation 14

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	78	31.5
EXP	50	20.2
RES	22	8.9
REP	41	16.5
FORB	13	5.2
MRES	1	0.4
DRES	-	-
MINOFF	-	-
COMT	5	2
INTS	22	8.9
EMOTS	12	4.8
RUDE	3	1.2
TOTAL	247	100

The findings for Situation 14 indicate that there is a remarkable increase in the number of strategies applied by the participants in their responses. It is noteworthy that the total number of strategies increased from 249 to 348 which is quite remarkable. The Chi-square calculations indicate that there is a considerable difference between the findings:

Chi-Square Results for Situation 14

Pearson Chi-Square Tests		
		Grup
	Chi-square	59,108
\$\$14	Df	11
	Sig.	,000 ^{*,a,b}

According to the chi-square results for Situation 14, there is a statistically significant difference between pre-test and post-test findings of the implementations ($X^2(11, N = 134) = 59,108, p < 001$).

When analyzed in detail, it is observed that almost all the strategies have increased in the post-test section. The number of IFIDs increased from 61 to 78 (31.5%). The number of EXPs reached from 44 to 50 (20.2%). The number of responses including a RES also increased from 7 to 22 (8.9%) which is worthy of attention. On the other hand, the number of responses with a FORB has a slight decrease, from 15 to 13 in the post-test (5.2%). Some examples from participant responses are given in the following:

P43: "Sorry darling, things were very busy today. All the work of the house is up to you, but you can be sure that I will make up for it." (IFID+EXP+REP)

P127: "I was so busy at work I couldn't come early to do the work, next time I will keep my promise." (EXP+REP)

P101: "Sorry for that. I promise that I will do something for you too. Make sure it won't be repeated again." (IFID+REP+FORB)

P4: "Sorry my love, I'm a little busy these days, I wasn't very interested in housework, but I'll handle it as soon as possible." (IFID+EXP+REP)

P46: *“My dear wife, I promised you I'd do the house work, but you did it. It made me so embarrassed. I'm sorry. I will never put things off again.”*
(IFID+RES+FORB)

P13: *“My love you know I am busy in the last days. I promise it will never happen again.”* (EXP+FORB)

P71: *“I am so sorry I couldn't keep that promise. Thanks for everything you do. You are a very good wife.”* (IFID+RES+INTS)

Considering modification of strategies, it is observed that the number of responses including a MRES decreased to 1 response only (0.4%). On the other hand, the number of COMTs increased from 2 to 5 (2%) and INTS increased from 14 to 22 (8.9%). There was not any EMOTs applied in the pre-test results, however, in the post-test, there are 12 responses including an EMOTS which is worthy of attention (4.8%).

P2: *“I'm so sorry, forgive me I should have done.”* (IFID+RES+INTS)

P31: *“I was very busy at the company today, my love. I know you work too, this is not an excuse, but I'm so sorry, my love. I love you much. How about having dinner outside today?”* (IFID+EXP+RES+INTS)

P74: *“Oh darling, you know I'm working very hard these days. I'm so sorry I forgot. I want to compensate.”* (IFID+EXP+REP+INTS+EMOTS)

P120: *“Thank you. I can't take my head off work recently. I know I was supposed to do this, but I couldn't spare time. I'm sorry, so sorry. Will you be able to forgive me?”* (IFID+EXP+RES+INTS)

P54: *“Oh, my God, I completely forget. My fault. Sorry.”* (IFID+RES+EMOTS)

P86: *“I'm sorry I acted irresponsibly.”* (IFID+COMT)

P45: *“Honey I know I promised but I couldn't do it because of work. I am so sorry, I didn't mean to upset you. You know what? Tonight, dinner is on me!”*
(IFID+EXP+RES+REP+INTS)

There are 3 responses which are considered as rude by the researcher. Some of these are given below:

P72: "Let's drink tea." (RUDE)

P14: "Did you have a problem why did not you take care of your work?" (RUDE)

On the other hand, the number of rude responses seems to have decreased in the post-test. The total number of rude responses decreased from 7 to 3 (1.2%). One of the rude responses from P62 was "Please don't start again!" improved to "*God! I really forgot about it. How I can fix this?*"(RES+REP+EMOTS) in the post-test. Another rude response was provided by P114 which was "Get out of here, they are my job!". This response turned into a more favored one as "*I'm sorry that I could not keep my word*" (IFID+RES) in the post-test.

4.3.15. Overall Results of Post-test Implementation

After having analyzed the frequencies and chi-square calculations of each situation in the DCT separately, the researcher did further calculations for the overall data. First of all, the overall frequencies for the Situations were given in the Table 47 below:

Table 47
The overall frequencies of post-test results

Strategy	Frequency	Percent
IFID	1480	32.3
EXP	711	15.5
RES	475	10.3
REP	989	21.6
FORB	151	3.3
MRES	10	0.2
DRES	64	1.3
MINOFF	29	0.6
COMT	55	1.2
INTS	510	11.1
EMOTS	100	2.1
RUDE	53	1.1
TOTAL	4.574	100

As the frequency of the strategies in the responses of the post-test implementation is considered, it is visible that the number of IFIDs in the responses has the highest rate (32.3). REP is the second strategy applied by the participants (21.6) and EXP is the third (15.5%) among all strategies. It is followed by RES (10.3%). FORB is at the end of the list with a quite lower rate of preference (3.3%).

As for modified strategies, INTS is the most favored strategy (11.1%). EMOTS comes second (2.1%). It is followed by DRES (1.3%) and COMT (1.2%). MINOFF comes after it (0.6%) and it is followed by MRES (0.2%). The 1.1% of total number of responses are considered as rude by the researcher.

Pearson Chi-Square Tests		
		Grup
	Chi-square	80,282
\$Overall	Df	16
	Sig.	,000 ^{*,a,b}

When the participant responses are analyzed, and chi-square results for Situation 14 are considered, it is observed that there is a statistically significant difference between pre-test and post-test findings of the implementations ($X^2(16, N = 134) = 80,282, p < 001$). This means, due to the meta-pragmatic instructions, meta-pragmatic discussions and awareness raising activities provided in the language classes for 3 weeks, the participant responses changed significantly.

4.4. Semi-Structured Interviews

In this dissertation, in order to have a deep understanding of the use of apology strategies by the participants, semi-structured interviews were conducted with some of the participants. Among 134 participants of the overall research, 24 of the participants volunteered to participate in the interviews. Below is a Table indicating the departments of the interviewees:

Table 48
Departments of the interviewees

Department	Frequency	Percent
Political Science and Public Administration	13	54.2
Management	6	25
Finance	2	8.3
Economy	2	8.3
International Trade and Logistics	1	4.2
Total	24	100%

As the table indicates, 13 interviewees out of 24 are from the department of Political Sciences and Public Administration (54.2%). 6 of the interviewees study in the department of Management (25%), 2 interviewees study Finance (8.3%) and 2 study Economics (8.3%). 1 of the interviewees studies International Trade and Logistics (4.2%). The participation in the interviews is on a voluntary basis; therefore, no equal number of participants participated from the departments specified above.

It should also be noted that all the interviewees have Turkish origin which is the reason for not giving a table for it. However, the gender of the interviewees matters. Most of the interviewees are male as the table below points:

Table 49
Gender of the interviewees

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	20	83.3
Female	4	16.7
Total	24	100 %

The interviews are planned as 30 minutes each and both the researcher and the interviewees were careful about the time limitation. The table 50 indicates the dates of the interviews and how long each interview has taken:

Table 50
Date and duration of interviews

Date and duration of interviews		
	Interviewee 1 (I1)	25:54 mins
	Interviewee 2 (I2)	27:56 mins
Date	Interviewee 3 (I3)	21:17 mins
5/17/2022	Interviewee 4 (I4)	23:39 mins
	Interviewee 5 (I5)	23:24 mins
	Interviewee 6 (I6)	27:15 mins
Date	Interviewee 7 (I7)	19:37 mins
5/18/2022	Interviewee 8 (I8)	20:20 mins
	Interviewee 9 (I9)	24:28 mins
Date	Interviewee 10 (I10)	25:59 mins
5/19/2022	Interviewee 11 (I11)	20:22 mins
Date	Interviewee 12 (I12)	20:04 mins
5/20/2022	Interviewee 13 (I13)	28:28 mins
Date	Interviewee 14 (I14)	21:16 mins
5/23/2022	Interviewee 15 (I15)	24:37 mins
	Interviewee 16 (I16)	27:23 mins
Date	Interviewee 17 (I17)	24:44 mins
5/24/2022	Interviewee 18 (I18)	21:16 mins
	Interviewee 19 (I19)	27:51 mins
Date	Interviewee 20 (I20)	26:19 mins
5/25/2022	Interviewee 21 (I21)	29:32 mins
Date	Interviewee 22 (I22)	23:37 mins
5/26/2022		
Date	Interviewee 23 (I23)	24:45 mins
5/28/2022	Interviewee 24 (I24)	21:23 mins

In these interviews, interviewees were asked 1 main question and 3 related questions:

Main Question: What are the initial factors you have taken into consideration while responding to the questions?

- Have you been affected by ‘age’ of the person you interact while responding to the questions?
- Have you been affected by the ‘gender’ of the person you interact while responding to the questions?
- Have you been affected by the ‘social status’ of the person you interact while responding to the questions?

- Have you been affected by the ‘nature of relationship’ you hold with the person you interact while responding to the questions, such as formality/informality?

While analyzing the responses of the interviewees, for the first question, which is a more general one, the main themes they touched upon were gathered. Below is a table indicating the key topics mentioned by the interviewees:



Table 51
 IQ 1: Main themes identified in interview question 1

Interviewee Codes	Category	Main Themes	N	%	Example Quotation
I1, I3, I8, I10, I12, I14, I16, I17, I21	The nature of offense	The speaker is mistaken The other person is mistaken	9	37.5	I1: The bigger my fault, the more I wanted to apologize. I3: The way we apologize should not differ from person to person. How big your fault is important.
I2, I5, I18, I20	The gravity of the offense	If the mistake is simple If the mistake is big	4	16.6	I5: My friend's ornament is cheap, but a stranger's car will be expensive to repair. My fault is big here. I18: How big my mistake is more important than other factors. I4: Because we were in a meeting, so I used an appropriate language.
I4, I7, I13, I15, I21	Context	If it is a formal context If it is an informal context	5	20.8	I7: If I don't use appropriate language when I crash into someone's car I don't know, there can be an argument. The context I'm in is important.
I1, I2, I3, I6, I16, I18, I19, I23, I24	Age	I am older than the other person The other person is older	9	37.5	I2: If the other person was older, I needed to show more respect
I1, I2, I3, I6, I11, I13, I14, I17, I18, I19, I22	Social Status	Other person's social status is higher My social status is higher	11	45.8	I2: If the other person was a director or something, I needed to show more respect I4: I used formal language because my boss was hierarchically superior to me.
I1, I2, I7, I10, I15, I17, I22,	The nature of relationship	We have a close relationship We have a formal relationship The other person is a stranger	7	29.1	I2: If the other person was my friend, I didn't take it seriously.

In the first question of the semi-structured interviews, interviewees were asked about what factors they have taken into consideration while apologizing in the given situations and their responses were gathered. No more clues given or comments provided. Interviewees were expected to recall what led them to their responses. Their responses to this question provided a group of categories:

- The nature of offense
- The gravity of the offense
- Context
- Age
- Social Status
- The nature of relationship

These categories were created entirely on the basis of interviewee responses. As listed above, the interviewees mentioned 6 categories of responses in their interviews. Some of the opinions of interviewees about apologizing or their very first comments on the factors which inspired them when providing their responses are given below:

I5: It is important to me whom I apologize to. I apologize to my friend in this way, I apologize to my boss in that way. They are different. I can make jokes to my friends when apologizing but bosses or directors would be tough, I should be serious when talking.

I6: How I address to the people may vary depending on the person I am addressing. I can address my friend, my boss or my wife in different ways. I, of course, express my apologies when I am mistaken but my use of language changes.

I7: If I don't use appropriate language when I crash into someone's car I don't know, there can be an argument... I can solve problems with my friend, for example, easier. The context I'm in is important.

I12- My friend is certainly different from my boss or teacher. I feel more comfortable with my friend.

I13: My way of apologizing changes from person to person. For example, my colleague and my boss aren't same. I can talk with a colleague, someone I work together, I can talk with him more candidly. But I should be more serious with my boss. I should choose the words.

I9: We have to be respectful to each other. For my family, for my friends I always behave like this.

I15: My way of apologizing depends on the person I need to apologize to. If the person is my friend, I can use a regular way, but if it is a stranger I will be kinder. For example, when I apologize to my boss, I can't treat him the way I treat my friend.

I14: An ordinary person has nothing to do with in an elegant store. If she is in that store, she must be elegant, too. I can call her "ma'am".

I16: Age may be a factor... But actually, the only important thing is I'm mistaken and need to apologize. The rest has little importance.

I20: If I make a mistake, I always apologize. Apologizing is a virtue. If my mistake is big, I choose different words, like "I will compensate" etc. But if it is a small mistake, I only say 'I'm sorry'.

I22: I give importance to social status is important because if the other person is my boss or professor, I have to make up for my mistake, or I will pay for it... I, personally, give importance to my friends, family or relatives and I am careful about not to break their hearts. Other people are not very important, they are strangers.

I23: I think the age of other person is very important. Old generations don't know the words we use. They can misunderstand... We should be kind to them. Even we don't like the language they use or they shout at us, we should be understanding.

As the interviews indicated and the interviewees stated, their way of apologizing differs depending on the person they need to express apologies. They mentioned that the other person in the dialogue, their titles and ages induce differences in their apologizing

styles and the words they have chosen. Among all the factors mentioned by the interviewees, the 'social status' factor outstands with the total of 11 related responses. Additionally, the 'age' factor is considered essential by the interviewees with the number of 9 responses. Similarly, 9 of the interviewees mentioned the importance of 'the nature of offense', that is, who is mistaken and needs to apologize. Indeed, in the Situations given, all the speakers were already mistaken and they needed to apologize, but they still considered it as essential and stated "if they are mistaken, but not the other person, they needed to express apologies in a different way, different than a Situation in which their faults are less important. This is a different dimension which will be discussed by the researcher later.

The factor 'the nature of relationship' is another dimension needed to be handled. 7 of the interviewees focused on this factor stating that if they have close relationships with a person, they follow a different path to apologize compared to a random person. They mentioned that, whether their relationship is formal, informal, close or *not-very-close*, influences their style of apologizing.

According to the interviewees, the "context" is another factor affecting their responses. Some of them mentioned that the environment in which the dialogue takes place is essential in their language preferences, from salutation to the grammatical structure they use. On the other hand, some of the interviewees stated that in some certain *contexts*, such as a meeting with a boss or like, they felt the need to apologize even if they believe they have no fault at all. Especially the formal contexts and contexts including a stranger had pushed them to apologize, and express their apologies in a more attentive way. 5 of the interviewees touched upon the importance of context in their interviews.

The last factor mentioned by the interviewees is 'the gravity offense' which was stated by 4 of them. This means these people knew that they had the fault and needed to express their apologies, but they stated that they adjusted their language according to how big or small their mistake is. They emphasized that if their mistake is big (crushing a friend's car vs. breaking a friend's ornament) they felt that they need to follow a different way to apologize, a way they need to use a more attentive language and choose the words more carefully while apologizing.

In the light of these, it should be stated that the order of importance of above factors, according to interviewee responses in these semi-structured interviewees, can be given as such:

1. Social Status
2. Age and the Nature of Offense
3. The nature of relationship
4. Context
5. The gravity of the offense

It should also be mentioned that, not only one category is put forward by each interviewee, but the interviewee responses included more than one group of categories. For example, as indicated in the table, I1 touched upon the importance of four factors: the nature of offense, age, social statue and the nature of relationship. Similarly, I13 mentioned the importance of the factors the gravity of offence, age, and social status for him. This means, almost all the interviewees mentioned the importance of more than one factors.

IQ2: Does the age of the person you interact affect the nature of your responses?

Table 52
The effect of age

Category	Option	f	%	Option	f	%	N
Age	Yes (I1, I2, I3, I4, I5, I6, I7, I11, I13, I15, I16, I19, I20, I23, I24)	15	62.5	No	9	37.5	24

In the first interview question, the interviewees were asked about which factors influenced them as they provide their responses to the Situations. The ratios for the same factor (for example, age) may be different in the first question and in the second question. This is because, in the first question, interviewees were asked about their opinions without giving any clue, comment or help. However, in the following questions, they are directly asked whether they are affected by a certain factor, which may be a reminder for them.

Therefore, an interviewee who didn't mention a certain factor in the first question can mention it in the following questions.

In the second interview question, 15 of the interviewees (62.5%) declared that their responses were affected by the age factor. Especially towards older people, they talked about their fine feelings and mentioned that they needed to adjust their language and words accordingly while expressing apologies. Some interviewee responses are given below:

I2: If the other person I need to apologize is older than me, I will adjust my style accordingly. For example, a young person, for example someone from Z generation can understand me easily, but if I say "sorry" only to an older person, he can misunderstand. So, I explain more.

I3: I don't want to apologize to someone younger than me. I apologize to someone older than me, even if it is not necessary. Because he is old.

I4: Age is important. I give kinder responses to elderly people. But I talk to my friends in a different way.

I5: I speak with my friends normally, but I speak respectfully to older people.

I6: The age of the person I communicate affects my language, my word choices. For example, a young person can understand the way I talk or the words I use, but older people, from the previous generations for example, may not understand. I should use different words.

I7: I feel ashamed when I apologize to someone younger than me. It surely influences my language.

I15: There was a woman I crushed in a store in one of the Situations... To her, I tried to be more kind because she was an elderly woman.

I16: Among other factors, age is the most important. Because we have to respect older people.

I17: In our culture, age is very important. Old people lead and guide us. So, we need to treat them accordingly all the time... even when we apologize.

I19: If the other person is older than me, I try to be careful about my language. I try to be formal and kind.

I24: Age is very important. That old person may be ill, may be in need of help. We should offer help. We should make up for our mistakes, use kind and friendly words. One day, we will also get older.

A few of the interviewees stated that they did not consider age as an important factor. Their opinions are also listed:

I22: Respect isn't related to age. People should deserve it... I didn't consider about it while responding.

I8: Age doesn't matter for me. If I'm mistaken, I will apologize.

I9: According to me, there is no difference in terms of age.

As the ratio and the interviewee responses indicate that age is a crucial factor for most of the interviewees while they are expressing their apologies to people. They mentioned that, while communicating with an elderly person, they had the feeling that they need to use more proper words, be careful in the use of language and be kinder.

IQ3: Does the gender of the person you interact affect the nature of your responses?

Table 53
The effect of gender

Category	Option	f	%	Option	f	%	N
Gender	Yes (I3, I4, I7, I10, I17)	5	20.3	No	19	79.7	24

Third question for the interviewees was about how they are affected by the gender of other person in the dialogue while apologizing and expressing regrets. As the table highlights, most of the interviewees did not consider gender as a crucial factor, only 5 of them considered that gender is influential on their responses.

I3: When apologizing, gender is important. When I apologize to women I use a kinder language.

I4: Gender affects my responses. I give kinder responses to women when compared to men.

I7: I follow different styles when apologizing to different genders.

I10: Women are emotional. The way I apologize to women would be different. I would be more kind.

I17: Women are easily offended. We can be more polite towards them, maybe we can use different words when we are apologizing.

Interviewees, who agreed the importance of gender factor, mentioned that the so-called characteristics of women affect their way of apologizing. Not only male, but also a few of female interviewees agreed upon it and they believed that they need to give more polite responses to women. On the other hand, most of the interviewees considered gender as an ineffective factor on their responses:

I1: For me, gender is not important while apologizing.

I2: Gender doesn't affect my way of apologizing. I apologize in the same way.

I5: Gender doesn't affect my language use or word choices.

I12: If the mistake is mine, I will apologize. No matter what gender the other person has.

I15: Human is human. No matter female or male.

I19: I apologize in the same way to both of the genders.

I21: If I have a mistake, it doesn't matter who the other person is.

IQ4: Does the social status of person you interact affect the nature of your responses?

Table 54
The effect of social status

Category	Option	f	%	Option	f	%	N
Social Status	Yes (I1, I3, I4, I5, I6, I7, I9, I10, I11, I12, I15, I17, I19, I20, I22, I23)	16	66.6	No	8	33.4	24

Following their opinions on gender factor, interviewees were asked about how they feel about the social status factor, whether it has affected their responses or not. Social status was the most favored response in the first question and listed as first on the list of factors they are affected by. However, as mentioned below, the first question was a general question examining the factors affecting interviewee responses. In this question, interviewees were directly asked about whether they take the social status into consideration while responding to the Situations in the DCT. 16 of the interviewees, out of 24, agreed that the social status factor influenced their responses, which is quite noteworthy. It is quite obvious that this factor has a strong affect on most of the interviewees. Some of the responses gathered in the interviewees are given below:

I1: When I'm late for a meeting with my boss, it is very crucial for my job. But a meeting with a friend is not that much important.... If I'm the boss, and need to apologize from a worker of me, I don't make much explanation, but if I'm the worker to apologize from the boss, I need to explain more.

I3: It will be different when apologizing from a professor.

I5: My friends forgive me but my professor may not forgive. I have to apologize more.

I4: I have to use a formal language when I talk to my boss. But, I can talk to my friend in an informal way.

I16: Social status matters. I apologize differently from my superiors and subordinates. We use different words.

I17: Social status influences me when apologizing. For example, my boss can fire me, everything depends on him.

I19: Considering social status, it would be a little different... Boss is boss. As I apologize to my boss, I wouldn't talk much, I would mention the important things. When you are talking to your boss, you can't use excuses. But, I can make jokes to my friend or something when I apologize.

I110: I can't always tell the truth to my boss. How I can say 'I'm late for work because I wanted to sleep more' to my boss? I wouldn't make much explanation, I would just apologize. But my friends can understand me.

I115: If I'm a worker and I need to apologize to my boss, I will be very polite. But if I'm the boss and need to apologize to my worker, I can do it simply.

I117: Social status is important. I need to talk in a formal and polite frame with my boss or professor.

I118: I need to make more explanations to my boss to convince him. But I don't need to make explanations to my friends or family. They know me and they know that I will make up for my mistake but my boss doesn't know it.

I120: I can't call my boss and say "Hey, I can't attend the meeting today. Good bye." I have to put forward some excuses. But I can call my friend and say "I don't want to meet today. Let's meet later." This is the difference.

These responses of the interviewees indicate that most of the interviewees take the social status of the other person into account while apologizing. Especially when they were necessitated to apologize from someone who is superior from them, they felt that they needed to use a different way, which is more polite and more attentive. There are reasons they put forward for this, for example, some say that bosses or professors have a variety of sanctions on them; therefore, they need to adjust their language. Some claim that their friends or people around them can understand them but their bosses or professors do not,

therefore, they need to make more and more explanations. On the other hand, some of the interviewees believe that they do not need to make explanations to their superiors, they need to give the excuse, convince them. In any way, they believe that they need to be polite, use proper words and communicate accordingly.

One of the interviewees claimed that the way they follow while apologizing should be depend on the level of education of the people, not the social status. His response is given:

I23: Teachers, doctors... all well-educated people deserve respect. They strengthen and educate the society. We should use the language accordingly. We should be kind.

A few of the interviewees disagreed with the effect of social status on their responses:

I16: If I apologize according to the social status of the other person, it means that I am not sincere.

I2: We are all human, social status doesn't affect my apology.

IQ5: Does the type of relationship you hold with the person you interact affect the nature of your responses?

Table 55
The effect of relationship type

Category	Option	f	%	Option	f	%	N
	Yes						
The nature of relationship	(I1, I2, I5, I7, I9, I10, I11, I14, I15, I17, I19, I21, I22, I23, I24)	15	62.5	No	9	37.5	24

As the last question of the semi-structured interviews, the interviewees were asked whether they are affected by the type of relationship they hold with the person they communicate. 15 of the interviewees agreed that the nature of relationship influences their responses. They stated that their responses vary due to the formality/non-formality of the

relationship or how close they are with the other person. Some of the responses gathered are given in the following:

I1: For example, when I'm talking to my friend, I can be sincere but when I'm talking to my boss, I have to use a formal language. I can repair it when I'm mistaken towards my friend, but I can't do it with my boss. With my friend, we have a close relationship, I don't need to explain much.

I2: I apologize differently in formal and informal situations. For example, once I was late for the class, I explained my professor saying "I missed the bus, sir, sorry." I thought I need to explain why I'm late. But once I was late to a meeting with a friend, I called him and said "I'm on the way, wait, I'm coming." I mean, I didn't need to explain to my friend, he is my friend, he can understand. But the professor may not understand me.

I3: If he is my close friend, he can understand me. But my boss doesn't understand. There are rules etc... I have to explain... But I can tell my friend about my problem, what happened etc... But I have to explain and convince my boss. I don't have to give details. I have to convince that I'm sorry.

I4: For example, If I have a close relationship with my professor, I can offer to buy him dinner to apologize. But I can't offer this to all professors, you know.

I6: I apologize more in formal relationships, let's say my boss etc. I will make more explanations in formal situations.

I7: At least the way I speak and the way I apologize will change.

I10: With a formal friend, for example a colleague, it is different. I would say 'I'm sorry, I will pay for it' so that the problem doesn't grow. But, with a close friend, I would be more emotional, I would try to convince him.

I11: A stranger doesn't know me. I need to do more explanation. But someone who knows me understands and accepts my apologies easier.

I14: The kind of relationship sometimes affects me when apologizing. If the person is someone very close to me, I prefer to use more friendly words.

I15: My friends or family know me well. When I tell them my excuse, they can understand me. But a stranger doesn't know me, I have to make explanation.

I17: I give importance to people around me... My family and my friends are my world, aren't they? I don't want to lose them. I want to repair my mistake and win their hearts more than other people.

I19: For example, my friends are more important for me than other people. When apologizing, I try to use kinder, more loving words to my friends and try to please them.

I21: Since my friend is close to me, he knows my intentions and that I don't want to offend him. But my boss or a stranger can misunderstand me.

I22: I try to make explanations to people around me such as my family members or friends. I try to repair my mistake... I try to use a kind and friendly language, sometimes I make jokes to win their hearts. But, I only say 'sorry' to other people and make up for my mistake... in a formal way.

I23: It is very normal. You can easily get angry with or shout at someone you'll never see again. But if you do this to your friend or sister, for example, you should repair it. That person is always there.

I5: My wife would be very close. I need to explain and apologize more than other people.

The responses of the interviewees indicate that, in formal situations or as they communicated with a stranger, they needed to make more explanations. On the other hand, some of the participants stated that they felt that they need to make more explanations to their loved ones, friends, family, spouse etc. However, in any way, their word and language preferences, and the way they apologize differs, therefore, it can be concluded that the nature of relationship is an effective factor for them.

Semi structured interviews revealed that, while responding to the Situations in the DCT, interviewees are affected by a variety of factors. It can be claimed that participant responses are not automatic sentences to be provided at any situation or context; they are

simultaneously structured in the speaker's mind and articulated under the influence of many factors.



CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter of the dissertation puts forward a deep and elaborate discussion of the findings gathered throughout the research and seeks for answers to the research questions presented in the first chapter. For this, the chapter begins with the interpretation of the gathered data, examination of their relations with the research questions and comparison of the findings with previous researches. This research examines the frequently-used apology strategies by EFL learners and aims to bring out whether EFL learners' pragmatic competences-through speech acts theory- can be improved. Besides, the research is aimed to find out the factors that affect EFL learners' manner of apology. The discussion part of the present paper sheds light into these questions.

5.1. Discussion for research question 1- The frequently-used apology strategies

The first research question for this present research aims to find out which strategies are preferred most by the EFL learners while they are expressing their apologies to different people in various contexts. In order to reach answers for this question, it would be helpful to examine the pre-test results of the DCT implemented to the EFL learners first.

The results gathered in the pre-test implementation suggest that the EFL learners participated in this study used IFID in their responses most (36.8%). IFIDs are, as clarified previously, direct apologies addressed to the hearer in the dialogue such as "I'm sorry!", "Sorry!", "Pardon me!", "Excuse me!" I apologize..." and so on. These responses include direct apology words and it can be claimed that they are the easiest and the least complicated way to express apologies to anyone.

REP is the second highly preferred apology strategy by the participants (18.9%). REP is kind of an indirect apology strategy which shows the goodwill of the speaker. When a speaker applies a REP, this means he knows his mistake and wants to repair it somehow. This may include paying for the expenses in a car accident, offering a dinner out or offering help.

EXP is the third most common indirect apology strategy by the participants of this research (17.6%) in which the speakers put forward explanations and excuses for their mistakes. Providing an explanation for a mistake can be considered a way of apologizing; people do not usually express their apologies directly. Therefore, putting forward an explanation is accepted as apology for most people.

RES is the fourth commonly used apology strategy in this research (8.6%). RES, which necessitates taking the responsibility of the mistake committed, is not an easy strategy for the participants since it requires the direct acceptance of the mistake saying like “My mistake!”. As these results uncover, most of the participants in this study were willing to apologize, but they found it hard to admit their mistakes directly.

FORB is the fifth and last of apology strategies preferred by the participants (3.9%). It includes a promise of that the mistake will not be repeated again. It is clear that very small group of the participants tended to make such a promise and guarantee that they will never fall into the same mistake in the future.

In sum, it can be claimed that participants in this study applied the strategies IFID, REP, EXP, RES and FORB in their apologies respectively. However, the modified strategies can be touched upon before moving to the next research question.

Modified strategies or modification of strategies, as listed in the table of classification by Cohen et al. (1986), are strategies that have undergone some changes or, say, modifications, in structure. Cohen et al. (1985) claims that modification of the strategies are “the area that actually distinguished natives from non-natives” (1985, 11). Therefore, it can be concluded that, in the apology context, the authentic use of a language by a learner is highly associated with the effective use of modification of strategies. However, in the present study, an elaborate examination of modification strategies suggests that very few of the participants felt themselves competent in the use of these since its rate of usage is considerably lower than five apology strategies.

INTS has the highest number of preference by the participants (7.1%) compared to others. The abbreviation INTS stands for intensity words such as really, very, deeply and strengthens the meaning in the sentence. While apologizing, INTS may point out to a deeper embarrassment of the speaker.

Second highest rate belongs to DRES (2.1%) among all the modification of strategies. A speaker applying a DRES in his response denies his responsibility in an offense using expressions such as “It’s not my mistake!”, and “It’s your fault!”. In this study, responses including a DRES consist of sentences like “You misunderstood!”. These were considered as DRES; however, it should be taken into consideration that it may be a reflection of cultural speech codes. This means, for instance, in Turkish language, the sentence “You misunderstood me!” does not always express a denial, but sometimes it is kind of a repair or representation of a humble attitude of the speaker.

In the third place, there comes COMT (1.1%) in which the speaker makes a comment about himself or mentions an expression of self-acceptance of the offense. Responses like “I’m pensive nowadays!” were considered as COMT in this present study. It should be noted that, feeling guilty about an offense and speaking out any verbal representation of it is still a kind of apology.

Following it, there comes MINOFF as the fourth most favored strategy (0.5%). MINOFF is kind of minimization of the offense committed by the speaker. This means, the offense is committed, the harm is done but the speaker defends that nothing much happened. For instance, the speaker crashes with a friend’s car and the offense belongs to him. However, if he responds like “It is just a small scratch”, it is a representation of a MINOFF.

Very few of the participants seem to have applied a MRES and EMOTS in their responses (0.2% each). In MRES, the speaker is aware of his offense but tries to blame someone else and share the responsibility. As the speaker says “I told you that I don’t know how to use it!” after breaking a coffee machine, for instance, it is clearly a MRES. On the other hand, EMOTS are very crucial language units for an authentic language use. Expressions like “Oh my God!”, “Ah!”, “Oh!” points to EMOTS in the participant responses.

In the pre-test implementation of the present research, 3.521 responses were gathered from the participants in total. As indicated above, a very large part of the responses include an IFID or an indirect apology strategy, which is noteworthy; on the other hand, the number of responses with a modified strategy is quite limited which means participants are incompetent in the authentic use of English language.

5.2. Discussion for research question 2- Can pragmatic competence be developed?

Second research question for the present study seeks answers for the question whether pragmatic competence can be developed by meta-pragmatic instruction and EFL learners' authentic language skills be promoted. In order to find out answers to this question, the post-test results of the research should be taken into consideration and a comparative analysis of pre and post-test results should be given place.

First of all, it is quite noteworthy that the number of strategies applied in the participant responses are considerably higher in the post-test comparing to pre-test results. In the pre-test, the total of 3.521 responses including an apology strategy had been gathered from the participants. This number increased to 4.574 in total in the post-test and all the strategies increased in number. On the other hand, the number of responses considered as rude by the researcher decreased in the post-test. Albeit briefly, it can be concluded that instructions and activities on apology strategies promoted the authentic language skills of the learners and help them improve their responses with a variety of apology strategies.

A detailed analysis of the data in the post-test justifies what is suggested in the previous paragraph. When the rates of strategies applied were compared to pre-test, there are some observable differences. It is a truth that the number of strategies increased which is pretty important; however, the rates should also be examined well. For example the number of IFID's increased in number in the post-test; on the other hand, it decreased in rate (from 36.8% to 32.3%). It can be considered as an improvement, both in quality and quantity because IFID is the least challenging way to apologize to anyone; therefore, if the decrease in the rate reflects to another strategy, it can be considered as an improvement. This means that the participants did not only articulate they are sorry or asked for pardon but they also put forward an explanation, an offer of help or included an intensity word or comment to express their apologies in the post-test.

There is also a decrease in the number of EXP (from 17.6% to 15.5%) although the number of strategies increased in number which is because all types of apologies in the responses enhanced visibly in the post-test. However, due to the reasons listed below, this decrease- even a little- can be considered as constructive.

When it comes to the RES, an increase in the rate and number of responses including it is observed in the post-test (from 8.6% to 10.3%). This means, in the post-test, participants were more willing to accept their offenses and take the responsibility. As a consequence, an increase in the number of REPs can also be expected and this increase occurred in the post-test. The number of REPs, as expected, increased in number and rate (from 18.9% to 21.6%). It can be concluded that, with the elimination of IFIDs and EXPs, the speakers tended to give more well-structured responses to Situations. Their responses differentiated due to the classroom activities and instructions. It can be claimed that participants' responses became more authentic compared to their previous responses.

On the other hand, there is a slight decrease in the number and rate of FORBs (from 3.9% to 3.3%) which is actually inconsiderable; however, this decrease can also be interpreted as being constructive. FORB, as a strategy, contains a promise of forbearance which means that the same offense will never be repeated. It can be suggested that participants may have tended to provide more constructive and dynamic responses like a REP. However, it should also be taken into consideration that, not the number but the rate of FORB decreased, the number of responses with a FORB seem to have increased from 140 to 150, therefore, the decrease in the rate may be misleading in a sense. Yet, in both ways, it should not be interpreted as unfavorable.

As the modification of the strategies considered, there is very slight increase in the number of MINOFF (from 0.5% to 0.6%), and a decrease in the number of DRES (from 2.1% to 1.3%) and the rate of and number of MRES remained the same in both the implementations (0.2%). Although Cohen et al. (1985) suggests that modified strategies are the representatives of authentic language use and it is clear that these are more challenging strategies of apologizing, MINOFF, DRES and MRES have kind of a negative sense. Therefore, the decrease in the rate of these strategies can be partially favorable. One should admit that, the increase in the number of MINOFF, DRES and MRES can be interpreted as a variation in the number of strategies; however, it should be taken into consideration that they cause negative feelings on the hearer.

However, the active and permanent use of INTS and EMOTS, together with COMT indicates an authentic and genuine use of the target language. As the post-test results are examined, there is a dramatic increase in the number of responses with these modified

strategies. For example, the number of EMOTS has a great increase in the post-test, from 8 to 100 (from 0.2% to 2.1%) which is quite noteworthy. Besides, the number of responses with an INTS almost doubled in the post-test and increased from 258 to 510 (11.1%). Lastly, there is an increase, not very dramatic but still considerable, in the number of COMT in the post-test results, from 39 to 55 (1.2%).

As the Cohen et al. suggests (1985), the use of modified strategies points to the authentic use of language for language learners. This increase in the post-test results indicates that the instructional methodology, say classroom activities such as dialog completion, role plays and discussions within peer study groups promoted the development of a pragmatic competence and helped learners gain authentic language skills.

5.3. Discussion for research question 3- Effective factors for EFL learners' apologies

As the third research question of the present study, the researcher investigated the factors which influenced the participants while they are expressing their apologies for their offenses. In order to find out the answers, semi-structured interviews with 24 of the participants were conducted. The participation in the interviews was on voluntary basis and the participants volunteered to be interviewed.

In these interviews, participants are kindly asked to answer the following main question and the related questions:

Main Question: What are the initial factors you have taken into consideration while responding to the questions?

- Have you been affected by 'age' of the person you interact while responding to the questions?
- Have you been affected by the 'gender' of the person you interact while responding to the questions?
- Have you been affected by the 'social status' of the person you interact while responding to the questions?

- Have you been affected by the ‘nature of relationship’ you hold with the person you interact while responding to the questions, such as formality/informality?

For the first question, participants signified that they in total of 6 factors influenced their responses. These factors include: Age, Social Status, The Nature of the Offense, The Gravity of the Offense, Context and The Nature of Relationship. Some of these factors, according to the researcher, were predictable; however, some of them were not. The order of importance of these factors is as such, due to the number of interviewees mentioning it:

1. Social Status (11 interviewees)
2. Age and Nature of Offense (equal in number; 9 interviewees)
3. The Nature of Relationship (7 interviewees)
4. Context (5 interviewees)
5. The Gravity of the Offense (4 interviewees)

When the interviewees were asked specifically for some of the factors, 15 of the interviewees explained they are influenced by ‘age’ while apologizing (62.5%). 16 of the total number of interviewees mentioned that they are influenced by the ‘social statue’ of the other person in the dialogue (66.6%) 15 of the interviewees claimed that ‘The nature of Relationship’ (formality/informality-close/distant) they hold with the hearer influenced the way they apologized (62.5%). Among these, ‘gender’ is the least favored factor mentioned by just 5 of the interviewees (20.3%) which means they are not influenced by gender factor while responding to the Situations in the DCT.

In order to grasp a deep understanding of the factors which influenced the interviewees on their responses, a comparative analysis of some of the factors was performed.

In order to examine the influence of ‘age’, Situation 6 and Situation 9 were compared and it was concluded by the researcher that participants’ manner of apologizing differentiated due to the hearer’s age.

Situation 6 includes a context in which the speaker bumps into an elderly lady at a store. In this situation, according to the pre-test results, total of 323 responses including an apology strategy were provided by the participants. Among these, IFID is the most favored (37.7%), REP is the second favorite strategy preferred (28.1%) and RES comes third on the list (11.4%). EXP was identified as fourth favorite strategy applied by the participants (7.4%) among all the strategies. There are no examples of FORB, MRES, DRES or MINOFF observed and the number of responses with an intensity word is remarkable (12.3%).

Situation 9 is a rather informal context in which the speaker bumps into one of the fellow students in the school hallway. In this Situation, IFID is way ahead of other strategies (45.2%). Second most favorite strategy is EXP (36.1%), due to the results. The number of responses with a RES or REP is quite limited, compared to Situation 6. Besides, in this Situation, there are examples of DRES and MINOFF, strategies denying the responsibility or minimizing the offense of the speaker. The number of INTS is also quite a few (4.01%) when compared. The results were similar in the post-test.

In the light of this information, it can be concluded that, when apologizing to an elderly person, the speakers performed more careful and attentive responses including a variety of strategies, tended to accept their offenses and tried harder to repair it. However, with a fellow student, their responses were not that much attentive and they were not very keen to repair their offenses. As a result, it can be claimed that ‘age’ is a crucial factor when expressing apologies.

Later, to reach conclusions about the influence of ‘social status’ on participant responses, Situations 2-3 and Situations 5-11 were compared. Both the pre-test and post-test results indicate that, in these comparisons, participants’ manner of apologies differentiates. More precisely, in the comparison of Situations 2, in which the speaker needs to express apologies to his boss for not attending to an important meeting, the participants provided responses including an IFID (37.1%) mostly. It is followed by EXP (21.9%) and FORB (15.2%) respectively. Later come RES (11.1%) and REP (3.7%). These results demonstrate that participants, while responding to their bosses, preferred to provide a direct apology statement (like I’m sorry), an explanation or excuse and they promised to never repeat such a thing again. While doing this, many of the participants

accepted their offense and responsibility. They tried to use more intensity words (8.1%) and provided 3 rude responses (1.1%).

On the other hand, in Situation 3, in which the speaker needs to apologize from a friend for not attending to a get-together, IFID still has the highest rate (38%), later comes EXP (27.1%). Different from Situation 2, in this Situation, the third most favored response is REP (13.8%), and it is followed by RES (6.2%) and FORB (3.3%) with a considerable decrease. Less number of INTS were observed here (6.2%) and 7 responses considered rude (2.9%). When these results are compared, it is clear that the way the speakers apologize differs according to whom they apologize to. As they are communicating with their bosses, they seem to be more convincing for not committing the same offense again, willing to take the responsibility. They do not struggle to repair their mistake (as REPs indicate) but to convince their bosses with explanations, apologies and promises. Speakers use more intensity words and give less rude responses. However, in Situation 3, after providing apologies and explanations or excuses, the speakers tried to repair their mistakes and accepted they have the responsibility. Rather than just promising, they tried to put the words in action by asking “How can I make up for my mistake?” or offering to take the friend out for dinner or for a concert or like. It is also an important point to mention, 7 rude responses were gathered in this Situation, which may indicate that while apologizing their friends and repair their mistakes, the speakers may sometimes get rude, on the other hand, they struggle more to be polite while apologizing to their bosses. Similar conclusions are drawn from the post-test data and this shows that the social status is an important factor for the learners while apologizing.

Similarly, in Situations 5 and 11, there is a clear distinction in the use of some strategies and the rates of strategies preferred give the readers a strong sense of difference in the participants’ apologetic tendencies. Situation 5 is a context in which the speaker needs to apologize to a friend for forgetting to return a book back. In this context, as the results indicate, all the strategies touched upon, at least a few times. IFID is the most preferred strategy for this Situation (39.4%). After that, RES and REP have equal rates of usages (13.4% each) and EXP comes fourth on the list (9.9%). FORB is the last strategy used among others (6.1%). While responding to this Situation, participants applied the strategies MRES, DRES and MINOFF in their responses to a substantial extent. There are

a number of responses including an INTS within (8.4%). There is only 1 response which was considered rude by the researcher.

Conversely, in Situation 11, the variety of the responses is very limited. Situation 11 offers a context in which the speaker needs to express his apologies to his professor for forgetting to return his book. As mentioned, in this situation, contrary to Situation 5, the participants tended to use limited number of strategies. In the responses, IFID is the most favored strategy (38.8%) and after that FORB is very common among the responses (26%). Later comes REP (11.7%) and EXP, with a slight decrease (10.6%). In here, RES is the last strategy favored by the participants (3.1%). What is noteworthy in this Situation 11 is, different from Situation 5; none of the responses included a MRES, DRES or MINOFF. Lastly, the number of responses with an INTS is lower than Situation 5 (4.7%). There are 8 responses considered as rude, which is quite a high number (4.2%).

It should be mentioned that, although there are not much difference, there are some up and downs in the post-test. For Situation 5, the number of responses with a REP seems to have a considerable increase (from 13.4% to 24.3%) and RES and FORB strategies had a decrease (9.6%; 3.22%, respectively). The number of INTS increased, as well (12.3%). MRES, DRES and MINOFF are still observable. Similarly, in Situation 11, the number of FORBs decreased (10.4%) and REPs had a great increase in number (20.9%). The number of INTs also increased (13%). As for rude responses, due to the post-test results, the number increased to 2 in Situation 5 and decreased to 4 in Situation 11.

These results indicate that while talking to a friend, the speaker immediately apologies and tries to repair his offense. They do not need to put forward an explanation or excuse; rather they focus on fixing it. It is already what they mentioned in the interviews. They defended in the interviews that they do not need much explanation with a friend or a family member, they can already know and understand the speaker. What they need to do is, according to them, to repair their mistakes and please them. However, some of the participants may deny his responsibility or minimize the responsibility or the offense, while expressing apologies to a friend. Therefore, it can be claimed that, towards their friends or people around them, speakers may lose the control easily and treat in a rude way.

In Situation 11, there is not any answer including these strategies which shows, to their bosses or professors, they behaved in a strictly controlled way. Plus, they tended to

promise that the offense will never be repeated again and focused on repairing it. These results prove that, as the interviewees suggested in the interviews, social status of the people they communicate is crucial in the way they apologize.

Lastly, in order to investigate how the nature of the relationship affects the preferred apology strategies, Situations 4-7 and 10-14 were compared. In the interviews, 15 of the interviewees (62.5%) claimed that the way they expressed their apologies was affected by the nature of relationship they hold with the person they communicate. When the Situations 4-7 were compared, there is not much difference were found by the researcher. In both of the Situations, the speakers in the dialogue damaged something the other person had and the participants tended to use similar range of strategies in similar ways. The only difference is, in Situation 7, the participants tended to make more explanations whereas, in Situation 4, they focused on accepting their offense, taking the responsibility and repairing it more. In the interviews, they claimed that, if the other person is a stranger, explanations do not work much and that they need to take the action and compensate for their mistakes. Therefore, it should be suggested that the participants are, though not as much as other Situations, the nature of relationship influences their attitudes while apologizing.

When the Situations 10-14 were compared to find out how the nature of relationship affects the way of apologizing, some important points to mention came out. In Situation 10, the speaker forgets to buy the tickets for a concert to which he and his friend agreed to attend and needs to express apologies for it. In the responses, IFID is the most favored strategy preferred (36.8%) and REP comes second (23.6%). EXP and RES have almost the same amount of preferences (10.4% and 10.9%, respectively) and FORB comes at the end of the list (1.3%). MRES, DRES and MINOFF are touched upon in a few responses and rate of INTS is (8.6%). 10 of the responses are considered as rude in this Situation (4.5%).

On the other hand, when it comes to Situation 14, a dramatic decrease in the number of responses is quite striking. The total of 172 responses were gathered from the participants for this Situation, which is the lowest amount compared to all situations. When the responses are examined, IFID has the highest rate of preference (35.4%), EXP comes second (25.5%). Later, REP is the third in the list (11.6%). 15 of the responses include a

FORB (8.7%) and RES is the last strategy used (4%). 7 of the responses were noted as rude (4%). Only two of the responses include a MRES and the rate of INTS is almost same with Situation 10 (8.1).

As the results are analyzed, it can be concluded that the participants tended to apologize similarly to a friend and to their spouses. However, they preferred to repair their offenses towards their friends more and make more explanations to their spouses. They are willing to take the responsibility more in their friendships, whereas, they promise to never repeat the mistake more to their spouses.

However, as the total number of the responses was considered, participants were not willing to apologize to their spouses as they are to their bosses, friends or strangers. The closer their relationships are, the lower the number of some of the strategies. For example, according to the results, the participants put forward much explanations or excuses to their bosses or professors; they offered to repair their mistakes more to their friends, family members or spouses. The participants accepted their offenses more in formal relationships and promise not to repeat them again, that is to say they try to convince the hearer more. On the other hand, in informal situations, they tend to deny their offenses or responsibilities or minimize their responsibilities more in the results occurred. They use more intensity words in formal situations.

As a summary, as these findings point out, age, social status and the nature of relationship are crucial factors for the participants. The strategies they prefer to apply, the words they select, even the sentence structures they build up differs according to the hearer in the dialogues.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Introduction

This chapter focuses on the conclusions obtained from the study, an overall evaluation of it, the pedagogical implications and limitations and further suggestions for future researches. The chapter also discusses the implications and suggestions in terms of classroom research, teacher education and coursebook design.

Conclusions

This present study is aimed to find out the frequently-used apology strategies by EFL learners by EFL learners, whether the pragmatic competence of EFL learners be developed using meta-pragmatic instruction, and the factors which affect how EFL learners express their apologies. It has been realized that, there is a gap to be filled in the literature on the development of pragmatic competence of EFL learners, therefore, the researcher focused on the investigation of existing knowledge of the learners and the development of it using meta-pragmatic instruction.

For these aims, the researcher put forward the following research questions:

1. What are the frequently-used apology strategies by the EFL learners?
2. Can the pragmatic competence be developed by meta-pragmatic instruction?
3. What are the factors which affect EFL learners' manner of apology?

This research is designed as a mixed methods study based on pragmatic research paradigm which utilizes both of the qualitative and quantitative methods in the data gathering process. Due to pragmatic research paradigm, in this research both quantitative and qualitative data gathering processes were applied. As for quantitative data gathering process, a Discourse Completion Test developed by Rıdvan Tunçel (1999) was used. The DCT includes 28 items; 14 thanking situations and 14 apologizing situations to be responded by the participants. The thanking situations were excluded for not being related to the present research and the total of 14 of apologizing situations was utilized in this

research. In the quantitative part of the research, 134 participants volunteered to participate. In this first part of the research, the participants were kindly asked to participate in the DCT and respond to the items. Later, they were exposed to a 3-weeks-long meta-pragmatic instruction in which they role play, participate in some kind of awareness raising and productive activities and feedback to raise their meta-pragmatic awareness through exposure to authentic use of the target language. After the instruction, the participants are asked to respond to the items in the DCT again in order to find out whether the meta-pragmatic instruction promoted their pragmatic competence. The data gathered from both the pre-test and post-test responses were analyzed in Statistical Program for Social Sciences (SPSS) using Pearson Chi-Square Tests in order to find out whether there is a significant difference between pre-test and post-test implementations. Later on, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 24 of the participants. The participation in the semi-structured interviews was on a voluntary basis. The interviews were undertaken via Zoom Software program and recorded in order to be analyzed later. Each interview lasted approximately 30 minutes. In these interviews, the interviewees were directed 1 main question and 3 related questions:

Main Question: What are the initial factors you have taken into consideration while responding to the questions?

- Have you been affected by ‘age’ of the person you interact while responding to the questions?
- Have you been affected by the ‘gender’ of the person you interact while responding to the questions?
- Have you been affected by the ‘social status’ of the person you interact while responding to the questions?
- Have you been affected by the ‘nature of relationship’ you hold with the person you interact while responding to the questions, such as formality/informality?

The content analysis process was conducted on the verbal data gathered from the semi-structured interviews. As a result of Pearson Chi-Square calculations and the analysis

of data gathered from the semi-structured interviews, the answers for the research questions were uncovered.

First of all, the findings of the present study indicate that, as a response to the first research question, the participants of this research used IFID most in their responses. Later, they used REP, EXP, RES, FORB strategies respectively. As for modified strategies, INTS is commonly included in the responses; it is followed by DRES, COMT, MINOFF, MRES and EMOTS respectively. Due to these results, it can be concluded that, although the high number of strategies applied by the participants, application of strategies addressing to the authentic use of target language is very limited. Learners, mostly, in the tendency of repetition of language samples given, rather than producing original and authentic-like language items.

Secondly, considering the post-test results, it can be concluded that learners' pragmatic competences can be developed utilizing meta-pragmatic instruction. The post-test results point to significant changes and developments in the responses of participants both in the amount and the quality. More structured and well-built responses to the Situations in the DCT were provided by the participants.

Finally, in the semi-structured interviews, the factors by which the participants were affected while responding to the Situations were scrutinized. In the first question of the semi-structured interviews, the initial factors they take into consideration were asked. Their responses address social status, age, nature of the offense, the nature of relationship, context and the gravity of the offense, respectively. This means, the interviewees stated that they are affected by the social status of the other person in the dialogue, most. In the second place, they are affected by the age of the hearer while responding. The nature of the offense, though not mentioned specifically in the interviews or the DCT, is one of the answers provided by the interviewees. They claimed that the person with the offense should apologize in any case and that it affects their way of apologizing. Later, the interviewees mentioned that the nature of relationship they hold with the hearer in the situation is an affective factor. They clarified that their attitudes while apologizing differentiated in close/distant or formal/informal relationships. Some of the interviewees touched upon the context in which the situation takes place and they stated that the context is effective in the selection of the strategy they applied. Finally, some of the interviewees

believed that the gravity of the offense is crucial in the determination of the strategy to be used.

When the interviewees are asked how they were affected by the factors age, social status, gender and the nature of relationship, their responses indicated that they took account of age, social status and type of relationship, however, they did not take the gender factor into consideration.

Implications

Based on the findings of the present study and related discussions, the following implications can be inferred. The implications embraces three main areas: Classroom Research, Teacher Education and Coursebook Design. After that, the limitations and suggestions for future researches will be mentioned.

Implications for Classroom Research

The discussions on the teachability of pragmatics in a language classroom and the introduction of the concepts ‘meta-pragmatic awareness’ and ‘meta-pragmatic instruction in the area of English language teaching dates back to early 1990s. Since then, approximately for the last two decades, there is a rapid expansion of intervention studies in interlanguage pragmatics. It was uncovered that learners’ pragmatic competences can be developed through meta-pragmatic instruction and supported by related activities and meta-pragmatic discussions, as the present study supports and contributes. However, although pragmatics is focus of interest for a few decades, the literature is quite limited in the area of teaching pragmatics. Actually, there are various studies identifying the learners’ pragmatic awareness and knowledge, however, quite a few studies aim to examine the ‘teachability’ of it in a language classroom. Therefore, based on the results of the present study, more researches should be conducted for the development of pragmatic competences of the language learners in language classes. Besides, due to the essential participation of pragmatics in language teaching, activities to raise meta-pragmatic awareness and pragmatic competences should be sought and brought into the field of English language teaching.

Implications for Teacher Education

It has been long discussed the necessity for teaching pragmatics in a language classroom and there are many researches investigating the EFL learners' awareness or the appropriateness & adaptability of the teaching materials for pragmatic instruction in a language classroom (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003; İstifçi, 2009; Uso-Juan, 2007; Yates, 2008). However, one of the most important issues are overlooked very often: the pragmatic awareness of teachers and teacher trainees. The importance of enhancing the pragmatic awareness of the learners and development of pragmatic knowledge through pragmatic instruction is mentioned very frequently, there is little research on the readiness of teachers for pragmatic instruction, examining pragmatic awareness of teachers, teacher trainees and its reflection in a language classroom (Sachtleben and Denny, 2012). Since teachers and classroom practitioners are primary sources of target language and primary figures of classroom instruction, the investigation of their pragmatic awareness and readiness are much more important than assumed. Glasgow (2008: 6-7) defines the properties that an L2 teacher with pragmatic awareness and proposes that an L2 teacher be able to:

- 1) fashion student awareness of how to effectively strategize their approaches in conversation,
- 2) realize speech acts with the proper pragmalinguistic forms.
- 3) provide students with a larger sense of what's "sayable" depending on the context.
- 4) give students access to choices, as Verschueren (1999) would put it, and allowing students to decide what choices would be best.
- 5) allow the opportunity for trial and error, especially in EFL, given the fact that few chances exist for many EFL students to interact outside the language school context.
- 6) develop in students the ability to self-monitor their pragmatic development. Students will ask "what should I say in this situation?"

This question allows the teacher to take advantage of accessing students to variations in the language that may serve student needs or work against students' needs, both types of

information proving as useful for students to know, or allowing them to discover this autonomously.

When the literature is searched, it is observed that the relevant researches, most of the time, focus on theory rather than practical purposes ((Eslami- Rasekh, 2005; Ishihara, 2011; Vásquez & Sharpless, 2009). However, as Ishihara and Cohen (2010) stated, the relevant researches should examine the readiness of language teachers to provide metapragmatic instruction in their classrooms and the integration of pragmatics into teacher education. The theoretical knowledge of language teachers and language practitioners together with the practical interventions, which addresses to pragmatic instruction, should be congregated.

Implications for Coursebook Design

The results of the present study indicate that pragmatic competence is teachable to language learners, therefore, the attention shifts to the coursebooks which are considered as primary resources of linguistic input (Kim & Hall, 2002; Vellenga, 2004). Here, the efficacy of the coursebooks and whether they provide sufficient information and materials for learners to develop pragmatic competence are scrutinized. Many scholars claim the inadequacy of the coursebooks (Bardovi-Harlig, Hartford, Mahan-Taylor, Morgan & Reynolds, 1991; Boxer & Pickering, 1995; Cane, 1998), and they claim that, the coursebooks should be developed to provide more authentic language samples to help learners raise pragmatic awareness. As is known, formulating authentic language structures necessitates exposure to authentic language; therefore, coursebooks should provide more authentic language samples for meta-pragmatic development.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Researches

First of all, this present study was conducted in a limited number of participants and in a narrow sample. Future studies may enhance the sample for a better representation of the universe which is the overall EFL community.

Secondly, because of the time restrictions, students were exposed to meta-pragmatic instruction and included in meta-pragmatic discussions for a 3-week-time period. Although, the results gathered at the end of this time is contributory, this period can be extended, at least one academic semester, to get better results.

Another limitation of the present study is the lack of analysis of the results in terms of gender. For this study, the researcher did not take gender into consideration as a variable, however, in another study, participant results can be analyzed in order to uncover the similarities and differences in the approaches of both genders.

As a final remark, the number of studies intended to raise learners' pragmatic awareness and develop their pragmatic competences through meta-pragmatic instruction should be increased. Studies indicate that students' participation in such meta-pragmatic instruction is quite beneficial in terms of learning process; therefore, an increase in the number of studies fostering learners' pragmatic competence will be appreciated by language authorities.



REFERENCES

- Abdul-Majeed, R. K. (2009). The Realization of Positive Politeness Strategies in Language: The Politeness Theory of Brown and Levinson. Retrieved August, 12, 2019, <https://www.iasj.net/iasj?func=fulltext&aId=1975>
- Adams, W. (2015). Conducting Semi-Structured Interviews. Newcomer, K.E., Hatry, H.P. and Wholey, J.S. (Eds).in *Handbook of practical program evaluation*. (pp. 492-505). Jossey-Bass: San Francisco/CA.
- Armstrong, W. S. (1994). "The truth of performatives". *International Journal of Philosophical Studies*, 2(1). 99-107.
- Ashirwadani, J. (n.d.). Methods of Data Analysis. Retrieved November, 22, 2021, https://www.academia.edu/8135057/Methods_of_Data_Analysis
- Austin, J. (1962). *How to do things with words*. Harvard University Press: Cambridge, MA.
- Austin, J. L. (1975). *How to do things with words* (2nd ed.). Urmson, J. O., Sbisà, M. (Eds.). Harvard University Press: Cambridge/Massachusetts.
- Aydin, M. (2013). Cross cultural Pragmatics: A study of Apology Speech Acts by Turkish speakers, American English Speakers and Advance Nonnative Speakers of English in Turkey. Unpublished MA Thesis. Minnesota State University, Mankato, Minnesota.
- Bach, K. (1975). Performatives are statements too. *Philosophical Studies*, 28.229-36.
- Bach, K. (2003). Speech acts and pragmatics. Devitt, M., Hanley R. (Eds). in *The Blackwell Guide to the Philosophy of Language*. (p. 147-167). Blackwell Publishing Ltd: UK.
- Bach, K. (n.d.) Speech Acts. *Routledge Encyclopedia of Philosophy*. Retrieved June, 20, 2022, <https://www.rep.routledge.com/articles/thematic/speech-acts/v-1>
- Bachman, L. (1990). *Fundamental Considerations In Language Testing*. Oxford University Press: New York.

- Bardovi- Harlig, K. (2013). Developing L2 pragmatics. *Language Learning*, 63. 68-86.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., Hartford B.S., Mahan-Taylor R., Morgan M.J., and Reynolds, D.W., (1991). "Developing Pragmatic Awareness: Closing the Conversation", *ELT Journal* 45(1).4-15.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. and Dörnyei, Z. (1998). "Do language learners recognize pragmatic violations? Pragmatic versus grammatical awareness in instructed L2 learning.". *Tesol Quarterly*, 32(2). 233-259.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Mahan-Taylor, R. (2003). Teaching pragmatics. Retrieved July, 30, 2022, <http://exchanges.state.gov/education/engteaching/pragmatics.htm>
- Barron, A. (1984). *Acquisition In Interlanguage Pragmatics*. John Benjamins Publishing Company: Amsterdam/Philadelphia.
- Beebe, L. M., and Takahashi, T. (1989). Sociolinguistic variation in face-threatening speech acts: Chastisement and disagreement. M. Eisenstein (Ed.). in *The dynamic Interlanguage: Empirical studies in second language variation* (pp. 199-218). Plenum: New York.
- Blum-Kulka, S., House, J., & G. Kasper. (1989). Investigating cross-cultural pragmatics: An introductory overview. Blum-Kulka, S., House, J., & G. Kasper (Eds.), in *Cross-cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies* (pp. 1-34). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Bou-Franch, P. and P. Garces-Conejos (2003). "Teaching linguistic politeness: a methodological proposal", *IRAL* 41 (1). 1-22.
- Boxer, D., and Pickering, L. (1993). "Problems in the presentation of speech acts in ELT materials: The case for complaints". *ELT Journal*, 49(1). 44-58.
- Brown, P. and Levinson, S. (1987). *Politeness: Some Universals In Language Usage*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- Cane, G. (1998). "Teaching conversation skills more effectively". *The Korea TESOL Journal*, 1.31-37.

- Celce-Murcia, M., & Olshtain, E. (2000). *Discourse And Context in Language Teaching: A Guide For Language Teachers*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, England.
- Celce-Murcia, M. (2007). "Rethinking the role of communicative competence in language teaching". Soler, E. A., & Jordà, P. S. (Eds.) in *Intercultural Language Use And Language Learning*, (pp. 41-57). Springer: Amsterdam.
- Cheng, S. W. (2005). An Exploratory Cross-Sectional Study Of Interlanguage Pragmatic Development Of Expressions Of Gratitude By Chinese Learners Of English. Unpublished PhD dissertation; The University of Iowa, Iowa.
- Childs, M. R. (2005). The place of pragmatics in language learning. D. Tatsuki (Ed.), in *Pragmatics in Language Learning, theory and practice* (p. 13-24) JALT Pragmatics SIG.: Tokyo.
- Christensen, L., Johnson, B., and Turner, L. (2014). *Research Methods, Design, and Analysis*. Pearson: New Jersey.
- Christianto, D. (2020). "Speech acts in EFL classrooms". *Journal of Pragmatics*, 2(1). 68-79.
- Clark, A. M. (1998). "The qualitative-quantitative debate: moving from positivism and confrontation to post-positivism and reconciliation". *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 27(6). 1242-1249.
- Cohen, A. and Olshtain, E. (1983). Apology: A speech act set. Wolfson, N. & Judd, E. (Eds.), in *Sociolinguistics and Language Acquisition* (pp. 18-35). Newbury House. Rowley, MA.
- Cohen, A.D., et al. (1985). "Advanced EFL apologies: what remains to be learned?". *19th The Annual Meeting of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages*, (April, 8-14). New York, USA.
- Cook, Guy. (1989). *Discourse, Language Teaching: A Scheme for Teacher Education*. (1st Ed.) Oxford University Press: Oxford.

- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research Design : Qualitative, Quantitative, And Mixed Methods Approaches*. Sage Publications: United States of America.
- Crump, B. and Logan, K. (2008). A Framework for Mixed Stakeholders and Mixed Methods. Retrieved October, 28, 2021, https://www.researchgate.net/publication/237547708_A_Framework_for_Mixed_Stakeholders_and_Mixed_Methods
- Crystal, D. (1997). *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press: New York.
- Dawson, H. C. and Phelan, M. (2016). *Language files: Materials for an introduction to language and linguistics* (12 th ed.). Ohio State University Press: Columbus.
- Deluca, D., Gallivan, M.J., and Kock, N., (2008). “Furthering information systems action research: a post-positivist synthesis of four dialects”. *Journal of the Association for Information Systems* 9(2). 48-72.
- Demirezen, M. Pragmatics and Language Teaching. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 1991(6). 281-287.
- Denzin, N. K. (1988) “Triangulation”. J.P. Keeves (Ed.), in *Educational Research, Methodology, and Measurement: An International Handbook* (pp. 51-113) Pergamon Press, Oxford.
- Dogañay-Aktuna, S. and Kamışlı, S., (1997).“Pragmatic transfer in interlanguage development: A case study of advanced EFL learners”. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 117(1). 151-173.
- Durrheim, K. (2006). “Research Design”. M. J., Terre Blanche, Durrheim K., Painter, D. (Eds.) in *Research in practice: applied methods for the social sciences*.(pp. 33-59). University of Cape Town Press: Cape Town, South Africa.
- Ellis, R. (1997). *Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford University Press: Oxford, New York.

- Ellis, N. (2004). "The process of Second Language Acquisition". in B. VanPatten, J. Williams, S. Rott & M. Overstreet (Eds.), *Form-meaning connections in second language acquisition* (pp. 49-76). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers: New Jersey.
- Eslami-Rasekh, Z. (2005). "Raising pragmatic awareness of language learners". *ELT Journal*, 59. 199-208.
- Félix-Brasdefer, J. C. (2012). *Interlanguage Pragmatics*. Retrieved October, 11, 2021, <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal0562>
- Fischer, F., (1998). "Policy inquiry in a post-positivist perspective". *Policy Studies Journal*. (26)1. 129-146.
- Ginet, C., (1970). "Performativity". *Linguistics and Philosophy*. 3. 245-65.
- Glasgow, G (2008). "Language awareness, metapragmatics and the L2 teacher". *Accents Asia [Online]*, 2 (2). 1-16. Retrieved July, 30, 2022, <http://www.accentasia.org/2-2/glasgowg.pdf>
- Green. M. (2016). Speech Acts. in Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Linguistics (Online). Retrieved July, 30, 2022, https://www.academia.edu/26472775/Speech_Acts_Oxford_Research_Encyclopedia_of_Linguistics_2017
- Greene, J. C., Caracelli, V. J., and Graham, W. F. (1989) "Toward a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation designs". *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*. 11(3). 255-274.
- Guba, E., (1990). "The alternative paradigm dialog". In Gube E. (Ed.). *The Paradigm Dialog*, (pp. 17-27). Sage: Newbury Park, California.
- Guba, G. & Lincoln, E. (1994). "Competing paradigms in qualitative research". in Denzin N.K. & Lincoln Y.S. (Eds.), *Handbook Of Qualitative Research*. (pp.105-117). Sage: Thousand Oaks, California.

- Hogan, P. C. (2001). *Philosophical Approaches to the Study of Literature*. (1st Ed.), University Press of Florida: Florida.
- Holmes, J. (1990). "Apologies in new zealand english". *Language in Society*, 19 (2). 155-199.
- Ingber, W., Bach, K., and Harnish, R. M. (1982). "Linguistic communication and speech acts". *The Philosophical Review*. 91 (1). 134-148.
- Ishihara N. (2010). "Assessment of pragmatics in the classroom". In N. Ishihara and A. D. Cohen (Eds.), *Teaching and Learning Pragmatics: Where Language and Culture Meet* (pp. 286- 317). Pearson Education: Malasia.
- Istifçi, İ. (2009). "The use of apologies by EFL learners". *English Language Teaching*. 2(3). 15-25.
- Ivanovska, B., Kusevska, M., Daskolavska, N. and Ulanska, T. (2016). "On the reliability of discourse completion tests in measuring pragmatic competence in foreign language learners." *International Journal of Sciences: Basic and Applied Research (IJSBAR)* 25(1), 437-443. Retrieved November, 19, 2021, <https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/249335012.pdf>
- Jary, M. (2007). "Are explicit performatives assertions?" *Linguistics and Philosophy*. 30(2).207-234.
- Johnson, D. (2021). What is Data Analysis? Research, Types, Methods, Techniques. Retrieved November, 22, 2021, <https://www.guru99.com/what-is-data-analysis.html>
- Kasper, G. and Dahl, M. (1991) 'Research methods in interlanguage pragmatics', *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 13, 215-247.
- Kasper, G. (1992). "Pragmatic Transfer.". *Second Language Research*, 8(3). pp. 203-231.
- Kasper, G. (1997). "Can pragmatic competence be taught?". *Network*, 6. 105-119.
- Kasper, G., and Rose, K. R. (1999). "Pragmatics and second language acquisition". *Annual review of Applied Linguistics*, 19, 81-104.

- Kasper, G. and Rose, K. (2003) *Pragmatic Development in a Second Language*. Wiley-Blackwell: UK.
- Katzner, K. (2002) *The Languages of the World*. London: Routledge.
- Kim, D., and Hall, J. K. (2002). “The role of an interactive book reading program in the development of second language pragmatic competence”. *Modern Language Journal*, 86. 332-348.
- Kinging, C. and Farrell, K. (2004). “Assessing development of meta-pragmatic awareness in study abroad”. *The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, 10(1), 19-42.
- Kivilu, M. (2003). “Understanding the structure of data when planning for analysis: application of Hierarchical Linear Models”. *South African Journal of Education*, 23(4), 249 – 253.
- Leech, G. (1983). *Principles of pragmatics*. Longman: Harlow, England.
- Lemmon, E. (1962). “On sentences verifiable by their use”. *Analysis (Oxford)*, 22(4).86-89.
- Linguistic Competence: “Definition and Examples”, (2020). Available: <https://www.thoughtco.com/what-is-linguistic-competence-1691123#:~:text=The%20term%20linguistic%20competence%20refers,grammatical%20competence%20or%20I%20language>.
- Mackenzie, N., Knipe, S.(2006). “Research dilemmas: paradigms, methods and methodology”. *Issues In Educational Research*, 16. Retrieved November, 20, 2021, <https://www.iier.org.au/iier16/mackenzie.html>
- Marques-Reiter, R. (2000). *Linguistic Politeness in Britain and Uruguay- A Contrastive Study of Requests and Apologies*. John Benjamin Publishing Company, Amsterdam/Philadelphia.
- McCombes, S. (2021). An introduction to sampling methods. Retrieved June, 11, 2021, <https://www.scribbr.com/methodology/sampling-methods/>

- McConachy, T. (2018). *Developing intercultural perspectives on language use: Exploring pragmatics and culture in foreign language learning*. Multilingual Matters: Bristol.
- McNamara, T. F. and Roever, C. (2006). *Language Testing: The Social Dimension*. Basil Blackwell: Oxford, UK.
- Mey, J. L. (1993). *Pragmatics*. Blackwell: Oxford.
- Mertens, D. M. (2010). "Transformative mixed methods research". *Qualitative Inquiry*, 16. 469-474.
- Niaz, M. (2008). "A rationale for mixed methods (integrative) research programmes in education". *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, 42. 61-68.
- Nuccetelli, S. and Seay, G. (Eds.). (2007). *Philosophy of Language: The Central Topics*. Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.
- Olshtain E., and A. Cohen. (1989). "Speech act behavior across languages". Dechert, H.W., and Raupach, M. (Eds.), in *Transfer In Language Production*. Ablex: Norwood, NJ.
- Olshtain, E., and Cohen, A. (1983). "Apology: A speech act set". Wolfson, N., and Judd, E. (Eds.), in *Sociolinguistics And Language Acquisition*(pp. 18-36). Newbury House: Rowley, MA.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., and Johnson, R. B. (2006). "The validity issue in mixed research". *Research in the Schools*, 13(1). 48-63.
- Otçu, B. and D. Zeyrek. (2008). "Development of Requests: A Study on Turkish Learners of English". Pütz, M., Aertselaer, J.N. (Eds.) in *Developing Contrastive Pragmatics Interlanguage And Cross-Cultural Perspectives* (pp. 265-298). Mouton de Gruyter: Berlin.
- Özdemir, Ç. and Rezvani, S.A. (2010). "Interlanguage pragmatics in action: Use of expressions of gratitude". *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 3.194–202.

- Panhwar, A.H., Ansari, S., and Shah, A.A. (2017). "Post-positivism: an effective paradigm for social and educational research". *International Research Journal of Arts and Humanities*, 45(45). 253-260.
- Petter, S.C. and Gallivan, M.J. (2004). "Toward a framework for classifying and guiding mixed method research in information systems". *Proceedings of the Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences*, 37.1-10.
- Philipson, R. (1992) *Linguistic Imperialism*. Oxford University Press: Oxford.
- Reimer, M. (1995). "Performative utterances: a reply to Bach and Harnish". *Linguistics and Philosophy*, 18(6). 655-675.
- Richmond, B. (2006). *Introduction to Data Analysis Handbook*. Academy for Educational Development, Durham.
- Rose, K. R. (2005). "On the effects of instruction in second language pragmatics". *System*, 33(3). 385-399.
- Sachtleben, A. and Denny, H.G., (2012). "Making the implicit explicit: raising pragmatic awareness in trainee interpreters, using semi-authentic spontaneous discourse samples". *TESOL Journal*, 3(1). 126 – 137.
- Sajjar Kabir, S. M. 2016. "Methods of data collection". Jahur et al. (Eds.) in *Basic Guidelines for Research: An Introductory Approach for All Disciplines*. (pp. 201-275). Book Zone Publication: Chittagong, Bangladesh.
- Schmidt, R. (1994). "Implicit learning and the cognitive unconscious: of artificial grammar and SLA". In N. Ellis (Ed.), *Implicit and Explicit Learning of Languages* (pp. 165-209). Academic Press: London.
- Schmidt, R. (2010). "Attention, awareness, and individual differences in language learning". *Proceedings of CLaSIC 2010*, Singapore, December 2-4, 2010. Singapore: National University of Singapore, Centre for Language Studies. (pp. 721-737).

- Searle, J. (1969) *Speech Acts: An Essay In The Philosophy Of Language*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, UK.
- Searle, J. (1989). "How performatives work". *Linguistics and Philosophy*, 12.535–558.
- Selltiz, C., Jahoda, M., Deutsch, M. and Cook, S. W.(1965). *Research Methods In Social Relations* (Revised ed). Holt, Rinehart & Winston: New York.
- Taguchi, N. (2006). "Analysis of appropriateness in a speech act of request in L2 English". *Pragmatics*, 16(4). 513-533.
- Taguchi, N. (2015). "Instructed pragmatics at a glance: Where instructional studies were, are, and should be going". *Language Teaching*, 48(1). 1-50.
- Taguchi, N. (2017). "Interlanguage pragmatics". A. Barron, P. Grundy, & G. Yueguo (Eds.), in *The Routledge Handbook of Pragmatics* (pp. 153–167). Routledge: Oxford, New York.
- Teddlie, C. and Tashakkori, A. (2009) *Foundations of Mixed Methods Research: Integrating Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches in the Social and Behavioral Sciences*. Sage: London.
- The Relationship of the Forces. (n.d.). Available at <https://www.wtamu.edu/~mjacobsen/SpActCats.htm>.
- Thomas, J. (1983). "Cross-cultural pragmatic failure". *Applied Linguistics* 4(2). 91-112
- Tunçel, R. (1999). Speech act realizations of turkish EFL learners: A study on apologizing and thanking. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis. Anadolu University, Institute of Social Sciences, Eskişehir.
- Turnbull, W. (2003). "Language in action: Psychological models of conversation." *International Series in Social Psychology*, (1st Ed.), Routledge: Oxford, New York.
- Ulum, Ö. G. (2018). Ideological and hegemonic practices in globally and locally written EFL textbooks. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis. Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Graduate School of Educational Sciences, Çanakkale.

- Uso-Juan, E. (2007). "The presentation and practice of the communicative act of requesting in textbooks: Focusing on modifiers". Soler, E. A. and Jorda, M. P. S. (Eds.) in *Intercultural Language Use And Language Learning* (pp.41-57). Springer: Netherlands.
- Vásquez, C., and Sharpless, D. (2009). "The role of pragmatics in the master's TESOL curriculum: Findings from a nationwide survey". *TESOL Quarterly*, 43(1). 5–28.
- Vellenga, H., (2004). "Learning pragmatics from ESL & EFL textbooks: How likely?". *TESL-EJ*, 8 (2), 1–17.
- Williams, J. N. (2009). "Implicit learning in second language acquisition". Ritchie, W.C. and Bhatia, T.K. (Eds.) in *The New Handbook Of Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 319-353). Emerald Group Publishing: Bingley, UK.
- Wittgenstein, L. (1953). *Philosophical investigations*. Macmillan: New York.
- Yates, L. (2008). *Teaching In Action 3. The Not-So Generic Skills: Teaching Employability Communication Skills To Adult Migrants*. Adult Migrant English Programme Research Centre: Sydney, Australia.
- Yule, G. (2000). *Pragmatics*. Oxford: OUP.
- Zhao, Y. and Throssell, P. "Speech Act Theory and Its Application to EFL Teaching in China". *Language Society and Culture*, 32. 88-95.
- Zingir Gülten, A. (2008). Requesting in English: Interlanguage Pragmatics of Turkish Children. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis. Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Anadolu Üniversitesi. Eskişehir.