

**REBUPLIC OF TURKEY
ISTANBUL MEDENIYET UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF GRADUATE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING**

**THE USE OF SPEECH ACTS
IN TURKISH EFL CLASSES**

**Master's Thesis
TÜLİN TÜRNÜK**

JULY 2021

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Supervisor
ASSOC. PROF. DR. ÖZGE CENGİZ

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BİLDİRİM

Hazırladığım tezin tamamen kendi çalışmam olduğunu, akademik ve etik kuralları gözeterek çalıştığımı ve her alıntıya kaynak gösterdiğimi taahhüt ederim.

Tülin Türnük

Danışmanlığını yaptığım işbu tezin tamamen öğrencinin çalışması olduğunu, akademik ve etik kuralları gözeterek çalıştığımı taahhüt ederim.

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Tülin Türnük tarafından hazırlanan ‘**The Use of Speech Acts in Turkish EFL Classes**’ başlıklı bu yüksek lisans tezi, **Yabancı Diller Eğitimi** Anabilim Dalında hazırlanmış ve jürimiz tarafından kabul edilmiştir.

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ABSTRACT

THE USE OF SPEECH ACTS IN TURKISH EFL CLASSES

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Almost no studies have been conducted to examine all the speech act types used by teachers and by students together in classes where English is taught as a foreign language (EFL context). This descriptive research aimed to determine the speech act use of instructors and students at a state university in Turkey. The speech acts used by both groups were classified separately based on the taxonomy of Searle (1969), and their functions were analyzed.

Four female and four male instructors participated in the study voluntarily along with their 129 students in eight classes at three different levels: A, B, and C. Six classes were from level A, one class was from level B, and one was from level C. Forty-two 40-minute class hours were recorded, and these recordings were transcribed using the Jeffersonian Transcription Notation (1984). The results of the study revealed that both the instructors and their students used the same three types of speech acts: Assertives, directives, and expressives with various different functions. However, commissives and declaratives were not detected in their classrooms.

In the light of the results, this thesis study is thought to contribute to the understanding of the nature of speech act use in EFL context and shed light on the process of raising linguistic awareness with an emphasis on the use of speech acts in educational contexts.

Key Words: Pragmatics, Classroom discourse, Teacher talk, Speech acts

ÖZET

İNGİLİZCENİN YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRETİLDİĞİ SINIFLARDA ÜRETİLEN SÖZ EYLEMLER

Türnük, Tülin

Yüksek Lisans, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi

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İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak okutulduğu sınıflarda hem öğretmenlerin hem de öğrencilerin kullandıkları tüm söz eylemleri işlevleriyle birlikte inceleyen neredeyse hiçbir çalışma bulunmamaktadır. Bu betimleyici çalışmada, Türkiye’de bir devlet üniversitesinde İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğretildiği sınıflarda öğretim görevlileri ve öğrencileri tarafından üretilen tüm söz eylemlerin sınıflandırılması ve bunların işlevlerinin saptanması amaçlanmıştır. Öğretim görevlileri ve öğrencileri tarafından üretilen söz eylemler, Searle (1969) temel alınarak sınıflandırılmış ve işlevleri ortaya konmuştur.

Çalışmaya dört kadın, dört erkek olmak üzere sekiz öğretim görevlisi ve onların A, B ve C olmak üzere üç farklı seviyedeki sınıfından 129 öğrencisi gönüllü olarak katılmıştır. Çalışmaya katılan altı sınıf A, bir sınıf B ve bir sınıf C seviyesindedir. Her biri yaklaşık kırk’ar dakikadan oluşan toplam 42 ders saati kaydedilmiş ve yapılan kayıtların Jefferson (1984) yönetimi ile çevriyazısı yapılmıştır. Çalışmanın sonuçları, hem öğretim görevlilerinin hem de öğrencilerinin *belirtici*, *yönlendirici* ve *yansıtıcı* olmak üzere aynı türden söz eylemleri bir dizi farklı işlevle kullanırken, *yükümleyici* ve *bildirici* türlerini hiç kullanmadıklarını ortaya koymuştur.

Çalışmanın, İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğretildiği sınıflarda üretilen söz eylemlerin doğasının ortaya konmasına katkı sağlayacağı ve sınıf içindeki söz eylem kullanımına odaklanarak eğitim ortamlarında, özellikle de öğretmen adaylarında dilsel farkındalık yaratma sürecine ışık tutacağı düşünülmektedir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Edimbilim, Sınıf söylemi, Öğretmen konuşması, Söz eylemler

DEDICATION

To my beloved family and friends for their endless support



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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CA	: Conversation Analysis
CDA	: Critical Discourse Analysis
DMs	: Discourse Markers
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
ESL	: English as a Second Language
FL	: Foreign Language
ILP	: Interlanguage Pragmatics
IRE	: Initiation-response-evaluation
IRF	: Initiation-response-feedback/follow-up
L1	: First Language
L2	: Second Language
LS	: Language Socialization
SLA	: Second Language Acquisition
ZPD	: Zone of Proximal Development

“‘When I use a word’, Humpty Dumpty said, in rather a scornful tone, ‘it means just what I choose to mean- neither more nor less.’
‘The question is’, said Alice, ‘whether you can make words mean so many different things.’”
Lewis Carroll
Through the Looking Glass

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Language is a crucial means of communication since humans are social beings, and it is the very linguistic capacity that differentiates between human beings and other species. As Halliday (1989) points out, language is related to the social aspect of human life. Thanks to language, people not only can express their feelings and needs to one another but also “carry on nearly all the ordinary and extraordinary business of life” (Schmidt, 1983: 137).

When people talk about language, they usually refer to spoken language (Cook, 1989), and they tend to ignore other varieties. However, language has many forms: Oral, written, body, and sign language. Descriptive linguistics distinguishes between spoken and written language (McCarthy and Carter, 1994). Written language is composed of sentences, whereas spoken language consists of utterances as “the smallest unit of language activity” (Halliday, McIntosh, and Stevens, 1966: 95). An utterance can be defined as “a stream of speech under one intonation contour, bounded by pauses, and constituting a single semantic unit” (Crookes and Rulon, 1985: 9). Like a sentence in a written text, “[an utterance] is a unit into which the stream of speech could be separated” (Crookes, 1990: 186). The utterances are separated as intonation units determined by the pauses before and after them, the accelerating or decelerating tempo, the declining pitch level, the final “falling pitch contour, and the creaky voice at the end” (Chafe, 1992: 43). An intonation unit is defined as “a piece of utterance with an unbroken grid” (Gårding, 1984: 78).

What distinguishes spoken language from written language are the prosodic features such as intonation and contour and the paralinguistic features like voice quality and gestures which cannot be represented in writing (Halliday, 1989). In addition, while everything is explicitly stated in writing, loads of things are implicitly left unsaid in speech. Moreover, written language is more organized and well-formed than spoken language as writers have time to think about writing (McCarthy, 2000).

According to Wilkins (1974), written language was traditionally considered to have a higher status than spoken language for three reasons: First of all, only a minority of people was educated to read and write back then, which gave written language a privileged position. Secondly, literary masterpieces came to being, thanks to written language. Finally, the written language is permanent, while the spoken language is transitory. However, from the linguistic perspective, speech has a more prominent position than writing because speech is encoded in the biological nature of mankind, and speech preceded writing during the evolutionary process. Languages constantly change, which is realized via speaking. For the same reasons, communicative language teaching has been putting more importance on speaking than on writing. According to behaviorist pedagogy, Gass and Selinker (2008) also emphasize the prominence of speaking, saying that children learn to speak much before they learn to write. Although there are some societies with no writing system and only oral system, there is no society with only a writing system without a speaking system.

As we learn from Janson (2012), there are around 7000 languages in the world. All these languages have some shared universal aspects. As an example, all languages have (at least two) vowels and phonemes. However, these languages also have some culture-specific aspects as different languages are used in different societies (Greenberg, Osgood, and Jenkins (1963). There are many differences in the manners related to using language such as whether it is acceptable to interrupt a person or not while speaking. These differences make language learning difficult as they confuse learners (Cliff and Wierzbicka, 1997). Language is spoken by the members of a specific society, but speech can have various forms even within a single society (Wardhaugh, 1998).

As Gee (2010) states, language is for saying, doing, and being things and making meaning out of an utterance or a sentence depends on the knowledge of who does what to whom. People are observed to perform particular actions such as apologizing via language since there are certain intentions behind what they say. These are called *speech acts*, and they provide effective and meaningful communication. They are part of everyday situations and the classroom where there is excessive interaction among students and the teacher, which supports the teaching and learning process by transmitting knowledge (Nurani, 2015). However, the use of speech acts in the classroom is supposed to be different from day-to-day circumstances because of the hierarchy and the particular nature of interaction.

1.2. Objective of the Study

The main objective of this study is to determine the speech acts used by the instructors and the students in the English as Foreign Language (EFL) class environment in order to reveal the nature of speech act use in the EFL context. In other words, this study aims at creating a *function map* of speech acts in those instructors' and students' talk in the classrooms.

1.3. Significance of the Study

This descriptive research is expected to serve theoretically and practically in the fields of linguistics and foreign language education.

1. This study is expected to contribute to foreign language education and *teacher talk* studies by identifying the types of speech acts used in the classroom context.
2. This study is thought to provide some insights into the field of Pragmatics by focusing on speech acts.
3. This study is hoped to fill the gap in research related to the use of speech acts by both instructors and learners in the Turkish EFL context.

1.4. Research Questions

This study is going to address the following questions:

1. Which types of speech acts are used by the instructors according to the taxonomy of Searle?
2. Which types of speech acts are used by the students according to the taxonomy of Searle?
3. Which functions do these speech acts fulfill in both groups?

1.5. Limitations of the Study

The scope of this study is limited to analyze the speech acts at a single state university in Turkey, and it is based on Searle's categorization of speech acts: i.e. directives, assertives, expressives, commissives, and declarations. It was carried out with only eight instructors, 129 students, and with 1680 minutes of recording.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In this chapter, first, Pragmatics and basic categories of Pragmatics are provided in detail. Second, Discourse Analysis and the basic concepts of Conversation Analysis are presented. Lastly, Speech Act Theory is explained with an emphasis on Searle's (1969) classification.

2.1. Pragmatics

Pragmatics is the study of speaker meaning in a context which can be defined as “mental constructs of relevant aspects of social situations” (Van Dijk, 2006: 165). It studies “communicative action in its sociocultural context” (Kasper and Rose, 2001: 2). The most commonly used data collection methods are authentic discourse, elicited conversation, roleplays, production questionnaires, multiple-choice questions, scaled response questions, interviews, diaries, and think-aloud protocols (Kasper, 1999). Its starting point is an utterance or sentence, and it explores what the speaker or writer means in relation to the context according to which meaning can change (Whong, 2011). It also explores how listeners perceive what is left unsaid by speakers due to the social distance between them because communication is free of problems as long as the hearer can recognize the speaker's intention through pragmatic inferencing (Kecskes, 2010). Yule (2010: 128) calls Pragmatics the study of “invisible meaning” which is understood due to a high degree of shared knowledge between the interlocutors. Pragmatic meaning can be expressed by three different kinds of pragmatic markers: Basic pragmatic markers like “please”, commentary pragmatic markers such as “frankly”, and parallel pragmatic markers like “damn” (Schiffrin, 2001: 59). Pragmatics forms a bond between language forms and the people who use them. Examining language through a pragmatic angle is advantageous in that it can reveal intended meanings, communicative purposes, and the acts being performed while speaking (Yule, 1996).

Knowing how to produce and understand grammatically correct sentences is only a part of learning a language. People should also learn to compose appropriate sentences according to the context fulfilling a communicative function as almost nobody uses a grammatical utterance without any particular purpose (Yule, 1996), which is a highly difficult aspect of language acquisition, even for advanced learners (Krulatz and Dixon, 2016). This fact is reflected in the distinction between Saussure's *langue* and *parole*; Chomsky's *competence* and *performance*; and between *usage* and *use* (Widdowson, 1978). Among these terms, competence, langue, and usage deal with decontextualized rules of language through idealization, whereas performance, parole, and use are related to actual language production within context (Corder, 1977). To know about the appropriateness of a statement depending on the context is called *communicative competence*.

The notion of pragmatics can be better understood by referring to the terms pragma-linguistics and socio-pragmatics. Pragma-linguistics is language-specific and abstract, whereas socio-pragmatics is culture-specific. In other words, pragma-linguistics is related to grammar while socio-pragmatics is related to sociology (Leech, 1983). To be pragmatically competent, people need these two types of knowledge and also skills to process this knowledge during conversation (Taguchi, 2009). According to Deda (2013: 67), "Pragmatics encompasses speech acts, conversational structure, conversational implicature, conversational management, discourse organization, and sociolinguistic aspects of language use such as choice of address forms."

2.1.1. Communicative Competence

The term *communicative competence* was coined by the linguist Hymes (1972) as opposed to Chomsky's (1965) *linguistic competence*, and it combines the knowledge and the ability to do something. Differing from linguistic competence, communicative competence encompasses not only knowledge of grammatical rules but also sociolinguistic knowledge and awareness of context (Canale and Swain, 1980), which is not conscious (Drew, 2005) because "there are rules of use without which the rules of language would be useless" (Hymes, 1972: 278). Knowledge of grammatical rules is not enough to speak a language, but one must also know about social "norms, patterns, expectations" (Drew, 2005: 75), and appropriateness in social situations;

therefore, the emphasis is on “function and social context in language use” (Savignon, 2018: 2) so that people can mutually understand one another (Drew, 2005). The same message can be transmitted in several different ways that are all semantically and grammatically correct, but only one of them will be acceptable in a given situation; therefore, for language learners, grammatical forms should be associated with social situations because language is connected to the situation it takes place. This is what makes people able to predict the language to be used in certain situations such as *buying a particular thing* (Wilkins, 1974), and this kind of activity is seen in modern course books. People may not convey the right message or any message with bad grammar, but if they do not follow the pragmatic rules, they will probably be misunderstood receiving very different responses from the hearers (Kecskes, 2015).

Hymes (1972: 65-67) explains the term communicative competence by putting forward four criteria: Whether something is formally “possible, feasible, appropriate, and done.” Pragmatic and linguistic rules go hand in hand for achieving communicative goals, and communicative competence includes socio-cultural features and is required to infer what is left unsaid while communicating (Blum-Kulka, 1980).

According to the model devised by Canale and Swain (1980: 27), communicative competence consists of “grammatical competence” (knowledge of lexis, the collection of words in a language; morphology, the internal structure of words; syntax, how words combine into phrases and sentences; semantics, how languages structure meaning; and phonology, the study of speech sounds), “sociolinguistic competence” (knowledge of socio-cultural and discourse rules), and “strategic competence” which refers to both verbal and nonverbal “communication strategies.”

2.1.2. Other Types of Competence in Language Teaching

Pragmatic Competence: The term *pragmatic competence* was introduced by sociolinguist Jenny Thomas in 1983. It is seen as a crucial component of communicative competence. It can be defined as the capability of using language efficiently for a particular aim and for grasping the contextual meaning (Thomas, 1983). “Pragmatic competence is part of human social cognition (Taguchi, 2009: 4). It realizes “the production and interpretation of sentences” (Paradis, 1998: 1). Its natural development occurs with linguistic and cognitive maturity (Taguchi, 2009)

because to be pragmatically competent, one should be aware of social distance, status, cultural knowledge like politeness in addition to linguistic knowledge (Jaszczolt and Allan, 2012). It is governed by the right hemisphere in the brain, and any damage to that area results in communication breakdowns (Paradis, 1998). According to Bachman (1990), pragmatic competence requires the knowledge of the pragmatic and sociolinguistic conventions to perform acceptable and appropriate language functions in a specific context. It includes “the abilities to engage in joint attention, to draw inferences, to attribute mental states, and to integrate contextual information from a variety of sources” (Falkum, 2019: 1). People who have pragmatic competence can maintain communication efficiently by carrying out a complicated interaction involving the language used, the people who communicate, and the context they are in (Taguchi, 2011). Pragmatic competence is the ability to use the language with some illocutionary meaning that can be defined as speakers’ intentions behind their utterances (Bialystok, 1993). Thinking in a specific language by having internalized the necessary systems and speaking according to one’s intentions are the skills a competent language user must have (Popovici, 2016). Speech acts are part of pragmatic competence. The Pragmatics of speech acts includes using the language appropriately depending on the situation and showing the expected level of politeness by the target culture in speech act production (Koike, 1989).

Interactional competence: Spoken interaction is a dynamic and unpredictable process in which listeners try to decode the messages they receive, and speakers construct their own messages. Interaction is co-constructed by the participants (Galaczi and Taylor, 2018) around shared world knowledge and a shared context. Interactional competence focuses on language used in discursive practices and how this co-construction occurs with the contribution of all participants. It also investigates the nature of specific discursive practices (Young, 2000). The aim is to avoid misunderstandings by making the message clear (Kramsch, 1986). Acquiring interactional competence has gained importance in teaching and assessing speaking since the emergence of the Communicative Approach (Galaczi and Taylor, 2018).

Strategic competence: It is a component of Canale and Swain’s model of communicative competence. Strategic competence makes up for the inadequate competence of learners. People’s ability to solve their communication problems by

verbal and nonverbal means has two types: Those related to grammatical competence like paraphrasing and those related to sociolinguistic competence, such as role-playing (Canale and Swain, 1980). Strategic competence enables learners to notice the similarities and differences between their native language and the target language. In this way, they can raise hypotheses and take risks (Moore, 2006). Some tasks used in language teaching ask for strategic competence. To exemplify, answering inference questions in reading requires this kind of competence (Bachman, 1990).

Discourse competence: Discourse competence which is required for language socialization (Cook-Gumperz and Kyratzis, 2001) is selecting and combining vocabulary items and grammatical structures to create cohesive and coherent spoken and written texts in accordance with the context (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell, 1995). The rules govern the relationship among sentences and utterances, and discourse competence involves knowing about these rules (Brown, 2001). It also includes the knowledge of genres and conversational structure (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell, 1995). It is an essential part of sociolinguistic competence (Canale and Swain, 1980) and textual competence (Bachman, 1990). It is acquired in social situations (Van Dijk, 1998).

2.1.3. Pragmatics in Language Education

There has always been a paradigm shift in language teaching as new approaches and methods emerged from the Grammar Translation Method to the Communicative Approach. Communicative competence and pragmatic competence have gained importance in time as the goal in language education has become producing and understanding contextually appropriate language as linguistic knowledge is not sufficient to cover all the necessary knowledge to use a language (Blum-Kulka, 1980). Language learners need both pragma-linguistic and socio-pragmatic knowledge to gain proficiency (Taguchi and Roever, 2017). They should be able to perform language functions in a socially appropriate way (Taguchi, 2009). Pragmatic development can never be complete without instruction (Baştürkmen and Nguyen, 2017) which can be realized through some activities that raise learners' consciousness (Rose, 1994). According to *observational learning theory*, “people learn by observing the behavior of others” (Bandura, 1971: 5), so language learners should be given chances to observe

language behavior like speech acts since they should gain “cultural understanding and communication skills” (Deda, 2013: 67). It is a must for a proficient language speaker to understand forms and functions appropriate to the context, so Pragmatics and language learning should be interconnected. To this end, good pragmatic input must be provided in classrooms with pragmatically appropriate materials, and pragmatic awareness of learners should be increased through some activities (Bardovi- Harlig, 1996).

Pragmatic development does not go in parallel with the proficiency level, so learners of high grammatical proficiency may not demonstrate equal pragmatic development. For this reason, although even native speakers may be unaware of pragmatic rules as they are mostly subconscious, language learners need to learn them. Otherwise, they may sound unkind or indifferent during interaction (Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor, 2003). It is teachers’ responsibility to teach pragmatic rules; however, this is not an easy task as teachers lack sufficient materials and training on methodology (Eslami-Raskh, 2005).

According to Kecskes (2015), bilinguals already have pragmatic competence in their first language (L1), which has to be adjusted to the second language. Therefore, second language (L2) pragmatic competence is not something separate. The only difference between the two is that while L1 pragmatic competence is acquired automatically in a social circle, bilingual pragmatic competence is gained consciously and willingly, so learners must put some effort into this. Monolingual and multilingual people all do the same things with language, but how they do these differs from language to language.

Learners both as speakers and listeners need to prevent pragmatic failure which is sometimes funny and sometimes tragic with serious consequences (Cruz, 2013). *Pragmatic failure* which does not only occur between native and non-natives but between any people who have different linguistic and/or cultural backgrounds is defined as “the inability to understand ‘what is meant by what is said.’” If language learners speak the target language fluently, pragmatic failure causes communication breakdown across cultures because native speakers label them as ill-willed because of their impoliteness or unfriendliness (Thomas, 1983: 91). Teaching Pragmatics, which is especially important in English that is a lingua franca spoken in many different

countries and settings, aims to make learners able to use language appropriately in the social situations they encounter, avoiding communication breakdowns and misunderstandings. It involves teaching “speech acts, conversational structure, conversational implicature, conversational management, discourse organization, and sociolinguistic aspects of language use, such as choice of address forms (Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor, 2003: 37), although according to Thomas (1983), appropriateness cannot be covered enough in course books. Learners tend to show some hesitation while expressing emotions such as anger in a foreign language, so they use indirect forms. These forms do not conform to acceptable norms either in their mother tongues or in the target language because learners develop interlanguage performance. However, if the language forms and their related social norms are similar in the first language and the target language such as in the case of imperatives, learners acquire them more easily and use them appropriately (Blum-Kulka, 1980), which is called as *positive transfer* (Yule, 2010).

2.1.3.1. Intercultural Pragmatics

Culture can be defined as traditional “values, beliefs, norms and ideas ... shared by the members of a society” (Zeyrek, 2001: 43). In 1994, Michael Agar coined the term *languaculture* which means that language and culture cannot be separated (Scollon, 1995). For this reason, conversation is free of problems if it occurs among people with the same cultural background (Wardhaugh, 1998), with some shared knowledge, and background information (Taguchi and Roever, 2017). This constitutes the difference between *intracultural* and *intercultural* communication. In intracultural communication, there are communalities that people take for granted, and as they are missing in intercultural communication, interlocutors have to construct them working together. Intercultural pragmatics is related to the use of language in social gatherings among people whose mother tongues are different and who speak in a common language representing different cultures and their creation of “third culture” (Kecskes, 2014: 13). This is the case when the teacher is of foreign origin in EFL classrooms, and intercultural pragmatics is the field in which EFL and Pragmatics become interconnected. Learners of English have been observed to be using several strategies to prevent and solve interactional problems. These strategies consist of “paraphrasing,

repeating, checking comprehension, and providing a repair.” (Taguchi and Roever, 2017: 247).

Cross-cultural conversation requires “communicative flexibility”, but not everyone has it (Wardhaugh, 1998: 304); therefore, cultural differences may cause some misunderstandings when learners attempt to transfer pragmatic rules from their first languages to the target language (Koike, 1989). The focus of intercultural pragmatics in the EFL context is on “how speakers construct and negotiate mutual understanding while coping with problems of miscommunication and non-understanding” (Taguchi and Roever, 2017: 246) and how they do this without losing their own cultural identities (Deda, 2013).

As many different languages are spoken around the world creating a cultural diversity, the goal of modern people is to be able to communicate across different languages and cultures. Intercultural competence is the ability to communicate with people from varying ethnic and cultural backgrounds. It is crucial especially in international business and tourism, so large companies look for employees who have this competence (Spitzberg and Changnon, 2009). Intercultural competence, which is a continuous process, is not only knowing about famous foods, how to greet people or traditions. Being able to view things from the perspective of others is also a necessary skill to be competent (Deardorff, 2011). It is no wonder that teachers and teacher educators must have this competence to transmit it to their students (Cushner and Mahon, 2009) through curricular and “co-curricular activities” (Deardorff, 2011: 69). Culture should be taught as information, language, and communication in the classroom (Lo Bianco, 2003).

2.1.3.2. Interlanguage Pragmatics

Interlanguage is “second-generation hybrid” (Kasper and Blum-Kulka, 1993: 3). It is the term that encompasses all the stages that each language learner passes through while trying to become fluent in a foreign language (Koike, 1989). It is a branch of both Second Language Acquisition Research and Pragmatics (Kasper and Blum-

Kulka, 1993). It investigates both how language learners acquire and use second language pragmatics because language learning means knowing grammatical rules and lexis and learning how to use this knowledge appropriately and to comprehend the pragmatic force behind other people's utterances. This process is identical to a child's who is learning a first language. Still, a drawback for second language learners is that the pragmatic forces in the target language may be different from their mother tongues (Gass and Selinker, 2008). Kasper and Dahl (1991: 5) define interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) as "non-native speakers' comprehension and production of speech acts, and how their L2-related speech act knowledge is required." According to Gass and Selinker (2008), a language system with its structure is created by language learners. "A third language system is involved" (Cook, 1993: 17). It has components from L1 and L2 and some original forms that do not have roots in any of these languages. Sometimes fossilization is observed in interlanguage when learners stop improving before becoming competent in the target language. Fossilization does not occur during L1 acquisition, it is seen only in second or foreign language acquisition (Ellis, 1997).

Learners use some strategies to develop interlanguage. Overgeneralization and transfer are examples of these strategies. Learners overgeneralize the rules that they have learned easily; they try to add regular past tense suffix *-ed* to irregular verbs like in the case of using 'eated' instead of 'ate.' Transfer refers to the process in which foreign language acquisition is affected by learners' L1. It can be positive or negative. If L1 knowledge causes errors in the target language, it is called *negative transfer*. If L1 knowledge facilitates L2 acquisition due to similarities, it is named *positive transfer* (Ellis, 1997). ILP tries to explain how language learners acquire pragmatics and how this acquisition can be enhanced through instruction (Kasper, 2010). This is also called *acquisitional pragmatics* or *L2 pragmatics* by Bardovi-Harlig (2013). As Baştürkmen and Nguyen (2017) put forward, there is limited opportunity in the classroom for learners to acquire pragmatics incidentally; therefore, learners need to be instructed. When it comes to the type of instruction, explicit instruction has been observed to be more advantageous than implicit instruction as long as it is kept short, which is enhanced by Schmidt's *Noticing Hypothesis* (1983). According to this hypothesis, people can learn only when they pay attention and consciously perceive things.

Attention and noticing are necessary to understand the foreign language learning process (Schmidt, 2010).

Interlanguage pragmatics is hard to develop, especially in English as Foreign Language (EFL) contexts where the target language is not used daily. Rose (2009) states in his paper on interlanguage development that while pragmatic development is observed to a certain extent in EFL contexts, there is a significant lack of socio-pragmatic development as learners do not have immediate contact with the target language community in which they could both acquire and use socio-pragmatic competence.

2.1.4. Language Socialization

Language socialization (LS) is based on the idea that children develop socially and culturally via language, and it combines discourse and ethnography to study this developmental process through adult-child communication (Ochs and Schieffelin, 2011). It studies how social competence is acquired through the medium of language since language acquisition and socialization concur (Schieffelin and Ochs, 1986). According to Ochs (1996), language is used in a social context; therefore, children and language learners are socialized using language in a meaningful, appropriate, and effective way with more experienced members in the community. One can assign meaning to symbolic language only by considering social situations. For this reason, acquisition of language and acquisition of social competence are interdependent, and each ensures the other. This integrated language acquisition and socialization process of children and language learners is called *language socialization* (Ochs, 1996). It begins at birth and continues throughout someone's life until death (Ochs and Schieffelin, 2011). LS is a dynamic process because social measures and routines may change in time (Lee and Bucholtz, 2015). During this process, more proficient users help novice users learn both the target language forms and cultural and social elements (Duff, 2011). Therefore, language socialization involves some kind of hierarchy, but this hierarchy is not fixed. That is, the same person can be an expert in one context and a novice in another one (Lee and Bucholtz, 2015). It is an interactive process in which novice users are active agents in constructing meaning (Schieffelin and Ochs, 1986). Identity construction is also the result of this process. In the first language, language

socialization occurs as a result of modelling as well as training while second language or bilingual socialization depends totally on instruction. In second language classrooms; however, the only thing that is new is not the language but also the teaching approach, materials, and teachers (Duff, 2003). In the field of LS, cognition is a social concept rather than psychological (Lee and Bucholtz, 2015). Ohta's study (1996) demonstrates that learner-learner interaction in class also reinforces language development significantly as all kinds of interaction are required to acquire a language and develop linguistically, cognitively, and socially by transmitting language, knowledge, and culture.

2.1.5. Conversational Implicature

Implicature, a term coined by Grice (1975), is how people violate Grice's maxims (Please refer to Section 2.3.6.2) as they mean something that differs from what they actually say. The speaker says less but means more, which is called *pragmatic understatement* dating back to the 4th century's Greek rhetoricians Servius and Donatus (Horn, 2006). However, the hearer follows Grice's framework due to some expectations and tries to understand the hidden meaning by cooperating with the speaker and asking why something has been told in that particular way (Wardhaugh, 1998). Arriving at meaning in this situation requires some shared background knowledge between the interlocutors called *schema* or *script* (Yule, 2010). The speaker expresses meaning implicitly in a way that what is meant is different from what is actually said (Huang, 2017). As it is not directly transmitted, hearers should infer the hidden meaning based on the speaker's intention (Davis, 2005). The hearer infers the meaning, although what the speaker has said itself is not inference (Huang, 2017). While the utterance itself is examined in terms of both Semantics and Pragmatics, the implicature is included only in the field of Pragmatics as inferred meaning (Carston, 2004). Conversational implicature is "conveying a (propositional) content without saying it", and this content makes no contribution to the truth value of the proposition in the utterance (Bianchi, 2013: 83). Someone might say something true but imply something false depending on their intention (Bach, 2006). People make use of implicatures starting from an early age for various purposes, such as avoiding conflict, misinforming (but not lying), acquiring a different way of expressing oneself, and being rhetorically effective. Conversational implicatures are defeasible,

cancellable, non-detachable, calculable, nonconventional, and indeterminate (Huang, 2017). Common examples of implicatures are figures of speech like irony and metaphor (Davis, 2005). Conversational implicature is called indirect speech act by Searle (1975) as there is a difference between its *locutionary* force and *illocutionary* force.

2.1.6. Irony in Conversation

Irony, which is a figure of speech, is a conversational situation in which the speaker means more than what he/she actually says. Indeed, the speaker implicates just the opposite of what is said (Cook, 2005). People generally say positive things with negative intentions (Rockwell, 2000). The literal meaning is substituted with figurative meaning through implication and what hearers or readers have to do is to reinterpret what is said to reach the implied meaning (Vance, 2012) since it would be completely inappropriate if it were interpreted literally (Clift, 1999); therefore, irony has something to do with pretending (Clark and Gerrig, 1984). “In order to perceive irony accurately, listeners must be aware of more than literal content” (Rockwell, 2000: 484). In the case of irony, Grice’s *quality maxim* is thought to be violated intentionally because speakers do not mean what they say (Rockwell, 2000). In some other cases, irony is realized by echoing a previous utterance with a certain kind of intonation (Clift, 1999) to show ridicule (Sperber and Wilson, 1981). According to Rockwell (2000), irony is more nonverbal than verbal, and irony is articulated with a slower tempo and lower pitch along with certain facial expressions such as rolling eyes. She points out that sarcasm is a common form of irony with some intent to hurt the other person, and some vocal features may provide some cues for listeners to detect the sarcasm. Another alternative is changing the style or register; for example, to use a more formal style than necessary (Sperber and Wilson, 1981).

According to Amante (1981), ironic utterances also have felicity conditions like non-ironic speech acts. However, they negate one or more of these conditions. In this way, the illocutionary force is weakened to add a perlocutionary-like effect which creates an affective factor with numerous layers of meaning.

Children start understanding irony at the age of six or seven (Wilson and Sperber, 2012) because it requires some cognitive ability, and even adults may sometimes miss

it (Jaszczolt and Allan, 2012). The ability to understand irony is one of the issues that Pragmatics tries to describe.

2.1.7. Context

The word *context* comes from the Latin word *contextus* which means connection and coherence (Meibauer, 2012). According to Cutting (2002: 3), there are three types of context: *situational context*, *background knowledge context*, and *the co-textual context*. Situational context refers to the physical surroundings of the interaction taking place. Background knowledge context can be either cultural or interpersonal. If it is cultural, it refers to the shared world knowledge among the interlocutors, and if it is interpersonal, it includes knowing about personal details about other interlocutors from past experiences. On the other hand, co-textual context is the knowledge of the text itself, such as knowing what the used pronouns refer to during the conversation. This is called *reference*. If the *referent*, the object or subject referred to, is mentioned for the first time, it is *exophoric reference* meaning that the referent is outside the context. If the referent is inside the context, it is *endophoric reference*. Lastly, if a referring word refers to some background knowledge not mentioned in the context, it is called *intertextuality* (Cutting, 2002). Reference also contributes to cohesion in the text (Cutting, 2002); therefore, it is explicitly taught in reading and writing classes.

Meibauer (2012: 11) gives an alternative name to situational context: *Extratextual context*. He provides three more dimensions for context: Intratextual, infratextual, and intertextual. *Intratextual context* (co-text) refers to the connection of a piece of text to the surrounding text. *Infratextual context* means the connection of a piece of text to the whole text. *Intertextual context* concerns the connection of a text to all other texts. Yule (2010), on the other hand, states that there are two kinds of context. The first one is the *linguistic context* or *co-text*. The co-text of a word can be defined as the other words that surround that word within the same phrase or sentence, and thanks to the co-text, people can guess the meaning of an unknown word. This is a strategy taught to language learners. The second type of context is the *physical context*, that is, where we see that word. This context gives people a clue about how to interpret the expressions they encounter.

The fundamental difference between Semantics and Pragmatics lies in their views of context. Semantics studies meaning independent of context while Pragmatics studies meaning dependent on context (Fetzer, 2017). This context-dependency is an essential concept in linguistics (Finkbeiner, Meibauer and Schumacher, 2012).

Context is also very important in the field of education. Cummins (1982) differentiates two types of language proficiency: Context-embedded and context-reduced. Context-embedded proficiency refers to learners' ability to reach their communicative targets in a meaningful context supported with metalinguistic cues like gestures and intonation. Context-reduced proficiency refers to the challenge learners have in an environment in which metalinguistic supports are very few. The example cases are reading a difficult passage and writing an essay. Context-embedded communication occurs in everyday face-to-face situations. However, communication in the classroom is generally context-reduced, so more language knowledge is required.

2.1.8. Text and Textuality

A text is an extract which links together and becomes united semantically, that is, in terms of meaning. It can be of any length (Halliday and Hasan, 1976). To be considered a text, language should have been produced with a communicative purpose such as explaining something or make other people do certain things. We can recognize a text even if we are unable to understand it. As an example, we can recognize a menu in a language that we cannot speak (Widdowson, 2007).

Text linguistics emerged when linguists started looking beyond the sentence in the late 1960s and early 1970s. (Beaugrande, 2011). In text linguistics, texts are classified according to their genres. The term *genre* comes from Latin 'genus' and means class or kind. Text classification dates back to Aristotle's *Poetics* in which epic, tragedy, and comedy were differentiated. Genres are determined by their purpose or function (Solin, 2009) such as fairy tales, news reports, and diaries (Östman and Virtanen, 2011).

Textuality is the measure by which a text is considered communicative (Mikhchi, 2011). It refers to the connectivity that a text is characterized by (Hanks, 1989). Beaugrande and Dressler (1981: 2) put forward "*seven standards of textuality*". These

are “cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, intertextuality.” Among these standards, *cohesion* and *coherence* are central to texts whereas the other standards are central to text users or receivers.

Cohesion and *coherence* are important terms in text linguistics. Cohesion is a semantic concept referring to the meaning relations within a text; that is, one piece in a text can only be interpreted by another. Cohesion is provided by meaning relations and reference, conjunctions, ellipsis, and substitution (Halliday and Hasan, 1976), which constitute grammatical cohesion (Cutting, 2002). Halliday and Hasan (1976: 329) call the relationship between a cohesive element and the element that it presupposes “a cohesive tie”, which is both a relational and directional concept. The direction can be anaphoric going before, which is more common or cataphoric going beyond. Depending on the distance between the cohesive element and its presupposition, the tie can be immediate, mediated, or remote. Lastly, there may be more than one cohesive tie within a sentence. Coherence is also “the quality of being meaningful and unified” (Cutting, 2002: 2). Knowing the language in which the text is written is not sufficient to understand it; one must also have some knowledge about the context in which it is placed. The text should be related to its context to be understood. Sometimes what the receiver understands is different from what the text producer has tried to express (Widdowson, 2007).

Intentionality represents the writer’s or the speaker’s attitude and aim while creating a text with cohesive ties. *Acceptability* refers to the receiver’s attitude towards the text. *Informativity* concerns how much of the knowledge in the text is expected or known and if the receivers are overloaded with too much new information. *Situationality* is related to the factors that provide the relevance of the text to the situation in which it occurs. Finally, *intertextuality* is about the need of referring to a previous text to comprehend the current text (Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981).

2.2. Discourse and Discourse Analysis

2.2.1. Discourse

The simplest definition of *discourse* is language in use. It is distinct from the abstract language to be studied and taught with rules, in that, it does not have to be perfect. In

other words, it can have grammatical mistakes. This distinction has continued since the time of Greek and Roman scholars who differentiated grammar dealing with linguistic rules and rhetoric which deal with what people actually do with words (Cook, 1989). A piece of discourse is considered well-formed not by looking at its grammatical structure but by interpreting who said what to whom, where, when, and with what purpose (McCarthy, 2001).

Discourse, which can be oral or written, is a combination of linguistic structures and communicative actions as the meaning of an utterance or sentence is collectively created (Hicks, 1995). Context, coherence, cohesion, and rhetorical structure are the components of discourse (Graesser, Gernsbacher, and Golman, 2003). Discourse is used by all people to make the social life possible (Grimshaw, 2003). Discourse is generally defined as “language beyond the sentence.” An isolated sentence may be ambiguous, but a sentence or an utterance in discourse context is hardly ever ambiguous (Graesser, Gernsbacher, and Golman, 2003). Therefore, discourse deals with longer pieces of writing and talk and how these long pieces unite in a complex and dynamic system (Larsen-Freeman and Cameron, 2008). It refers to what a speaker or writer means and what a speech or text refers to its hearers or readers as it is about transmitting a particular message to other people (Widdowson, 2007).

One can become a member of a culture by learning the discourse of that culture (Graesser, Gernsbacher, and Golman, 2003). Sociolinguistic factors control the nature of discourse in terms of form and function (Bachman, 1990). According to Widdowson (2007), discourse can be used even to impose a certain way of thinking in its broader sense, producing an ideological or political text.

2.2.2. Discourse Analysis

The term *discourse analysis* was coined by Harris in 1952. The study of what makes spoken and written discourse coherent is defined as being unified and meaningful, which is impossible to understand without referring to a context that consists of the participants, the situation, and the world knowledge. It is contrastive to sentence linguistics which studies isolated grammatical sentences out of context (Cook, 1989)

because it assumes that neither native speakers nor advanced learners of a language approach it consciously analyzing its rules (McCarthy and Carter, 1994). Discourse analysts systematically seek for regular patterns in everyday language use (Trappes-Lomax, 2004). There are two basic types of discourse: *Reciprocal* in which the presence of at least one receiver can affect the progress of the discourse like in face-to-face interaction, and *non-reciprocal* in which there is no interaction between the sender and the receiver. In face-to-face communication, *paralinguistic features* also play an important role. These are things like tone, stress, gestures, mimics, the quality of voice, accent, hesitation, and so on (Cook, 1989), as mentioned before.

Discourse analysis is particularly interested in the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used along with cultural effects. It analyses language “above the sentence” (McCarthy, 2000: 7). It starts with identifying the topics and subtopics before it arrives at analyzing single utterances (Chafe, 2008). It also makes a difference between grammatical forms and language functions emphasized by the Communicative Approach and interpreted by referring to participants, roles, and settings. There is no “one-to-one correspondence between grammatical form and communicative function (McCarthy, 2000: 7), so interpretation of grammatical forms depends on both linguistic factors such as intonation and situational factors with different conventions such as phone calls. Whereas there are fixed conventions in some situations like in the classroom due to power relations that determine the talk’s course, talk is less controlled when it occurs among equals. There is an asymmetrical relationship between the teacher and students as the teacher is the authority figure in class (Kansanen, 1999), and authority refers to power with legitimacy (Emerson, 1962). Lastly, implicitness and explicitness depend on the participants and the message being communicated (McCarthy, 2000).

Discourse analysis is the study of textual and conversational language. It is specifically concerned with how people manage to make sense of what they read and hear and how they can carry on a successful conversation which is actually a very complex activity as speakers usually communicate more than what they utter (Yule, 2010). It deals with how language is used among people both in written and spoken form. It describes “language in use” rather than formal aspects of language (Brown and Yule, 1983). According to Yule (2010), people can distinguish grammatical structures from

ungrammatical ones and coherent texts from incoherent ones, but they do not stop there. They also can make sense of ungrammatical forms and incoherent texts instead of rejecting them as ungrammatical or incoherent. They try to interpret the writer's or the speaker's intended meaning, which requires more than simple language knowledge. People also need to know how the conversation goes on, and discourse analysis is interested in how they can manage this. What is required for this includes the knowledge of cohesion (the existing connections within the text through cohesive ties, such as connectors) and coherence (people's ability to put things together by filling in the blanks) in the first place.

One of the study areas of discourse analysis is *discourse markers* whose contribution to the pragmatic meaning of an utterance and to the pragmatic competence of a language user cannot be denied (Muller, 2005). According to Muller (2005), the use of discourse markers helps language learners not only to attain more native-like performance as native speakers make use of these markers abundantly but also to avoid prejudice caused by being a foreigner.

Discourse markers (DMs) are defined as “sequentially dependent elements which bracket units of talk” (Schiffrin, 1987: 31) because they occur at the boundaries of units. These units can be sentences, utterances, propositions, speech acts, or intonation units. Alami (2015) emphasizes the fact that discourse markers exist in almost all languages, and they enable smooth conversation and signal the relationship among the participants. Schiffrin (1987) has suggested some criteria for an expression to be a discourse marker: Being removable from the sentence, usually being in the initial position, having some prosodic features such as stress, operating at different levels and planes of discourse. Many discourse markers such as conjunctions have meanings, and they both restrict the discourse and affect the overall meaning of discourse; however, their meanings may change according to the different discourse slots in which they occur because markers select and display structural relations between utterances. “Markers index the location of an utterance within its emerging local context” (Schiffrin, 1987: 315). Discourse markers are used in various planes of discourse: “exchange structures, action structures, idea structures, participation frameworks, and information states” (Schiffrin, 1987: 315). Markers with meanings function in the ideational level whereas those without meaning such as “oh” function in the non-

ideational level. Furthermore, conjunctions have grammatical functions as well, but their discourse functions do not necessarily correspond with their grammatical functions. According to Schifffrin (1987), all discourse markers have indexical functions and due to these specific functions, they contribute to coherence, but a single discourse marker may have various functions according to the slots they are used in. Markers are either proximal or distal, that is to say, they either point backward (proximal) or forward (distal) in the context or both to provide coherence. Alami (2015) also mentions some other functions of discourse markers which are filling in pauses and framing the conversation with turn-taking mechanisms and conveying speakers' or writers' feelings to hearers or readers.

2.2.3. Critical Discourse Analysis

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) started in Europe in the 1980s (Blummaert and Bulcaen, 2000). It is also called critical linguistics (CL) or critical discourse studies (CDS). It uses various methods and approaches (Wodak and Meyer, 2009). According to Rogers (2011), CDA tries to interpret the relationship between language and social issues. It studies political discourse, ideology, racism, economic discourse, advertisements, media, institutional language, education, and literacy (Blummaert and Bulcaen, 2000). It views language as a social and ideological phenomenon. "Discourses are always socially, politically, racially, economically loaded" (Rogers, 2011: 6). The schemata here are composed of sociopolitical beliefs and ideologies (Widdowson, 2007). CDA studies discourse from all dimensions from grammar to Pragmatics and from verbal to nonverbal elements like gestures (Van Dijk, 1995).

CDA also provides "an explanation of why and how discourses work (Rogers, 2011: 3). It deals with "the way social power, abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context" (Van Dijk, 2001: 349). It studies how language is used and abused to gain and exercise sociopolitical power. It also studies how texts are ideologically produced and biased around particular social beliefs by spokespersons or community representatives to persuade other people and control their opinions (Widdowson, 2007). The term '*critical*' here does not have a negative connotation. Rather, it means taking social action (Chilton et al., 2010). 'Critical' refers to a self-reflective research method which

does not exclude the researcher's own beliefs and values (Wodak, 1999). CDA is normative and explanatory in nature as it describes, evaluates, and explains current social realities (Fairclough, 2013). It is related to examining hidden power relations and hierarchical structures within discourse and revealing social inequities. The term '*critical*' is also linked to describing the relationship between linguistic forms and their functions, so CDA has a functional approach. Critical discourse analysts claim that certain forms with certain functions are more privileged in society than others. As an example, formal forms are preferred in professional meetings. The term '*critical*' is also associated with addressing social problems and trying to solve them by taking action (Rogers, 2011), so CDA is problem-oriented (Van Dijk, 1995; Wodak and Meyer, 2009).

2.2.4. Classroom Discourse Analysis

Classroom discourse analysis has become an essential concern in the field of linguistics. Classroom interaction which has two participants, the teacher, and the students, is highly different from a daily conversation in that it is targeted to teaching and learning (Strobelberger, 2012), that is, it is goal-directed (Wells, 1993), and it has peculiar turn-taking mechanisms (Shepard, 2010). Each turn is related to one another forming a piece of discourse that has coherence (Walsh, 2011). Turn-taking mechanisms are more fixed in classrooms where the roles are not equal. In the three-part classroom interaction which is called either IRE (initiation-response-evaluation) or IRF (initiation-response-follow-up/feedback) sequence which was first made known by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) who carried out the oldest classroom discourse analysis study in the world. In the IRE or IRF sequence, the teacher elicits a piece of information; a student provides a reply that is then further evaluated by the teacher either positively or negatively. This feedback or evaluation phase differentiates classroom discourse from everyday speech (Mehan, 1979a). IRF is an encouragement for students to respond as long as the answer is evaluative (Sunderland, 2001). The teacher always assesses the accuracy of the response and evaluates students' contribution to class (Walsh, 2011). 70 % of classroom discourse consists of this "triadic dialogue" cycle (Nassaji and Wells, 2000: 33) shaping the turn-taking mechanism. Positive feedback that comes right after the correct answer finishes the sequence leading to the next one. On the other hand, negative feedback which may or

may not directly follow the incorrect reply extends and continues the dialogic sequence and departs from the simple IRF cycle (Mehan, 1979a). In negative feedback, the teacher may directly provide the correct answer or use rising intonation to indicate incorrect replies (Strobelberger, 2012) giving learners a chance for *self-repair*. The teacher may also provide prompting or choice elicitation in incorrect replies (Mehan, 1979b). Feedback is a significant constituent of the three-part classroom interaction since learners can see if their replies are acceptable or not (Walsh, 2011). Similarly, when no reply is obtained, the teacher may repeat or simplify the question (Mehan, 1979a), increasing the percentage of teacher talk.

However, according to Hicks (1995: 70), classroom discourse does not always consist of this triadic dialogue. Sometimes monologue type of talk is observed in classrooms in the form of “narrative discourses” when students are asked to talk about personal experiences or give explanations. This is an extended type of talk without immediate response. Even if a response is given, the aim of it is not evaluation but clarification or extension. These monologues are considered developmentally beneficial for students.

The turn-taking mechanism in the classroom differs from everyday conversation in that it is the teacher that governs the procedure. The teacher may allocate the right to answer the question to a specific student, which is called “*personal solicit*”, either by telling the name or with a gesture or he/she may ask the question to the whole class, which is called “*general solicit*” (Strobelberger, 2012: 15). The questions asked by the teacher aim to monitor and assist learning and to assess how much students know about the topic and the system because they are mostly *display questions* whose answers are known by the teacher (Cazden, 2001). This kind of sequential dimension with unauthentic (closed) questions is mainly a cultural issue which ensures that the teacher is the ultimate source of knowledge in the traditional classroom in which teacher talk dominates since for every utterance from a learner, the teacher makes two contributions which are initiation and feedback (Walsh, 2011). Therefore, the interaction is hardly ever initiated by students, and even if it happens, it is usually discouraged by the teacher (Shepard, 2010). Moreover, it is observed in classrooms that the teacher also often repeats the utterances to reinforce true language usage as positive feedback and to make everything clear for the whole class as the authority

figure (Strobelberger, 2012) who practices his/her educational theory in the classroom (Wells, 1993).

In conclusion, it can be said that the hierarchical three-part classroom interaction (IRE or IRF) has both instructional and classroom managerial functions. However, if it is overused, the classroom discourse can become mechanical and monotonous (Walsh, 2011) as it contributes to teacher talk (Sunderland, 2001); however, sometimes being “uncommunicative” is necessary if the aim is making lengthy grammar explanations (Walsh, 2011: 55). Authentic interaction and conversation in class can break the IRF cycle and give some independence and freedom to students to learn and practice language in their own ways (Van Lier, 1996).

While discourse analysis deals with the ways in which language is used among people both in written and spoken form, classroom discourse analysis refers to the evaluation of the teacher and student outputs, which also provides information about the relationship between the teacher and students (Yoshida, 2008) who do not have equal roles. One of the issues that have been studied in this field is the ratio of the *teacher talk* which is a necessary feature of classroom discourse as it provides the input and controls the class. The conversation is owned by the teacher (Wardhaugh, 1998). As Walsh (2006) points out, the teacher controls all the interaction in class, gives feedback to learners and provides correction. All these facts cause the domination of teacher talk over student-talk. However, when the teacher talk dominates the student talk, students may not have the chance to contribute to the class (Putri, 2015).

Another factor that differentiates classroom discourse from everyday conversation according to Walsh (2006) is the fact that classroom discourse is generally based on question and answer patterns and the questions are usually asked by the teacher. Many of these questions are display questions, the answers of which are already known by the teacher. *Referential questions* that produce natural responses as the answers are unknown to the teacher are limited to discussion lessons. When a teacher asks a question to a single student, this process benefits the whole class rather than that particular student (Wardhaugh, 1998) as every student hears the answer and the feedback provided. Furthermore, teachers modify their speech in terms of complexity

and speed for learners to comprehend. In other words, they simplify the language they use, which is not common in everyday conversation (Walsh, 2006).

Seedhouse (1996) emphasizes that classroom conversation is never genuine and it cannot be due to various reasons: Classroom interaction is goal-oriented. It takes place in an institutionalized setting with participants of unequal status. Turn-taking and participation opportunities are restricted and conversations are not open-ended because of display questions, answers of which are known by teachers. Language is taught through language, so interaction is designed around some pedagogical principles. The language produced by learners is evaluated by the teacher (Seedhouse, 2009).

2.2.4.1 Feedback

Feedback provided by teachers or other students (peer-feedback) is an important factor for the success of the teaching and learning process, and it makes classroom discourse different from everyday language. It also has a role in increasing teacher talk. Learners can understand whether what they have said or written is right or wrong through feedback (Gass and Selinker, 2008) since feedback is the result of practice (Hattie and Timperley, 2007), so learners always have some expectations for feedback (Nunan, 2000). Feedback may focus on structure or meaning as sometimes meaning can be understood clearly, although the form is wrong or vice versa (Littlewood, 1981). It may be explicit or implicit with different effects on learning. In explicit feedback, the teacher clearly states that something is wrong. Implicit feedback is provided in the course of interaction (Gass and Selinker, 2008) without emphasizing that something went wrong. To exemplify, the teacher may provide the correct version while repeating the response. Feedback can also be positive or negative, and in this dichotomy, positive feedback in the forms of approval and praise is more effective as it increases motivation. When they give negative feedback, when they indicate that a particular response is wrong, teachers either repeat the utterance with a rise in intonation or they correct it (Nunan, 2000). On the other hand, formative feedback aims to change students' thinking and behaving patterns for better learning, and if it is given correctly and effectively, it improves learning (Shute, 2008).

Feedback should be linked to a learning context to be influential because it comes after instruction and should not constitute a threat to students' self-respect (Hattie and

Timperley, 2007). The aim of feedback is to make students able to see how well they progress and detect the areas they should improve (Goodwin, 2001). The two components of feedback are assessment and correction. Students learn about the success of their performance in assessment, and they are provided some particular information on their performance in correction. This can be done through explanation, giving alternatives, or elicitation. Correction should include information about what was right, what was wrong, and why it was wrong (Ur, 1996).

2.2.4.2. Scaffolding

Scaffolding is a term used first by Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976) for parental tutoring. It refers to the support provided by parents, teachers, or mentors to learners when they are trying to acquire a new skill (Maybin, Mercer, and Stierer, 1992). It is temporary as it is withdrawn once learners become autonomous just like the building structure where the metaphor comes from (Mariani, 1997; Gibbons, 2002; Hammond and Gibbons, 2005). It is then provided for acquiring other skills, so learners are challenged to go beyond their present abilities (Hammond and Gibbons, 2005). There must be a balance between the support and the challenge (Mariani, 1997). Scaffolding should be timely and adjusted to the needs of different students in a single classroom. Teachers assist learners in doing a task that they cannot do alone (Hammond and Gibbons, 2005). The task can be broken down into smaller steps that gradually become more difficult depending on the needs of the students (Mariani, 1997). The ultimate aim is to make learners able to do a similar task independently later on (Hammond and Gibbons, 2005). Scaffolding resembles to Vygotsky's *Zone of Proximal Development* (ZPD) in which a child moves from an actual development level to a potential level of development which is just beyond their present level with the help of a more knowledgeable peer or an adult (Vygotsky, 1980; Maybin, Mercer, and Stierer, 1992). This is relevant to the language education context as well because language development is a social process (Gibbons, 2003). Cooperation is used instead of competition, and students' self-confidence is promoted during scaffolding (Mariani, 1997). Like feedback, scaffolding also increases teacher talking time.

2.3. Conversation Analysis

Conversation is an action in which at least two people speak by taking turns, guaranteeing that only one person talks at a time and avoiding silence (Yule, 2010) to be understood by others during “back-and-forth interaction” (Drew, 2005: 100) and their utterances are affected by one another’s utterances (Cutting, 2002). Conversation is worth studying as it shapes our social lives, including politics and daily activities (Drew, 2005). Conversation analysis (CA), which is part of American tradition based on the studies of Harvey Sacks in the early 1960s (Drew, 2005), is studied under the title of discourse analysis. CA is connected to ethnomethodology which studies the codes and conventions governing every-day social activities and interactions, so CA searches for regular patterns in every-day talk with an empirical approach with audio or video recordings during natural occurrences. CA focuses on talk which is complicated as it is a linguistic, cognitive, and social activity. It is interactive and temporary (Gardner, 2004). It emphasizes the behavior of people who talk and recurring patterns, norms, and turn-taking (McCarthy, 2000) which are shared competencies within a culture (Drew, 2005). According to CA, interaction is shaped around context, and meaning is created by the interlocutors such as doctor-patient interaction (Walsh, 2011). CA can be described as “a science of social interaction” and it studies “all forms of talk-in-interaction” (Drew, 2005: 73) including telephone calls. It analyses all types of conversation from ordinary to institutional forms such as judicial, although ordinary talk is the fundamental basis of study (Drew, 2005). However, it should be kept in mind that even though the qualitative and naturalistic methodology of CA can be applied to more formal kinds of talk like interviews, CA makes use of just natural occurrences of interactions (Drew, 2005). In contrast to discourse analysis in which the position of linguistic concepts and terms are investigated in real talk (Cutting, 2002), within CA, natural talk is audio and/or video recorded and then transcribed and analyzed (Mazeland, 2006) to find out particular patterns in conversation such as ones used for changing the topic. These patterns are crucial as they provide meaningful, comprehensible, and coherent interaction (Drew, 2005), and they show that there is a systematic structure in conversation (Cutting, 2002). If conversation analysis is integrated into language teacher education programs, prospective teachers can become aware of teacher-student and student-student interactional patterns in classrooms and maximize language learning opportunities for

their students (Sert, 2010). As there may be a mismatch between teachers' beliefs and their actual performance in class, more training is needed to raise their awareness of their own interactional practices in class.

CA is also applied to speech act research under the title of *discursive pragmatics* which was a term proposed by Kasper (2006) combining discourse and Pragmatics. In addition to "social action" and "sequence organization", some of the key concepts to be studied in CA are "turns at talk", "turn-taking", and "turn design" (Drew, 2005: 79). Other basic notions of conversation analysis are adjacency pairs and repair (Sert and Seedhouse, 2011).

2.3.1. Turn-taking

As mentioned earlier, there must be at least two people for conversation to take place and there are some patterns and rules regarding conversation. When people fail to follow these patterns, they are considered rude or shy (Yule, 2010). One of these rules is turn-taking which means that the floor is not monopolized by one of the participants, but all participants take turns to speak (Wei-dong, 2007) and respond to previous turns (Drew, 2005). Turn-taking takes place both in face-to-face conversation and on the telephone and understanding it must be more complex than it is thought since people perform it successfully with ease (Wardhaugh, 1998).

Toleration for silence between the turns differs from culture to culture (Yule, 2010), but the silence usually lasts less than a second (Wardhaugh, 1998). According to Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson (1974), speakers change, and one party speaks at a time during an everyday conversation. Sometimes, overlapping speech occurs but only for a short time as one of the parties stops talking in this case. Turn order and turn size vary, and there are some turn allocation strategies: Either the present speaker yields the floor to the next speaker or the next speaker self-selects. Otherwise, the current speaker continues talking. In the situations where the next party self-selects, each party is obliged to listen carefully to one another to determine when to speak. These turn-taking strategies differ in classrooms to some extent as the talk is formal there. If the current speaker is the teacher, s/he may select a single student or continue talking. If the current speaker is a student, then the right to speak is given back to the teacher or the teacher self-selects. Otherwise, the same student continues talking (Mchoul, 1978).

An effectual turn-taking mechanism is governed either by some non-linguistic elements as well such as eye contact, body position, body movement, intonation, volume (Cook, 1989), and stress (Wardhaugh, 1998) or by “signaling a completion point”, such as asking a question (Yule, 2010: 146). The other participants should be “alert” if they want to take the next turn (Wardhaugh, 1998: 296). On the other hand, in formal ceremonies or discussions, turns are pre-allocated (Wardhaugh, 1998). Turns are generally short unless the context requires longer talking time such as telling a story (Levinson, 2016). One of the topics studied under the title of turn-taking is back-channeling (Ward et al., 2007).

2.3.2. Back-channeling

Back-channeling is the role that is played by a listener during a conversation (Shelly and Gonzalez, 2013) because “listening is not a passive activity but an active one” (Kobayashi, 1995: 151).

Verbal back-channeling is using words such as “yeah” and sounds like “hmm” by a listener while someone else is speaking to show interest, to approve what is being said (Yule, 2010), and showing understanding (Gass and Selinker, 2008), which is similar to giving feedback (Kobayashi, 1995). Verbal back-channels are also called “response tokens, reactive tokens, minimal responses, and continuers” (Ward et al., 2007) as their function is to keep “the conversation going” (Gass and Selinker, 2008: 313). Back-channels are italicized and seen in (1):

- (1)
- | | |
|-----------|--|
| A: | You have to go two blocks |
| B: | <i>Mm hm</i> |
| A: | Then turn left at the video store |
| B: | <i>Uh huh</i> |
| A: | It's a few stores down on the right side |
| B: | <i>I see</i> |
| A: | You can't miss it |
- (Cutrone, 2010: 32).

Non-verbal back-channeling, on the other hand, is nodding the head periodically to demonstrate attention. There are four back-channeling functions: “Continuers,

acknowledgments, newsmakers, and change of activity tokens” (Shelley and Gonzalez, 2013: 103). Back-channeling also has a function in turn-taking because back-channels in daily communication mean that the hearer does not intend to claim the floor (Yemenici, 2001). The use of back-channels is a part of pragmatic competence (Kabayashi, 1995).

Although back-channeling behavior is universal, it varies from culture to culture and from language to language, so language learners need guidance to acquire this behavior to use it appropriately. They may seem indifferent and rude unless they use back-channeling. Timing is especially important in using back-channels, and this timing is determined by some paralinguistic factors such as the intonation of the speaker indicating an invitation for back-channeling (Ward et al., 2007). There is even gender difference in back-channeling, and women are observed to use it more (Shelley and Gonzalez, 2013). According to Cutting (2002), back-channels also function socially, but they are not considered speech acts. They are used very often in many languages (Ward et al., 2007). Back-channeling is something known to be used by teachers quite frequently in class to indicate that they are listening to their students attentively.

2.3.3. Adjacency Pairs

During a conversation, “one turn is related in predictable ways to the previous and next turns. That’s called adjacency, being next to” (Wei-dong, 2007: 20). Adjacency pairs are pairs of utterances that mutually depend on each other like questions and answers; therefore, certain responses are expected for certain utterances in a conversation. To give some examples, if a person congratulates another person, that person thanks in return (McCarthy, 2000), and an invitation is either accepted or rejected (Wei-dong, 2007) and one has to choose from alternative second-pair parts based on the context and the nature of the relationship. On the other hand, for some adjacency pairs, the first pair-parts and the second pair-parts are identical as in greetings (McCarthy, 2000). Adjacency pairs consist of two turns by two different speakers (Gardner, 2004). Thanks to adjacency pairs, people can recognize when to take turns to speak and what kind of turns they need to produce (Widdowson, 2007). Adjacency pairs ensure continuity, exchange, and relevance with a chain effect in which one turn is followed by another one (Wardhaugh, 1998). Adjacency pairs can be seen in (2):

(2) **Shop assistant:** Good morning. Can I help you?

Customer: Good morning. I am looking for...

(Widdowson, 2007: 37)

Since adjacency pairs are made up of first and second parts, when the first part is uttered, an expectation for a specific second part occurs, which is called as “*preference structure*” (Cutting, 2002: 30). According to Taguchi and Roever (2017), adjacency pairs have preferred and dispreferred first and second parts. To illustrate, when people receive an offer (first part), they have two options. If they accept the offer (preferred second part), they are direct; however, they feel the need to explain themselves if they reject it (dispreferred second part). Similarly, when they offer something (preferred first part), they ask directly whereas when they intend to make a request (dispreferred first part), they employ some strategies preceding it, such as apologizing.

2.3.4. Repair

When people communicate, it is natural to have some problems related to hearing, talking, and understanding (Sidnell, 2010), which cause communication breakdowns (Dingemanse et al., 2015). Therefore, some turns in conversation need *repair* as somebody has said something wrong or inappropriate and does not want to get into interactional trouble like being misunderstood (Taguchi and Roever, 2017) although in many such cases the reason for repair cannot be detected (Benjamin and Mazeland, 2012). The problem can be just a slip of the tongue or a more serious mistake (Hayashi, Raymond, and Sidnell (2013). Repair “refers to an organized set of practices through which participants in conversation are able to address and potentially resolve such problems” (Sidnell, 2010: 110). It is seen in many different languages all around the world (Dingemanse et al., 2015). Repair has two parties: Speaker (self) and hearer (other) (Benjamin and Mazeland, 2012). In the case of communication breakdowns, either speakers correct themselves, which is called *self-repair* or listeners correct them, called *other-repair* (Sidnell, 2010; Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks, 1977). Self-repair is more common than other-repair (Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks, 1977). Also, sometimes the hearer indicates a problem and the speaker has to repair the original

message, which is called *other-initiated repair* (Dingamense et al., 2015). In that case, listeners may give some cues to the speaker by repeating back or not responding (Weidong, 2007), which is also seen a lot in conversations as in (3).

- (3) **I:** they (.) with you? ((gestures handing something))
 check *trouble source (self)*
 V: check? *repair initiation (other)*
 I: money? *repair (self)*
 K: ah:.
 V: money

(Hellermann, 2009: 115).

Therefore, repairs can also be seen as *adjacency pairs* (Gardner, 2004). Repair has two phases: *Repair initiation and repair proper*. Both phases can be realized by the speaker, or repair initiation can be performed by the hearer and repair proper can be performed by the speaker (Benjamin and Mazeland, 2012). However, despite the efforts, repair is not always successful and sometimes failure can be seen in the process (Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks, 1977).

2.3.5. Code-switching

Code-switching is another notion studied under the title of conversation analysis. When a competent person in two or more languages uses these different varieties within a single exchange, it is called *code-switching* (Myers-Scotton, 2001), so it is seen in bilingual or multilingual settings, and it is socially motivated (Myers-Scotton, 1993).

An example from the database of the present study can be seen in (4):

- (4) **T:** You diye sorup he she olarak yazıcaz

As seen in the above example, people sometimes even mix codes in a single utterance (Wardhaugh, 1998). This is called intra-sentential code-switching. If the codes are mixed outside the sentence, it is inter-sentential code-switching. Extra-sentential code-switching is adding some tag elements like “*isn’t it*” to a sentence in another language (Koban, 2013).

According to Woolard (2004), people tend to make their language choices based on some factors: The identity of the addressee, the setting, the topic, or a combination of these. If the language changes based on the situation, it is called *situational code-switching*, whereas it is *metaphorical code-switching* if the change is based on the topic. Some of the situations are strictly determined, such as religious ceremonies, but in other situations, the change from one language to another may be spontaneous and subconscious (Wardhaugh, 1998). Code-switching is considered “systematic, skilled, and socially meaningful” (Woolard, 2004: 74). In code-switching, the languages may have equal roles, or they may have “superordinate and subordinate relationship (Jacobson, 2001: 60), and in some cases using a particular language may be a sign of solidarity (Wardhaugh, 1998).

Myers-Scotton’s Matrix Language Frame Model suggests that one of the languages used in code-switching is dominant, and it is called the *Matrix Language* (ML). It is the language the speaker speaks more proficiently. The other language which is not dominant is called the *Embedded Language* (EL) (Hamers and Blanc, 2000). Code-switching is also a communication strategy that makes up for the lack of competence which hinders the effective transmission of ideas (Gass and Selinker, 2008); therefore, it is commonly used in foreign language classes as learners try to solve communication problems and teachers want to help them understand and speak. Task complexity and task difficulty affect learners’ task production, and learners may resort to their mother tongues more if they find the task difficult or complex (Robinson, 2001). Code-switching has various functions in the classroom like attracting attention, correction, and clarification on the side of teachers (Moore, 2002). Students perform code-switching to compensate for language deficiency, fill in the gaps while talking so that they can hold the floor, to clarify meaning, and to avoid misunderstandings (Sert, 2005). As long as it is used in a balanced way, the use of the mother tongue is a beneficial strategy to support learning (Carless, 2008).

2.3.6. Conversation Principles

2.3.6.1. Politeness

One of the conversation principles is politeness. When we communicate, we choose not only what to say but also how to say it (Wardhaugh, 1998). Although politeness

can generally be defined as being nice to others, linguistic politeness is related to the concept of “*face*” defined as someone’s positive self-image within a community s/he has contact with (Goffman, 1967). The aim of politeness is not to threaten the other person’s face (Yule, 2010: 135). According to Brown and Levinson (1987: 15), the amount of politeness to save face depends on three sociological factors: “Power relations, social distance, and the ranking of imposition. To illustrate, less politeness is required when the interlocutors are familiar and of equal rank (Mirzaei, Roohani, and Esmaeili, 2012) or if you have power over some other people, you can use imperatives without threatening their faces (Yule, 2010). Agreement is preferred over disagreement, self-repair over other-repair, and acceptance of offer over rejection because the unfavorable options are face-threatening (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

Politeness and speech act studies usually go hand in hand as politeness markers have an illocutionary force behind which is being less face-threatening (Doğançay-Aktuna and Kamışlı, 2001). As an example, some level of politeness is necessary for requests which are the most apparent kind of face-threatening speech acts as they force the hearer to do something for the sake of the speaker (Ardissono, Boella, and Lesmo, 1999). There are some *mitigating devices* to minimize this threat to the face in requests. These devices are divided into two categories: Internal and external. Internal ones are used within the request itself, whereas external ones are used in the surrounding context. The internal mitigating devices are *openers*, *softeners*, and *fillers*. Openers are used to introduce the request (*Would you mind closing the door?*). Softeners soften the imposition within the request (*Can we talk for a minute?*). Fillers fill in the gaps in the conversation. These are *hesitators*, such as ‘erm’; *cajolers* like ‘I mean’; *appealers*, such as ‘Ok?’; and *attention gatherers* like ‘excuse me’. External mitigating devices have five subcategories: *preparators*, *grounders*, *disarmers*, *expanders*, and promises of rewards. Preparators prepare the hearer for the upcoming request (*I have to ask a few questions to you.*). Grounders explain the reasons behind the request (*Can you come to my office? I would like to have coffee and chat with you.*). Disarmers are used for avoiding a possible refusal (*I would like a copy of that if you don’t mind.*). Expanders repeat the request to show uncertainty (*Shall we eat dinner outside? Can you meet me at 8 o’clock at the restaurant?*) Promises of rewards are used to make the request successful (*Can you buy me a macchiato on your way to the office? I will pay*

you.)). In addition to these, 'please' is also considered a mitigating device (Can you turn the volume up, *please?*). It is vitally important to teach these devices to language learners so that they can make pragmatically proper requests for successful communication (Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor, 2008).

Politeness strategies and speech acts in different cultures are some of the elements that must be taught explicitly (Bouton, 1996). Acceptable language to show politeness varies from culture to culture as some cultures promote directness while others tend to value indirectness (Yule, 2010). Leech (1983) also states that politeness is not symmetrical in that what is polite for somebody may be impolite for somebody else. He argues that by following six maxims the level of politeness can be increased. According to the *tact maxim* and *generosity maxim*, cost to the hearer should be minimized while benefit to the hearer should be maximized; on the contrary, benefit to the speaker has to be minimized, but cost to the speaker has to be maximized. Secondly, *the approbation maxim* and *the modesty maxim* assert that speakers have to minimize praise to themselves and dispraise to the hearers maximizing dispraise to themselves and praise to the hearers. Finally, *the agreement maxim* and *the sympathy maxim* emphasize that agreement and sympathy between parties must be maximized, whereas disagreement and antipathy must be minimized.

Goffman (1967) suggests two related terms, *a negative face* and *a positive face*, but negative does not have an unfavorable meaning. A negative face is the demand for independence and freedom, whereas positive face is the wish for belonging to a community; therefore, a face-saving act towards somebody's negative face will acknowledge the burden ('Sorry to disturb you.'), and a face-saving act towards somebody's positive face will attract attention to unity ('We are all in this together.') (Yule, 2010).

According to Lakoff (1977: 82), there are two rules of pragmatic competence: Being clear and being polite. One can easily be clear and polite at the same time, but obviously, "it is hot in here" is more difficult to understand than "open the window" because of its indirectness. Therefore, things may sometimes get complex when we try to be polite since polite expressions are indirect like in the case of using passive voice. This is the point where Pragmatics is incorporated into Linguistics. According to

Leech (2005: 8), indirectness does not automatically bring politeness, but it often does. Indirectness violates Grice's maxims (Please refer to Section 2.3.6.2) because it makes the sentence or utterance less clear, less informative, less truthful, and less relevant, like in the case of saying "I wonder if you mind carrying this tray" instead of "carry this tray." Brown and Levinson (1982) state that in Linguistic Pragmatics, what is said and what is implicated do not match, and much of this mismatch is due to politeness. This is quite natural if we think language has social functions.

2.3.6.2. The Cooperative Principle

The cooperative principle is a principle of conversation proposed by Paul Grice (1989) who differentiates meaning and saying. He aims to show the patterns in interaction and discover the mechanism of generating and understanding implicit meaning which has a calculable relationship with conventional meaning (Davies, 2000). It means that participants will make "conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged" (Grice, 1989: 26) as they have common goals (Wardhaugh, 1998). According to this principle, the speaker or writer is responsible for effective communication (Wales, 1997). Grice divides this cooperative principle into four categories named *quantity, quality, relation, and manner*. Quantity is about the amount of provided information. Grice identifies two maxims related to quantity and says that the contribution should neither be more nor less informative than is required. Quality is related to the truth value of the given information. Grice also determines two maxims for the category of quality and states that people should not say something if they believe it is false or for which they lack enough evidence (Grice, 1989). People can use hedges if they are not sure about what they are saying. *Hedges* are the words or phrases that people use to indicate that they do not have sufficient or reliable information. These include "may, could, sort of, kind of, as far as I know", etc. (Yule, 2010: 148). There is only one maxim for the category of relation, and that is being relevant. Finally, manner is related to how to say things, and there are four maxims under the category of manner, which are avoiding obscurity and ambiguity; being brief and orderly (Grice, 1989). These principles limit what can be said by speakers and what can be inferred by listeners (Warhaugh, 1998). Through these maxims, language

is used rationally to achieve some goals (Levinson, 1979) like in the case of speech acts.

2.4. Speech Acts

2.4.1. Speech Act Theory

Speech is the use of language in spoken and written interaction with a communicative purpose. The notion of speech acts is based on the theory that people also perform actions such as requesting, commanding, or informing through their utterances under the circumstances called *speech events* (Yule, 1996), such as *meetings* and *interviews* which involve turn-taking mechanism as well (Widdowson, 2007). These actions are part of the meaning of the utterances (Wardhaugh, 1998). Austin (1962) calls these *performative utterances* since people not only say things but also do them. They cannot have truth or falsity conditions in themselves; only their having been done can be true or false (Wardhaugh, 1998).

What is said and how it is said vary greatly in different circumstances (Yule, 2010). An appropriate speech act depends on various factors, such as age, gender, familiarity, and status (Richards, 1985). Speech acts have a cultural dimension, which means they vary from culture to culture (Cutting, 2002). Byon (2004), studied American learners' production of requests in Korean in terms of power and culture as social factors and detected some differences such as more polite and longer forms that reflected cultural differences. Therefore, speech acts are related to communicative competence rather than linguistic or grammatical.

Speech situations consist of various elements: Addressers, addressees, the context, goal(s), speech act, utterance (Leech, 1983). The context is also multidimensional as it comprises of physical and social settings plus the shared knowledge between the addresser and the addressee(s) (Leech, 1983) since people in a linguistic community naturally share world experiences and some knowledge which is non-linguistic (Yule, 1996). This takes us to the term *language community* which can be defined as a group of people who use the same language and have more or less the same attitude towards that language such as Spanish (Halliday, McIntosh, and Stevens, 1966). Bloomfield (2012) names it as *speech community*. In a speech community, children start

comprehending speech acts around the age of three (Rakocyz and Tomasello, 2009). The intention is understood based on the speakers' and hearers' contextual and mutual beliefs (Bach and Harnish, 1979). On the other hand, Corder (1977) adds the *topic* and the *message* to these factors.

“It is crucial to understand that speech acts occur within a two-way discourse and that the interpretation and negotiation of speech-act force depend on the discourse or transaction” (Richards and Schmidt, 1985: 102). On the other hand, most speech acts have regular patterns such as greetings and only involve choosing one from various strategies (Ishihara and Cohen, 2010).

According to Austin (1962), there are three kinds of speech acts: *Locutionary*, *illocutionary*, and *perlocutionary*. The locutionary act is the utterance itself, whereas the illocutionary act is the intended meaning behind the utterance. The perlocutionary act, on the other hand, is the effect of the utterance on the hearer(s). In other words, speech acts perform an action. Therefore, an utterance does not have only a literal (locutionary) meaning, but they also have an intended (illocutionary) meaning, and an effect on the hearer (perlocutionary force) (Malenab-Temporal, 2018: 47). Out of these three different levels of Speech Act Theory, *illocutionary* is the focus of the researches” (Yi-xuan, 2016).

Table 1. Austin's Categorization of Speech Acts or Performatives (1962)

Austin's Speech Act (Performative) Categories	Functions	Illocutionary Acts (Speech Acts)
<i>Verdictives</i>	delivering a finding	understand, interpret, assess
<i>Exercitives</i>	giving a decision	appoint, degrade, demote
<i>Commissives</i>	committing the speaker to perform a certain action	promise, plan, intend
<i>Behabitives</i>	expressing attitudes	apologize, thank, compliment

<i>Expositives</i>	conducting arguments	repeat, mention, quote
--------------------	----------------------	------------------------

As shown in Table 1, Austin (1962) classifies speech acts into five categories: *Verdictives* which deliver a finding such as ‘understand, interpret, and assess’; *exercitives* that give a decision like ‘appoint, degrade, and demote’; *commissives* which commit the speaker to perform a certain action, i.e. ‘promise, plan, and intend’; *behabitives* that express attitudes such as ‘apologize, thank, and compliment’; and finally, *expositives* which conduct arguments like ‘repeat, mention, and quote’.

Various studies on illocutionary acts, being the focus of the theory, can be found in literature. The most remarkable theory is Searle’s classification of illocutionary acts which he considers to be “the basic unit in the linguistic communication of humans” (Yi-xuan, 2016: 516). The theoretical background of this study is also based on Searle’s classification.

Table 2. Searle’s Taxonomy of Speech Acts (1969, 1976)

Searle’s Speech Act Categories	Functions	Illocutionary Acts (Speech Acts)
<i>Assertives</i>	committing the speaker to something being the case	suggest, boast, conclude
<i>Directives</i>	making the hearer(s) do something	order, request
<i>Commissives</i>	committing the speaker to performing a future act	promise, plan, oppose
<i>Expressives</i>	expressing the feelings of the speaker	thank, welcome, apologize
<i>Declarations</i>	changing the state of the world	fire, declare

As seen in Table 2, Searle (1969, 1976) creates a new taxonomy in which there are also five categories of illocutionary speech acts. The first category consists of *assertives* such as ‘suggesting, boasting, and concluding’ which commit the speaker to something being the case. The second category includes *directives* like ‘ordering, and requesting’ that make the hearer(s) do something. The third category is named as *commissives* such as ‘promising, planning, and opposing’ which commit the speaker to performing a future action. The fourth category is made up of *expressives* which express the feelings of the speaker. Some examples of these are ‘thanking, welcoming, and apologizing’. The last category is composed of *declarations* as they change the state of the world. ‘Fire, and declare’ are examples for this category. Therefore, Searle changed almost all the names for categories leaving only the *commissives* the same. Some of the illocutionary acts for the speech act categories above can be exemplified as in (5-17):

Assertives:

- | | | |
|-----|---|------------|
| (5) | Let’s go for a walk. | (suggest) |
| (6) | I graduated from two universities. | (boast) |
| (7) | In short, the system needs further.
improvements | (conclude) |

Directives:

- | | | |
|-----|--|-----------|
| (8) | Don’t speak loudly! | (order) |
| (9) | Could you tell me when the next?
train leaves | (request) |

Commissives:

- | | | |
|------|---|-----------|
| (10) | I will never do it again. | (promise) |
| (11) | I am going to finish the project next week. | (plan) |
| (12) | I don’t agree with you | (oppose) |

Expressives:

- | | | |
|------|----------------------------------|-------------|
| (13) | Thank you for coming here today. | (thank) |
| (14) | I’m so sorry for being late. | (apologize) |
| (15) | Welcome to the class. | (welcome) |

Declarations:

- (16) Your employment has been terminated. (fire)
(17) I now pronounce you husband and wife. (declare)

According to Schmidt and Richards (1980), speech act theory contributes to language learning research by classifying the aspects of communicative competence. It emphasizes communicative competence more than linguistic competence and clarifies how people acquire their first and second languages. Therefore, how speech act routines are acquired has gained importance in language learning studies. Cohen (2005) suggests taxonomy of conscious and semi-conscious *language learning strategies* for learning and performing speech acts in L2. These strategies, which Joan Rubin originated in 1975, are *cognitive strategies* for identifying, categorizing, practicing, and memorizing; *metacognitive strategies* for planning, measuring, and evaluating; *affective strategies* for increasing self-motivation and modifying attitudes and feelings about learning a foreign language; and *social strategies* for enhancing learning in cooperation and collaboration. Once the speech acts are acquired, the need for using them emerges. At this point, Cohen also suggests language use strategies for utilizing the already accessible language. These strategies are *retrieval strategies* to remember information; *rehearsal strategies* to practice; *communication strategies* to avoid problems while conversing and filling in the gaps while talking; and *cover strategies* not to look silly, keep the conversation going, and give appropriate reactions. It is quite natural that language learning and language use strategies overlap because what starts as a learning strategy can easily become a use strategy later on. There are significant differences in learners' use of these strategies. There are high and low pragmatic performers and high pragmatic performers tend to use more strategies in all language learning strategy categories (Tajeddin and Malmir, 2015). Therefore, these strategies must be taught to enhance interlanguage pragmatic development, specifically in the use of speech acts (Cohen, 2005; Tajeddin and Malmir, 2015).

2.4.2. Direct and Indirect Speech Acts

Another classification in Speech Act Theory is the classification in relation to their level of *directness*. Speech acts can be direct or indirect. People usually say something and they mean what they say to produce a particular illocutionary effect in the

hearer(s). These are direct speech acts (Searle, 1975). If we use a certain grammatical structure with a specific function, such as a question with a completely different function like request, this is called an *indirect speech act* (Yule, 2010). Sometimes the message is not conveyed directly as it is not appropriate or polite (Ishihara and Cohen, 2010). Some actions like requests are considered more polite if they are expressed in an indirect way (Yule, 2010). People make use of them not to offend their hearers (Ardissono, Boella, and Lesmo, 1999). Metaphor, irony, insinuations, and hints are examples of indirect speech acts (Searle, 1975).

Indirect speech acts are preferred over direct speech acts in social situations to be more polite and more formal and because of the social distance and power relations among the speakers. To exemplify, interrogatives are chosen instead of imperatives in such cases (Cutting, 2002). As another example, the connection between requests and power is obvious as only individuals in power can request others to do things (Cutting, 2002).

Speakers mean more than what they say in indirect speech acts. As an example, an utterance can mean a statement and a request at the same time like ‘I want you to do it’ (Searle, 1975: 59). The speaker’s tone of voice, context, linguistic knowledge, world knowledge, and conversational conventions help the hearer(s) recognize the implication in indirect speech acts (Allan, 1997b). Therefore, hearers have both linguistic and nonlinguistic clues along with logic and inference skills to arrive at the intended meaning (Searle, 1975). Clark (1979) focuses on how listeners decide if they should take the utterance directly or indirectly. He states that linguistic features of the utterance and the listeners’ expectations play a key role. Consequently, knowing a language is not enough. Knowing how to *use* it is equally important (Allan 1997b).

2.4.3. Felicity Conditions

Austin (1962) proposes some *felicity conditions* for the success of these performative utterances. Speech acts are evaluated according to these rules (Sbisà, 2002), although they cannot be easily specified (Levinson, 2017). These are *conventionality*, *actuality*, and *intentionality*. Firstly, there must be a “*conventional procedure*” in which what will be said by whom, and the necessary conditions are to be determined. The speaker and the hearer should share some linguistic conventions and utter words accordingly in the presence of appropriate people and in appropriate circumstances. Secondly, this

procedure must be conducted totally and accurately by all parties, which is *actuality*. Finally, all parties should have the required feelings, thoughts, and intentions to conduct the procedure. The speaker should mean what he or she says and should take responsibility of it in a sincere and real way. This is *intentionality* (Oishi, 2006). For example, the speech act of promise will be felicitous if the speaker means it, but it is infelicitous if the speaker does not intend to keep the promise. An illocutionary speech act can be felicitous only if all the felicity conditions specified in its definitions are satisfied (Allan, 1997a).

Searle (1969) later elaborates on felicity conditions. He distinguishes two kinds of rules: Regulative rules and constitutive rules. Regulative rules relate to a pre-existing activity or an activity which is independent of the rules. Rules of etiquette which govern social relations belong to this category, and they are generally in the imperative form. Constitutive rules regulate the activities themselves. Rules for sports games are in this category. While pre-existing activities do not depend on rules, activities do. Therefore, felicity conditions are constitutive rules. Searle calls them conditions and divides them into categories of *input* and *output*. The conditions for understanding are input, whereas conditions for speaking are output. This means that the speaker and hearer(s) should be able to speak a common language without any physical disabilities like deafness. The conditions are not always independent. They are sometimes interdependent. Searle names the speech acts that do not satisfy the conditions *defective*, meaning the same as Austin's *infelicitous*. These conditions are *preparatory condition*, *sincerity condition*, *essential condition*, *propositional content*. To exemplify, if a person asks a question, this shows that the speaker does not know the answer, and the hearer probably will not give the answer unless s/he is asked. These are preparatory conditions. It also shows that the speaker wants to know the answer. This is the sincerity condition. Finally, it means that the speaker believes that the hearer may know the answer. This is the essential condition (Pratt, 1978). Propositional content concentrates on the special qualities of a type of the illocutionary act like promising apart from the rest of the speech act (Searle, 1969). By focusing on the distinction between form and meaning and emphasizing the function of a linguistic choice, the Speech Act Theory has an important role in linguistics. Speech acts are

thought to provide learners with means to acquire L2 successfully (Malenab-Temporal, 2018).



CHAPTER III

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. Research on the Use of Speech Acts

There are some speech act studies in different fields such as law. As an example, Trosborg (1991) investigated the legal speech acts in English Contract Law and found that directives are typical of the language of law. When she compared directives in the language of law with directives in everyday English, she concluded that the level of directness differs in two. Whereas direct strategies predominate in English Contract Law, indirect strategies are preferable in everyday English.

Speech acts are also studied in (social) media. Qadir and Riloff (2011) classified sentences as speech acts in message board posts in which writers perform speech acts for readers in terms of four different classes -commissives, directives, expressives, and representatives- following Searle's taxonomy and concluded that directive and expressive speech act sentences dominated the posts whereas it was difficult to identify

representative and commissive speech acts even though commissive acts could be enhanced by adding some lexical, syntactical, and semantic properties. Grundlingh (2018) explores memes which are commonly used on the internet and argues that the speech act theory could be applied to memes as they are a type of non-verbal communication. She claims that memes can be speech acts as they give messages that are understood by their receivers. Memes may be only images or contain texts like quotes. Although they are mostly jokes, they can transmit crucial information or ideas. As in speech acts, they have a context, and the sender has an intention while sharing them, so they have an illocutionary force as well.

There are also several speech act studies on screen. To exemplify, Istiqomah (2013) analyzed the speech act of anger in the film entitled 'Something the Lord Made' and found that most American speakers use directives in the form of questions, commands, prohibits, and requests to express their anger. The other common speech act types for expressing anger are representatives in the form of explanations, claims, and declarations.

Speech acts are further studied in the sayings of celebrities. As an example, Nemer (2015) investigated and categorized the speech act use of four celebrities on Twitter: Oprah Winfrey, Shaquille O'Neal, Britney Spears, and Chris Colfer. He concluded that Twitter is viewed as an online social platform by celebrities to communicate with many different sorts of people, such as fans, friends, family members, and other famous people and that celebrities use many different kinds of speech acts while interacting with those different people.

There are various speech act studies in business and advertisement. Simon and Dejica-Cartis (2015) analyzed and classified speech acts in written advertisements published in popular magazines and newspapers and found that advertisers preferred primarily the speech acts of information, direction, and assertion and secondarily speech act of persuasion. However, they did not offer any evidence to support them.

Speech acts are commonly studied in politics. To exemplify, Johnston (2005) argues that speech acts can be means of nonviolent opposition against authoritarian regimes where the opposition talks a lot as a response to the authority. Altikriti (2016) argues that the role of speech acts is crucial in politics as persuasion is the key factor in

politicians' speeches. She analyzed three chosen political speeches of Barack Obama in terms of persuasion and concluded that he used constative speech acts more than any other speech acts when he aimed to persuade and affect his audience. As another example, Dylgjeri (2017) also analyzed the winning political speech of Edi Rama after the Albanian general elections in June 2013 in terms of the speech acts used and categorized these acts. She found that mostly commissive speech acts were used as the speech was based on expectations and hopes for the future. Other speech act types observed were assertive and expressive type as he thanked people for having elected him, showed enthusiasm, and promised to fulfill the expectations of the society.

3.2. Speech Act Studies in Languages Other than English

Recently, various speech act studies have been carried out in general and educational contexts in languages other than English since every culture has its own conversational style (Mills, 1992). Blum-Kulka (1980) examined the speech act performance of English-speaking learners of Hebrew in comparison with the performance of native speakers of Hebrew and English. The results of the study proved that language learners differ from native speakers in their use of speech acts on three levels of acceptability: Social acceptability (less directness), linguistic acceptability (lack of idiomatic forms), and pragmatic acceptability (shifted illocutionary force). Also, it was found that learners used different strategies from native speakers.

Mills (1992) investigated Russian requests in terms of indirectness. She concluded that colloquial Russian differs from English in terms of indirect request strategies. She claims that Russian syntax and semantics provide a greater variety for indirect forms. Politeness level which is intrinsic in directness is culture and language specific, so people from other nations must acknowledge these culture-specific forms and strategies.

Koike (1993) studied request speech act performance of adult native speakers of English who were learning Spanish at the beginner level. She found that although adult learners can easily recognize speech acts while listening and try to use them with politeness strategies, they can apply pragmatic rules themselves only after they start

feeling confident in applying grammatical rules. However, there is interlanguage factor affecting the actual performance.

Byon (2004) investigated how American learners of Korean performed the speech act of request in 12 different situations with a Discourse Completion Task. Their performance was compared to Korean native speakers' performance. Also, American English native speakers provided data about cultural norms so that the researcher could see if the deviations from target language forms were due to their mother tongue. The results of the study revealed the L1 transfer effect because the forms used by American learners of Korean followed those of American native speakers. In addition, Korean learners used more words and varied forms than Korean native speakers.

Felix-Brasdefer (2005) examined indirectness and politeness in Mexican request speech acts in formal and informal role-plays. The participants were Mexican university students. It was found that preparators were the most commonly used mitigating device in formal situations involving power relations and distance (Please refer to Section 2.3.6.1). Also, indirect strategies were observed to increase the level of politeness and to be used in formal situations. Lastly, direct strategies were used in situations in which interlocutors had a close relationship, which should not be considered impolite but a sign of solidarity.

Beckwith and Dewaele (2008) examined the development of apologies by high-intermediate level English native speakers learning or using Japanese as a second language. They compared learners who had been staying in Japan for a long time and who had been learning Japanese only in the UK. They found that spending time in the target language community enhances pragmatic development as negative pragmatic transfer is lessened in this way. The strategies used by both groups did not differ and the pragmatic development was non-linear. The learners did not develop towards target language norms but away from it. The researchers explain this tendency with negative transfer, task complexity, lack of negative feedback, and lack of positive transfer strategies.

Morkus (2009) investigated the use of the refusal speech act in Egyptian Arabic by intermediate and advanced level American learners of Arabic as a foreign language in comparison with native Egyptian Arabic speakers and native speakers of American

English. Although similarities were detected between Egyptian Arabic and American English, the learners lacked positive pragmatic transfer. Americans used more direct strategies than the Egyptians, so there was evidence of negative pragmatic transfer from L1. Americans' most commonly used indirect strategies were the statement of regret and gratitude/appreciation and they used these more than Egyptians. A great deal of religious reference was found in the speech of Egyptians and also they provided more family-related reasons for their refusals.

3.3. Speech Act Studies in EFL Context

In the classroom, typically, teachers and students come together to accomplish the particular goal of teaching and learning (Garton, 2012). They concentrate on usage to teach and learn the rules of language, which makes the classroom language quite unnatural (Widdowson, 1978). The interaction is teacher-fronted, which usually limits the contribution of learners (Garton, 2012).

3.3.1. Speech Act Studies in the World

There are many studies carried out in the world concerning the use of speech acts in EFL classes. In a study in which 15 advanced level EFL learners were given six speech act situations (two apologies, two complaints, and two requests) and were supposed to perform role plays with a native speaker, Cohen and Olshtain (1993) found that the learners planned their utterances most of the time in two or three different languages using various strategies and in the meantime, they did not pay attention to grammar or pronunciation. According to their styles, they were divided into four groups: *Metacognizers* who have had high metacognitive awareness (being aware of how a person thinks), *thinkers* who continuously monitored their output, *avoiders* who gave up in case of incapability, and *pragmatists* who used some compensation strategies.

In their study with three groups of university students [two English-speaking (British and American) and one Hebrew-speaking], Olshtain and Weinbach (1993) examined complaint speech act with a reaction elicitation questionnaire and found that social and situational factors affect the speech act behavior and that learners of English used more

words and a greater variety of strategies (softeners, intensifiers) than native speakers as complaint is a face-threatening act.

In a thesis study carried with Vietnamese learners of English, Tam (2005) investigated the formulation of requests in comparison with Australian native speakers. The findings demonstrated that learners were too direct because of negative pragmatic transfer from their L1, which was sometimes caused by similar structures in L1 and L2. Also, it was obvious that learners lacked pragmatic competence. In the end, their failure to use indirect strategies made them sound impolite.

Yoshida (2008) examined the classroom discourse during a single private class hour with a teacher and a student in Japan in terms of the functions of five types of speech acts: Declarative, directive, representative, commissive, and expressive. She found that the teacher used different types of speech acts with different functions. She used declarative speech acts for starting a new topic; directive speech acts for requests, feedback, and correction; representative speech acts for expressing grammar rules; commissive speech acts for promises, and finally expressive speech acts for the expression of feelings such as surprise.

Allami and Naeimi (2011) compared Persian and American speakers in their performance of refusal speech acts in English in terms of proficiency level, the status of interlocutors, and semantic formulas they use. They found that speech acts differ across cultures, so learners have difficulties due to lack of socio-pragmatic knowledge and negative transfer from their L1. Therefore, instruction of pragmatics should be implemented in class focusing on these differences so that learners will not face any misunderstandings.

Mirzaei, Roohani, and Esmaeili (2012) compared the production of three speech acts, apology, requests, and refusals, by American native speakers and Iranian EFL learners with a written Discourse Completion Test. Speech acts were examined from socio-pragmatic and pragma-linguistic aspects. The Americans became more direct than Iranian learners since they used more formulaic strategies that Iranian learners lacked. Furthermore, all participants used mitigating devices (Please refer to Section 2.3.6.1) not to offend the hearer(s). The results indicated a close relationship between socio-

pragmatic values and the forms and strategies used by learners on the pragma-linguistic level.

Zayed (2014) searched speech act practice of Jordanian teachers and students in the classroom. His focus was on five different speech acts: Apology, compliment, greeting, request, and thanking. He found that neither teachers nor students practiced speech acts properly; however, teachers were more successful at using the speech acts of greeting, request, and thanking than the speech acts of apology and compliment. On the other hand, the students were more competent in using the speech act of greeting than the other acts.

Kurdghelashvili (2015) researched how teachers and students used speech acts and politeness strategies in a Georgian EFL classroom. It was found that although students had some knowledge of politeness strategies, they failed to transfer this knowledge to English and that speech acts were mostly used by the teachers within the classroom rather than the students. It was concluded that students must be given more opportunities to practice speech acts.

Babaie and Shahrokhi (2015) compared the way Iranian EFL learners offered advice with that of native speakers using a Discourse Completion Test to see if there was any transfer from the mother tongue and if the speech act usage develops in line with proficiency level. They detected pragmatic transfer at a lower proficiency level. They found that proficiency level also influenced both the amount of and directness of advice offering speech act because Iranian learners used fewer acts and were not able to use indirect offer of advice at lower levels.

Tan and Farashaiyan (2015) evaluated Iranian EFL learners' interlanguage pragmatic knowledge through the production of three kinds of speech acts: Apology, request, and refusal. They used a Discourse Completion Task. The study revealed that learners produced only conventional speech acts without any alteration in relation to the status of the hearers; therefore, learners were seen to be lacking pragma-linguistic and socio-pragmatic knowledge which needs to be taught explicitly according to the researchers.

Elisifa (2016) examined the way that Tanzanian secondary school EFL students performed six speech acts: Articulating displeasure, giving managerial commands,

ordering food, offering advice, showing politeness, and refusing. She found that most of the students could not succeed in linking illocutionary force to the illocutionary act becoming rude in the end. She concluded that although grammatical rules are necessary for learning a foreign language, language education should not be only form-based but also communicative.

Some researchers investigated the cross-cultural differences among students from different nationalities through contrastive Pragmatics. Cenoz and Valencia (1996) examined request speech acts produced by native and non-native speakers of Spanish and English in terms of the strategies and mitigating supportives used. They found learners used more direct strategies than native speakers. They also revealed that non-native speakers used more mitigating supportives than native speakers. The most common mitigating supportive was grounding which provides reasons to explain the need for a particular request and which is known as *waffle phenomenon* lengthening utterances with verbosity. Krulatz and Dixon (2016) studied the refusal speech acts of Korean and Norwegian ESL learners. They saw that while Korean learners can become too polite using a high number of strategies, Norwegian learners can be regarded as excessively direct, if not rude, since they use much more informal structures, which indicates that there are cultural differences in the use of speech acts. As another example, Shishavan and Sharifian (2016) studied Iranian learners' and Anglo-Australian students' refusal strategies through a Discourse Completion Task to figure out some possible cases of misunderstandings. They also investigated the sociocultural norms behind Iranian learners' refusal strategies. They found that both groups appropriately used indirect strategies while interacting with people of higher social status. However, they used different strategies when they interacted with their equals because L1 cultural norms affected Iranian learners' choices making them use more indirect strategies than the Australian students.

Basra and Thoyyibah (2017) investigated the use of speech acts by an English teacher in the EFL context and classified the acts according to Searle's taxonomy. They identified four different kinds of speech acts: Directive (70%), representative/assertive (21%), expressive (6%), and commissive (3%). These different types of speech acts were used with various functions. Directive speech acts were used for asking, ordering, commanding, requesting, begging, pleading, praying, entreating, inviting, permitting,

advising, daring, defying, and challenging. Representative/assertive speech acts were used for hypothesizing, insisting, boasting, complaining, concluding/stating, deducing, diagnosing, claiming, assuming, and suspecting. Expressive speech acts were used for thanking, apologizing, and showing surprise. No specific functions were identified for commissive speech acts, and declarations were not taken into consideration. They concluded that either the preferred teaching approach determines the use of speech acts or vice versa and also teachers should use directives less if they would like to provide more communication opportunities for their learners.

Juvrianto (2018) observed the use of speech acts by the teacher and students in an EFL class in Indonesia and found that they used three different types of speech acts with separate purposes. Locutionary acts were used for greeting. On the other hand, illocutionary acts were used when utterances contained some kind of intention, and perlocutionary acts were used when some reaction was expected from the listeners.

Andewi and Wazina (2019) explored the speech acts used by a single teacher in a high school in Indonesia regarding the functions and types. They found that the teacher mostly used directives (71.8%) to manage and control the class believing that directive speech acts benefited the learners. The other types of speech acts were representative (21.2%), expressive (3.8%), and commissive (3.2%). These different types of speech acts had various functions. Directive speech acts were used for asking, commanding, ordering, requesting, advising, suggesting, and warning. Representative speech acts were used for reporting, informing, and claiming. Expressive speech acts were used for apologizing, complimenting, praising, congratulating, and thanking. Lastly, commissive speech acts were used for offering and promising.

There are also studies on the effect of explicit formal instruction on the language learners' performance of speech acts. The study of Borkin and Reinhart (1978) showed that even the phrases 'excuse me' and 'I'm sorry' can be quite complicated to learn as they have different functions requiring some cultural knowledge, so they should be taught explicitly and communicatively with appropriate materials. In an experimental study in which non-native speakers of English were engaged in social interactions with native speakers, Billmyer (1990) concluded that formal instruction on social norms of language use could help learners produce and reply to compliments more appropriately

while interacting with native speakers. In their study with 18 Hebrew-speaking learners of English, Olshtain and Cohen (1990) investigated the speech act apology. They first used a pre-teaching questionnaire. Then, three class hours were dedicated to teaching apologies. Lastly, a post-teaching questionnaire was applied. They concluded that it is worth teaching how to use speech acts as learners can approximate native speakers through teaching. Even raising awareness can be adequate. In his study with 20 intermediate-level ESL students, Morrow (1995) found that speech acts of complaint and refusal were performed by the subjects in a clearer, more polite, and somewhat nativelike way due to formal instruction. In an experimental study with Chinese learners of English, Halenko and Jones (2011) evaluated the effectiveness of explicit instruction in teaching pragmatic awareness and production of request speech act. They concluded that explicit pragmatic instruction helped learners produce requests appropriately and that it was especially beneficial before learners go abroad to study English. Zhao and Throssell (2011) pointed out the importance of using speech acts for intercultural communication. They concluded that the Speech Act Theory needed to be taught in a Chinese EFL setting for learners to perform speech acts appropriately in intercultural communication knowing about cultural differences. Rajabi and Farahian (2013) investigated the influence of explicit pragmatic instruction on the awareness and appropriateness of suggestion speech act of Persian EFL learners. They concluded that tasks that focus explicitly on both form and meaning promoted learners' pragmatic competence in terms of suggestions. Gopalkrishnan and Bhutani (2017) explored the effects of the Questioning Responding Technique on the facilitation of speech act competence in an experimental study with teacher trainees in India. They found that Questioning Responding Technique facilitates the use of speech acts effectively. Kholili (2018) studied sixth-semester students' familiarity with speech acts at the University of Islam Malang and concluded that students lacked knowledge related to speech acts; therefore, they had errors in using them due to the fact that they had forgotten how to use them or that they had not had enough practice in mastering speech acts. In his study on complaints, Caturay, Jr. (2018) argues that pragmatic instruction should be a part of language curriculum as long as there are available resources and that speech acts which are teachable aspects of pragmatics can be integrated into language syllabi easily.

3.3.2. Research on Speech Acts: Turkish Context

There are relatively fewer studies on the use of speech acts in the Turkish EFL context. Mızıkacı (1991) compared Turkish and English speech acts of requests and apologies in terms of cultural norms and expectations and detected various different patterns which cause negative transfer and inaccurate language use for Turkish EFL learners. She concluded that language instruction should emphasize these differences to raise awareness.

İstifçi (2009) examined the speech act of apologizing used by Turkish students from two different proficiency levels. She concluded that students, especially in lower levels, transferred their cultural tendencies into English such as blaming other people while apologizing. This affected their realization of English speech acts negatively.

Kılıçkaya (2010) investigated Turkish EFL learners' pragmatic knowledge in using some request strategies. He found that although students could perform pragmatically well in a range of contexts, their performance was not satisfactory in situations that required a certain degree of politeness. It was concluded that this was because of the limited range of forms provided by course books.

Tuncel (2011) compared apology and thanking speech acts use of preparation school students, fourth-year students, and native speakers. He found that a high level of negative transfer was present in prep-school students causing misunderstandings, although it was not absent in fourth-year students. He also realized that native speakers of English did not consistently perform the speech acts by using many different formats, some of which tend to be quite long.

Bayat (2013) studied the strategies used by preschool teacher candidates to perform acts of apology, complaint, refusal, and thanking. He identified ten apology, six refusal, and six thanking strategies. He also found that whereas thanking, apologizing, and refusing acts are carried out explicitly, complaining was performed as an implicit act.

Çapar (2014) investigated Turkish female EFL learners' use of refusal strategies in mother tongue and EFL contexts. She found that the participants used the same strategies (stating a reason, excuse, or regret) in both contexts. However, learners tried

longer expressions for refusal as they felt insecure in English. Furthermore, she stated that pragmatic transfer from L1 tended to occur due to the lack of competence.

Demirkol (2015), in her thesis study, investigated the interlanguage pragmatic development of EFL learners focusing on suggestion, request, and refusal speech acts in terms of power and ranking relations. The results of her study did not indicate any considerable pragmatic development as learners had stable strategy preferences throughout an academic year since they were not aware of other strategies because of limited instruction. She concluded that EFL learners need further pragmatic instruction beyond course books.

In an experimental study at a state university in Turkey, Han and Burgucu-Tazegül (2016) examined the realization of English refusals by lower-intermediate and upper-intermediate Turkish EFL learners, how native and non-native speakers of English differ in their production of refusals, and if foreign language proficiency influences pragmatic transfer. They found that lower-intermediate learners used more direct forms than the upper-intermediate learners and native-speakers. They also found that upper-intermediate learners used very similar strategies to native speakers, whereas lower-intermediate learners used the same strategies in their L1. Another finding was that there was no difference in terms of proficiency level in the use of refusals according to the status of the other person.

In her thesis study, Şanal (2016) compared Turkish learners of English and native speakers of English in their use of acceptance, request, and refusal speech acts in terms of appropriateness, formality, politeness, and directness. She found that although Turkish EFL learners produced acceptance speech acts appropriately, their use of refusal and request speech acts was not appropriate with a lower level of formality and politeness than native speakers. Also, they used fewer grammatical structures than native speakers. Şanal argues that the reasons behind these findings were the socio-pragmatic and linguistic transfer from their L1 and classroom instruction.

Çiftçi (2016) examined the refusal strategies used by Turkish EFL learners in comparison with native speakers of Turkish and English by using a Discourse Completion Test for six different situations. All the groups used the lowest number of strategies with interlocutors of higher status. Turkish EFL learners used the least

number of strategies. All the groups used the highest number of refusal strategies with interlocutors of equal status. Therefore, it was understood that they were aware of the status factor.

Tuncer (2016) investigated the kinds of refusal strategies employed by Turkish university instructors. 20 instructors from a state university participated in the study and they were given a Discourse Completion Test involving 12 situations: 3 requests, 3 invitations, 3 suggestions, 3 offers. She found that indirect refusal strategies were used the most. Adjuncts (statements of gratitude/appreciation/positive opinion/empathy or pause fillers) followed them. Direct strategies were used the least. The results of the study also showed that the status of the interlocutors was an important factor in determining the number of strategies. The participants used more strategies when their interlocutors were of higher status than themselves.

Şanal and Ortaçtepe (2019) compared request speech act by Turkish EFL learners and native English speakers through role-plays and a written Discourse Completion Task. They found that even higher-level learners cannot be polite, formal, or appropriate enough as they lack authentic interaction in the language classroom which focuses on forms. It was concluded that lack of authentic communication and no direct experience in the target language community limit learners' performance within the borders of the classroom.

Göy and İşısağ (2019) studied senior Turkish ELT students' socio-linguistic abilities in their use of refusal and complaint speech acts in comparison to American students. They found that although language teacher trainees could use various speech act strategies, the content of their utterances differed from native speakers' as they lacked socio-linguistic and socio-cultural knowledge. Also, the trainees could differentiate their strategies according to the social status of hearers, but their variation was different from native speakers' as they were affected by their cultural backgrounds.

In her thesis study, Günay (2019) focused on refusal strategies depending on imposition, social distance, and social status with 62 pre-service EFL teachers and six native speakers of English. She found that the most common strategies of refusal were excuse, gratitude, and regret, respectively. Also, the most important factor was social

status for Turkish learners making them prefer indirect strategies while refusing a person of higher status.

There are various studies which focus on teaching Pragmatics. Bayındır (2019) argues that Pragmatics can be taught and that teaching Pragmatics explicitly increases foreign language proficiency, which was proved through the findings of her experimental thesis study that focused on speech acts of greeting, advice-giving, refusal, and complaint using a pre-test and post-test. With pragmatic instruction, prospective teachers can become aware of the speech act theory at faculties of education, their interaction with their students will be improved, and that their students can also become competent in speech act use. Altun Alkan (2019) found that learners develop awareness first and competence later to use speech acts appropriately in social situations.

There are also some speech act studies written in Turkish. Fidan (2017) studied the history of the speech act theory starting from Austin (1962). She aimed to explain how this theory can be used in educational contexts. She concluded that if prospective teachers investigated the use of request speech acts by learners of Turkish as a second language in comparison with Turkish native speakers using a Discourse Completion Test. She found that whereas the two groups used similar strategies in general request situations, they differed in information and permission/approval requests. In addition, although age, status, and linguistic competence affected the speech act performance of Turkish native speakers, age and status did not have any effect on the performance of Turkish language learners. Ak (2020) examined 53 dialogues in listening activities of textbooks and workbooks at a Turkish as a foreign language course at Ankara TÖMER. He detected 164 illocutionary acts: 74 directives, 38 representatives, 35 expressives, 16 commissives, and one declarative. He concluded that it is very important to know about speech acts for people who teach and learn Turkish as a foreign language.

As seen, studies in the literature generally focus on some particular speech acts and how learners use them. On the other hand, the present study focuses the use of all speech acts used not only by the learners and also by the instructors.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

4.1. Setting

This study is a classroom discourse analysis focusing on speech acts produced by teachers and students. It took place mainly in the preparatory school of a state university in Istanbul in which 21 English instructors, including the administrators worked, and 222 students were educated in three levels: A, B, and C; A being the lowest and C being the highest. The levels of the students were determined based on their results on the Placement Exam which was carried out at the beginning of the academic year. The students who got lower than 50 out of 100 were placed in level A, and the students who got 80 and above were placed in level C. The students who got grades between 50 and 80 were placed in level B. The book used for Main Course classes was English File Third Edition by Oxford University Press. Level A started from the Elementary, Level B started from the Pre-Intermediate, and Level C started from the Intermediate books. The exit level for all students was B2.

The secondary setting for the study was the third-grade and A level Gastronomy and the Culinary Arts class from the Tourism Faculty which was using the Pre-Intermediate level of the same course-book with an instructor from the School of Foreign Languages under which the preparatory school also functions.

4.2. Participants

As seen in Table 3 below, four male and four female instructors and their 129 students participated in the study voluntarily in eight different classes of three different levels. All the instructors were non-native speakers of English. As for the classes, five of them were of level A, the lowest level in the school, one of them was level C, the highest level in the prep school, and one was level B. The eighth class was from the Gastronomy and the Culinary Arts Department within the Tourism Faculty. They were in their third year, and their level was A. The study was carried out with 129 students whose ages ranged from 17 to 21. All participants signed an approval form. (Please see Appendix 2.)

Table 3. Participants

Participants	
Instructors: 8	Students: 129
Male: 4	A Level: 99
Female: 4	B Level: 17
	C Level: 13

Table 3 shows that 99 out of 129 students were studying in level A (76.74%), 17 students were in level B (13%), 13 students were in level C (10 %).

Table 4. Demographic Information about the Instructors

Instructors					
Gender	Name	Age	Teaching Experience (in years)	Degree	Level of Teaching
F E M A L E	I ₁	29	7	BA (MA student)	A
	I ₂	28	5	BA (MA Student)	C
	I ₃	36	11	MA (PhD Student)	A
	I ₄	30	7	BA (MA Student)	A
M A L E	I ₅	31	8	BA (MA student who cancelled registration)	A
	I ₆	31	8	BA (MA student)	Tourism (A)
	I ₇	30	7	MA (PhD Student)	A
	I ₈	36	13,5	BA (MA Student)	B

Information about the gender, age, experience, education, and teaching level of the instructors can be seen in Table 4.

4.3. Data Collection Procedure

Five of the instructors (four female and one male) recorded six of their face-to-face main course lessons in eight weeks during the fall term of the 2019-2020 Academic Year (one lesson per week) using a recording device provided by the researcher. The remaining three instructors (three male) recorded four of their face-to-face main course classes in the spring term of the same academic year. The reason why they could not have completed six classes per week was the lockdown caused by the Covid-19 Virus Pandemic which necessitated distance learning. The recordings did not continue during distance learning as classroom dynamics differ a lot, which might have affected the validity of the database. The Ethical Council founded within the Education Faculty approved the methodology of this study. (Please see Appendix 3.)

Table 5. Information about the Database

Number of recorded lessons	Duration of a lesson in minutes	Total recording in minutes
42	Approximately 40	Approximately 1680

As seen in Table 5, one lesson recording lasted for approximately 40 minutes. Therefore, the total recording was 1680 minutes.

4.4. Data Analysis

The 42 lesson recordings were transcribed and coded using the Jeffersonian Transcription Notation (1984) (Please see Appendix 1) to demonstrate pitch and intonation changes, sound stretching, emphasis, overlaps, and pauses. While transcribing, utterances were divided as *intonation units* determined by the pauses before or after them, the accelerating or decelerating tempo, the declining pitch level, the final “falling pitch contour and the creaky voice at the end (Chafe, 1992: 43). That is, each line contains a single intonation unit. An intonation unit is defined as “a piece of utterance with an unbroken grid” (Gårding, 1984: 78). Finally, the speech acts used by the teachers and students were detected, categorized according to the taxonomy of Searle (1969), and thoroughly analyzed in terms of their functions (Searle, 1975).

While classifying the speech acts, nominations and greetings were not taken into consideration. A small excerpt of the data analysis of the present study is provided in (18):

(18) T: Which sentence is correct?	(directive: asking)
((No reply))	
What is our rule with would?	(directive: asking)
Would is used with nonaction verbs	(assertive: instructing)
Be is a nonaction verb	(assertive: informing)
Play is an action verb	(assertive: informing)
I would often play by myself	(assertive: exemplifying)
Which sentence means in the past?	(directive: asking)
Ss: a	(assertive: answering)
T: a (.) I used to work alone	(assertive: confirming)
What about b?	(directive: asking)
S: It is present	(assertive: answering)
T: H1 h1 (.) I am used to working alone	(assertive: confirming)
It is still true	(assertive: informing)
Thank you for listening	(expressive: thanking)
Any questions?	(directive: asking)
((No reply))	
Ok (.) no questions	(assertive: concluding)

As seen in (18), all the utterances of the instructors and students were analyzed, and the speech act types and their functions were identified.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

5.1. Findings

This study aimed to identify and classify the speech acts that instructors and students use in L2 in Turkish EFL classes according to the taxonomy of Searle and to reveal the nature of the use of speech acts.

In this respect, this study addressed the following research questions:

1. Which types of speech acts are used by the instructors according to the taxonomy of Searle?
2. Which types of speech acts are used by the students according to the taxonomy of Searle?
3. Which functions do these speech acts fulfill in both groups?

The study was carried out at a state university in Turkey, and eight instructors of English and 129 students participated in it. Forty-two 40-minute lessons (1680 minutes in total) were recorded, transcribed, and coded. Later, the recordings were analyzed in terms of the speech acts used.

Table 6. Instructors' Utterances

Instructors' Utterances	
Total Number of Teacher Utterances	8549
Utterances in English	6676 (78.05%)

Utterances in Turkish	1251 (14.63%)
Utterances with code-switching	622 (7.27%)

As shown in Table 6, the number of instructors' utterances was 8549. 78.05% of these utterances were in English. 14.63% of the teacher talk was in Turkish and 7.27% involved code-switching.

Table 7. Students' Utterances

Students' Utterances	
Total Number of Student Utterances	2919
Utterances in English	2213 (75.81%)
Utterances in Turkish	585 (20.04%)
Utterances with code-switching	121 (4.14%)

Table 7 shows that the total number of students' utterances was 2919. 75.81% of students' utterances were also mainly in English. 20.04% of them were in Turkish, while 4.14% involved code-switching.

The difference between the numbers of teachers' and students' utterances clearly indicates that teacher talk dominated student-talk in classes although students actively participated in classes.

When the nature of the utterances was closely looked at, it was observed that the conversation in classes was realized chiefly in English. Turkish was generally used for grammar instructions on the side of the instructors and due to lack of competence on the side of the students. Teachers' and students' utterances with code-switching from the database can be seen (19 and 20) below:

(19) **T:** Ama fiilimin sonunda e varsa düşürüyorum

(20) **S:** Aniden misafirleri geliyo

Bunu nasıl söyleyebilirim?

The instructors and students spoke English more in upper-level classes. Also, code-switching was often used especially in lower-level classes both by the instructors and students. Instructors generally used intra-sentential code-switching while explaining grammar rules, inter-sentential code-switching while helping students comprehend a reading passage or a listening track, and extra-sentential code-switching while teaching vocabulary by adding Turkish suffixes to English words or vice versa. Students usually use inter-sentential or intra-sentential code-switching while doing speaking practice or asking questions. How instructors and learners use code-switching for these purposes can be seen in (21-25).

- (21) T: Is it ok zaten bunun bize *can*'le yapılcağını
gösteriyo (intra-sentential:
grammar)
- (22) T: Yuva anlamına geldiği zaman *homedur* (.) (extra-sentential:
vocabulary)
- (23) T: If you have neighbours everywhere around
Bazı evler otel gibi ya artık böyle sıralı sıralı (inter-sentential:
comprehension)
- (24) S: Because the beat beni havaya sokuyo diycem (intra-sentential)
- (25) S: Their teams are::
Takımları kazandığı ya bağıryolar ya böyle (inter-sentential)

Table 8. Speech Acts Used by the Instructors

Speech Acts Used by the Instructors	
Total Number of Speech Acts	8494
Types of Speech Acts	
Assertives	4948 (58.25%)
Directives	3268 (38.47%)
Expressives	278 (3.27%)

Table 8 shows that the total number of speech acts is lower than the number of utterances because nominations and greetings were not taken into consideration in the analysis. When the speech acts used by the instructors were examined, it was found that the instructors mainly used three types of speech acts in classes: Assertives, directives, and expressives. The most common type of used was assertive speech acts (58.25%). Directive speech acts were the second most used type (38.47%), followed by expressive speech acts (3.27%) which were not used very often. Commissives and declaratives were not identified in the database.

Table 9. Types of Speech Acts Used by the Individual Instructors

Types of Speech Acts Used by the Individual Instructors				
Instructors	Assertives	Directives	Expressives	Total (100%)
I ₁ (Female)	60.06% (737)	37.97% (466)	1.95% (24)	1227
I ₂ (Female)	55.36% (583)	41.5% (437)	3.13% (33)	1053
I ₃ (Female)	53.74% (638)	43.89% (521)	2.35% (28)	1187
I ₄ (Female)	57.14% (904)	39.57% (626)	3.28% (52)	1582
I ₅ (Male)	55.33% (591)	38.38% (410)	6.27% (67)	1068
I ₆ (Male)	68.02% (517)	31.05% (236)	1.44% (11)	760
I ₇ (Male)	55.33% (420)	38.47% (292)	6.19% (47)	759
I ₈ (Male)	65.33% (558)	32.78% (280)	1.87% (16)	854

Table 9 shows the types of speech acts used by the instructors individually.

Table 10. Types of Speech Acts Used by the Individual Instructors with Their Functions

Types of Speech Acts Used by the Individual Instructors with Their Functions								
Functions	I ₁	I ₂	I ₃	I ₄	I ₅	I ₆	I ₇	I ₈
Functions of Assertives								
Informing	274	183	282	281	206	213	192	257
Instructing	236	178	166	264	152	126	94	118
Confirming	105	104	64	109	123	57	49	67
Concluding	38	35	38	128	38	39	0	34
Exemplifying	40	27	33	36	21	33	28	74
Informing about oneself	10	31	19	36	16	12	45	1
Correcting	26	8	17	28	29	21	5	4
Reminding	4	12	12	16	2	7	2	1
Agreeing/ Accepting	2	4	4	2	2	4	4	1
Objecting	2	1	3	4	2	5	1	1
Functions of Directives								
Asking	322	311	338	461	310	164	244	223
Ordering	123	111	170	151	88	57	33	48
Asking for confirmation	14	10	11	11	11	14	12	9
Attracting attention	6	4	1	2	1	1	3	0
Requesting	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
Functions of Expressives								
Praising	17	11	6	31	45	5	14	8
Joking	2	13	8	15	17	3	9	4
Thanking	2	7	10	4	2	2	16	2
Expressing surprise	1	1	1	1	2	1	5	2
Apologizing	2	1	3	1	1	0	3	0

Table 10 shows the types of speech acts used by the individual instructors with their functions.

When the functions of these particular speech acts were analyzed, it was seen that they were used for quite a lot of functions.

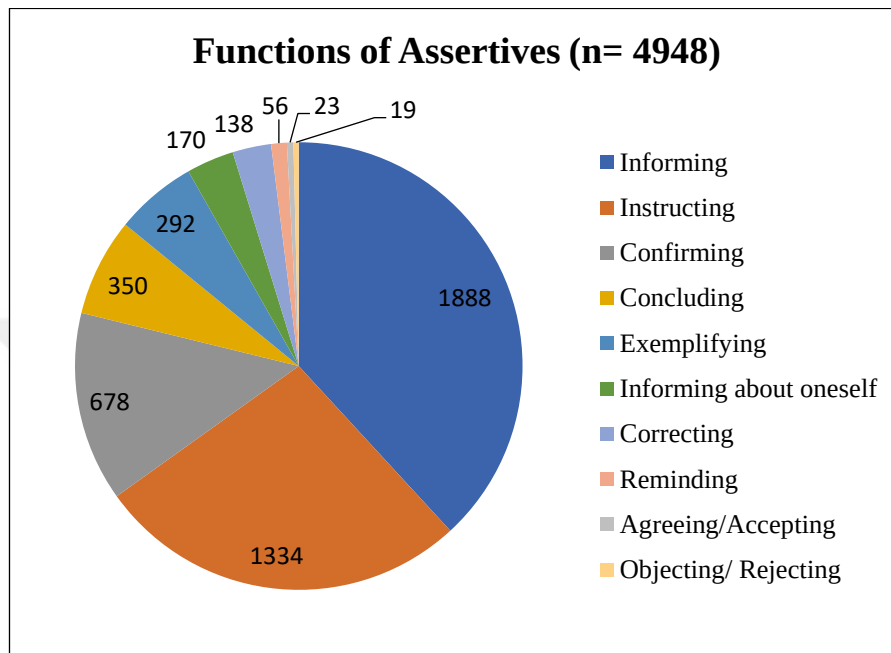


Figure 1. Functions of Assertive Speech Acts Produced by the Instructors

As seen in Figure 1, 4948 assertive speech acts were used with 10 distinctive functions which were informing (38.15%), instructing (26.96%), confirming (13.70%), concluding (7.07%), exemplifying (5.90%), informing about oneself (3.43%), correcting (2.7%), reminding (1.13%), agreeing/accepting (0.46%), and objecting/rejecting (0.38%) in the order of frequency. Among these 10 functions, informing was the most frequently observed one, whereas objecting was the least frequent.

- | | | |
|------|--|----------------|
| (26) | They talk loudly and they argue a lot | (informing) |
| (27) | Every months (.) ok | (confirming) |
| (28) | If you can do them you will put a tick | (instructing) |
| (29) | Ok I think that's enough | (concluding) |
| (30) | Cooking (.) dancing (.) working (.) etc. | (exemplifying) |

- | | | |
|------|--|------------------------------|
| (31) | I personally really wonder about that | (informing
about oneself) |
| (32) | Myselfes değil (.) o çoğullarda (.) myself | (correcting) |
| (33) | We talked about some problems before | (reminding) |
| (34) | Yeah you can check your list | (agreeing
/accepting) |
| (35) | No we can't | (objecting/
rejecting) |

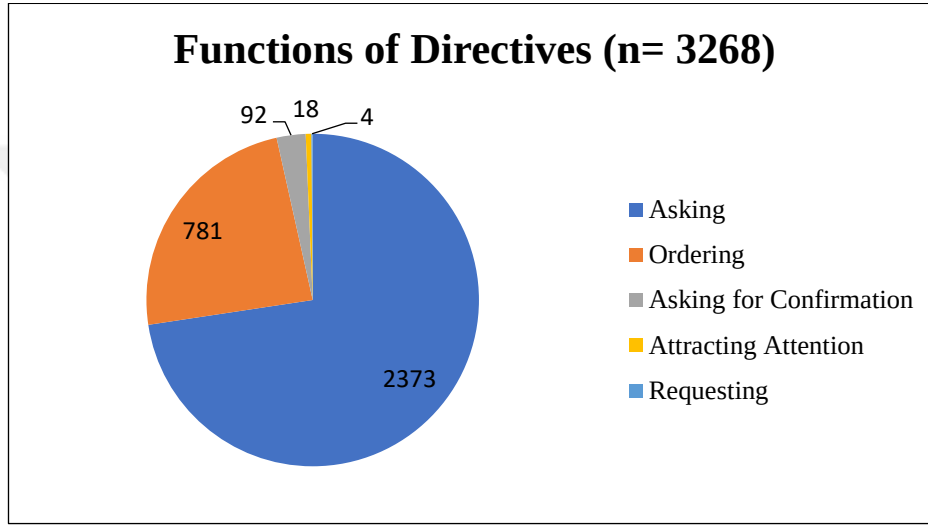


Figure 2. Functions of Directive Speech Acts Produced by the Instructors

Figure 2 shows that 3268 directive speech acts had five separate functions: Asking (72.6%), ordering (23.89%), asking for confirmation (2.81%), attracting attention (0.55%), and requesting (0.12%). Asking was the most common one while the least common one was requesting.

- | | | |
|------|--------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| (36) | Ok (.) what does this sentence mean? | (asking) |
| (37) | Make a prediction | (ordering) |
| (38) | It is very high (.) right? | (asking for
confirmation) |
| (39) | Ok ladies and gentlemen | (attracting
attention) |
| (40) | Can you switch off the projector? | (requesting) |

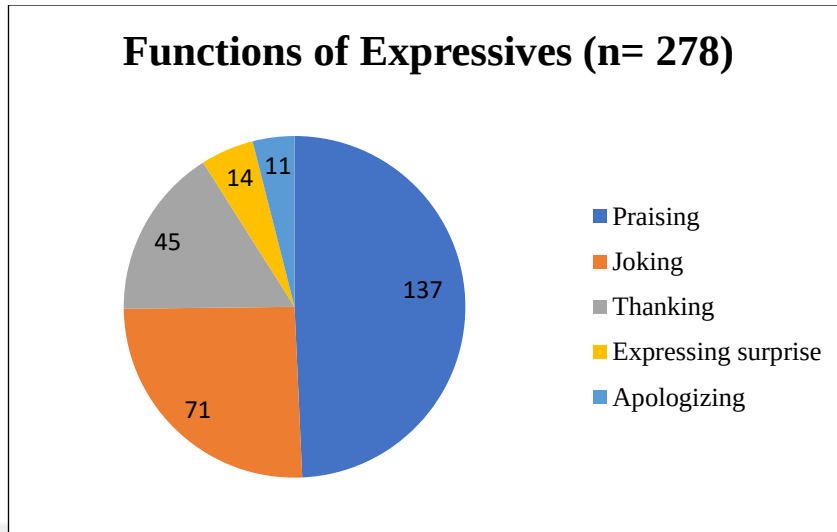


Figure 3. Functions of Expressive Speech Acts Produced by the Instructors

Finally, as shown in Figure 3, 278 expressive speech acts had five different functions that were praising (49%), joking (26%), thanking (16%), expressing surprise (5%), and apologizing (4%). Among these, praising was seen most frequently, and apologizing was the least frequently detected one.

- | | | |
|------|---|-----------------------|
| (41) | Good example (.) ok wow | (praising) |
| (42) | Ladies always have lots of things to talk | (joking) |
| (43) | Ok thank you for your contribution | (thanking) |
| (44) | Oh my God | (expressing surprise) |
| (45) | Yener (.) ok sorry | (apologizing) |

Table 11. Speech Acts Used by Students

Speech Acts Used by the Students	
Total Number of Speech Acts	2915
Types of Speech Acts	
Assertives	2669 (91.56%)
Directives	233 (7.99%)
Expressives	13 (0.44%)

As shown in Table 11, when the speech acts used by the students were examined, it was revealed that the same three types of speech acts were mainly used with an identical order of frequency as the instructors: Assertives (91.56%), directives (7.99%), and expressives (0.44%).

Students were also observed to be using the speech acts with various functions.

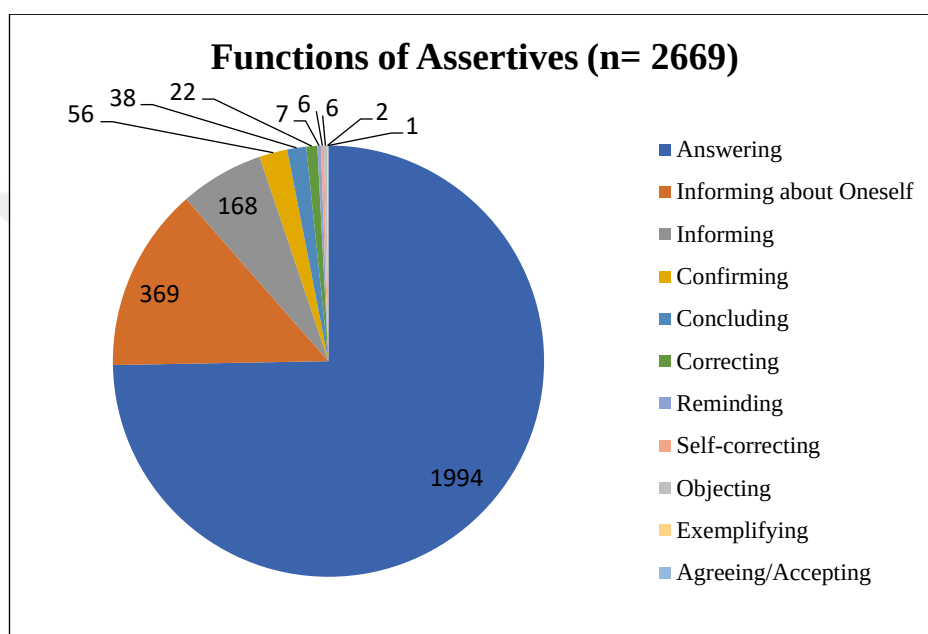


Figure 4. Functions of Assertive Speech Acts Produced by the Students

As shown in Figure 4, 2669 assertive speech acts were used for 11 distinctive functions: Answering (74.7%), informing about oneself (13.8%), informing (6.29%), confirming (2.09%), concluding (1.42%), correcting (0.82%), reminding (0.26%), self-correcting (0.22%), objecting (0.22%), exemplifying (0.07%), and agreeing/accepting (0.03%). Answering was the most frequent one among these, while agreeing/accepting was the one seen the least frequently.

- | | | |
|------|---------------------------|------------------------------|
| (46) | She didn't use to be slim | (answering) |
| (47) | I listen to rap | (informing
about oneself) |
| (48) | They look poor | (informing) |

(49)	Yes	(confirming)
(50)	My guess was true	(concluding)
(51)	Himm finish work	(correcting)
(52)	We would play Kahoot	(reminding)
(53)	She pardon he must be Italian	(self-correcting)
(54)	No (.) not at night	(objecting)
(55)	Education	(exemplifying)
(56)	Of course you can	(agreeing /accepting)

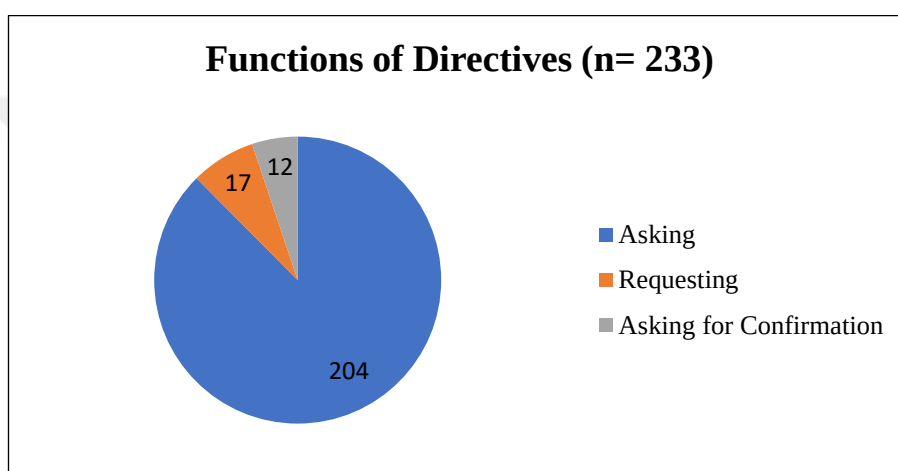


Figure 5. Functions of Directive Speech Acts Produced by the Students

Figure 5 shows that 233 directive speech acts had only three functions which were asking (88%), requesting (7%), and asking for confirmation (5%).

(57)	Teacher what does tactless mean?	(asking)
(58)	One more time please	(requesting)
(59)	A gig maybe?	(asking for confirmation)

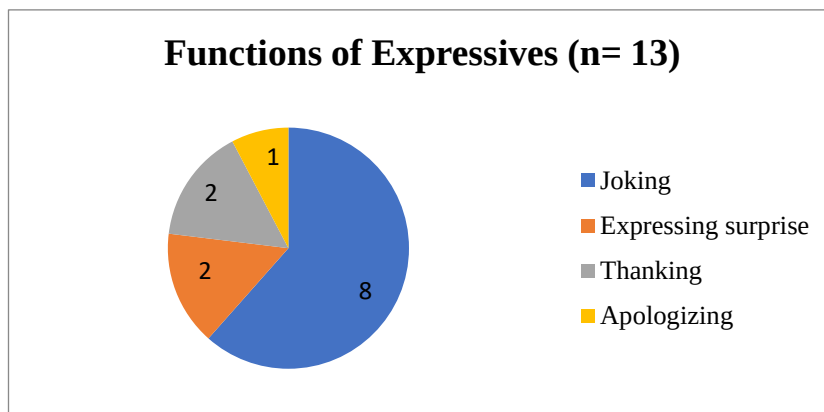


Figure 6. Functions of Expressive Speech Acts Produced by the Students

Lastly, as shown in Figure 6, 13 expressive speech acts were used with just four different functions which were joking (62%), expressing surprise (15%), thanking (15%), and apologizing (8%).

- | | | |
|------|----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| (60) | Women use social media to gossip | (joking) |
| (61) | Seen a ghost? | (expressing surprise) |
| (62) | Thank you | (thanking) |

Although no commissive or declarative speech acts were identified in the particular lessons recorded for this study, if they were present, they might be like in the examples below:

- | | |
|------|--|
| (63) | We will play Kahoot tomorrow (commissive) |
| (64) | You have failed due to absenteeism, so you cannot participate into classes (declarative) |

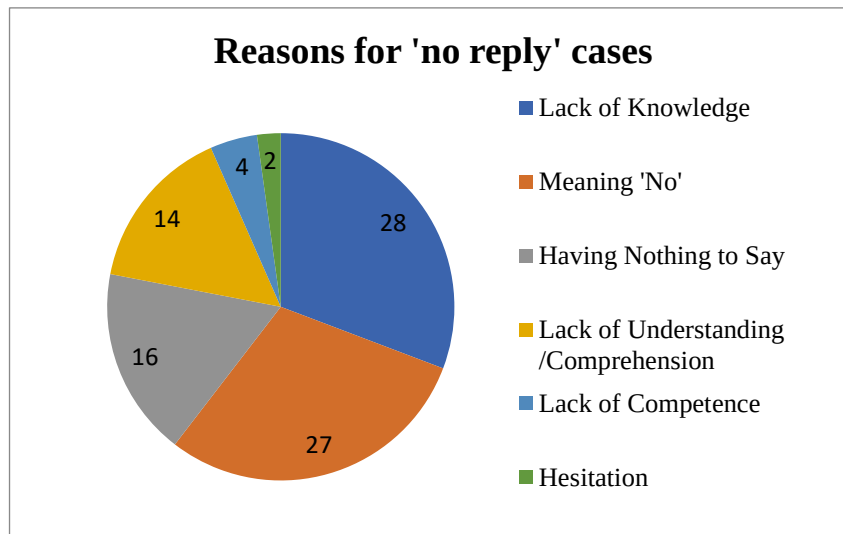


Figure 7. Reasons for ‘no reply’ cases

When the whole database was analyzed, it was seen that most of the questions of the instructors were answered by the students. However, there are 91 cases of ‘no reply’ from the students breaking the usual cycle of question-answer adjacency pairs. Although this is not one of the research questions, it was found that there are various reasons for the “no reply” cases, which can be seen in Figure 7. These reasons are lack of knowledge (31%), meaning ‘no’ (30%), having nothing to say (18%), lack of understanding /comprehension (15%), lack of competence (4%), and hesitation (2%).

In addition, no gender differences were identified in the use of speech acts by the instructors. This finding may imply that classroom language, especially teacher talk is more fixed than daily language due to the reasons listed by Seedhouse (1996, 2009) in Section 2.2.4.

5.2. Discussion

The current study analyzed the use of speech acts by the instructors and the students in English classes of a state university to find out the answers to the research questions. The results of the analysis indicated significant findings that shed light on the use of speech acts and revealed the nature of the use of speech acts by instructors and their students in the EFL context.

The present study differs from most of the studies mentioned in the literature review section from two aspects: The first difference is that while the majority of the other studies focused on some particular speech acts like refusals, complaints, apologies, or requests, this study concentrated on all the speech acts produced in classrooms and classified them based on the taxonomy of Searle. Some of the studies in the literature discuss one single speech act. Olshtain and Weinbach (1993) and Koike (1983) examined *complaint* speech act. Allami and Naeimi (2011), Çapar (2014), Krulatz and Dixon (2016), Shishavan and Sharifian (2016), Han and Burgucu-Tazegül (2016), Çiftçi (2016), Tuncer (2016), and Günay (2019) investigated *refusals*. Kılıçkaya (2010) and Şanal and Ortaçtepe (2019) studied *request* speech act. İstifçi (2009) examined *apologizing*. Finally, Babaie and Shahrokni (2015) focused on *advice offering* speech act.

On the other hand, some studies focused on more than one speech act. For instance, Mirzaei, Roohani, and Esmaeili (2012) examined *apology, request, and refusal* speech acts. Zayed (2014) investigated *apology, compliment, greeting, request, and thanking*. Tan and Farashaiyan (2015) studied *apology, request, and refusal* acts. Elisifa (2016) focused on *articulating displeasure, giving managerial commands, ordering food, showing politeness, and refusing*.

Mızıkacı (1990) studied *requests and apologies*. Tuncel (2011) examined *apology and thanking* speech acts. Bayat (2015) investigated *apology, complaint, refusal, and thanking*. Demirkol (2015) studied *suggestions, requests, and refusals*. Şanal (2016) examined *acceptance, request, and refusal acts*. Lastly, Göy and İşisağ (2019) focused on *refusal and complaint speech acts*.

The second difference between the present study and previous studies is about whom the studies concentrated on in the classroom. Some of the studies investigated the way teachers and teacher trainees produced speech acts (Yoshida, 2008; Bayat, 2013; Tuncer, 2016; Basra and Thoyyibah, 2017; Ghopalkrishnan and Bhutani, 2017; Andewi and Wazina, 2019). On the other hand, most of the studies focused on how students used speech acts (Mızıkacı, 1990; Billmyer, 1990; Cohen and Olshtain, 1993; Koike, 1993; Olshtain and Weinbach, 1993; Morrow, 1995; İstifçi, 2009; Kılıçkaya, 2010; Tuncel, 2011; Zhao and Throssel, 2011; Allami and Naemi, 2011; Mirzaei,

Roohani, and Esmaeili, 2012; Rajabi and Farahian, 2013; Çapar, 2014; Babaie and Shahrokni, 2015; Tan and Farashaiyan, 2015; Demirkol, 2015; Han and Burgucu-Tazegül, 2016; Şanal, 2016; Çiftçi, 2016; Elisifa, 2016; Krulatz and Dixon, 2016; Shishavan and Sharifian, 2016; Kholili, 2018; Caturay Jr., 2018; Şanal and Ortaçtepe, 2019; Göy and İşisağ, 2019; Günay, 2019; Bayındır, 2019). However, the current study investigated the way speech acts are produced both by instructors and students.

In terms of the research questions, the relevant studies will be associated with the current study below:

Research Question 1: Which types of speech acts are used by the instructors according to the taxonomy of Searle?

When the speech acts used by the instructors were analyzed, it was found that the instructors mainly used three types of speech acts in classes: Assertives, directives, and expressives. The most common type of used was assertive speech acts (58.25%). Directive speech acts were the second most used type (38.47%), followed by expressive speech acts (3.27%) which were not used very often. Commissives and declaratives were not detected in the database.

In parallel with Kurdghelashvili's study (2015), in the current study as well, the speech acts were used more by the instructors than by the students. Although directive speech acts were the most frequently used by the teachers in the studies of Basra and Thooyibah (2017) and of Andewi and Wazina (2019), they were not produced that frequently by the instructors in the current study. While the percentage of directive speech acts was 70 in Basra and Thooyibah's (2017) study and 71.8 in Andewi and Wazina's (2019) study, it was nearly half (38.47) in the current study as shown in Table 8. This finding shows that there is more communication in classes because as Basra and Thooyibah (2019) point out, teachers should use directives less if they would like to provide more communication opportunities for their learners.

In the current study, the most frequently used type of speech acts produced by the instructors was assertives with the percentage of 58.25. However, assertive speech acts were not found in the studies of Basra and Thooyibah (2017) and Andewi and Wazina

(2019). Instead of assertive speech acts, representative and commissive speech acts were classified in those studies.

In all three studies including the present study, expressive speech acts were not commonly used by the teachers. The percentage of expressives was 6 in Basra and Thoyyibah (2017), 3.8 in Andewi and Wazina (2019), and 3.27 in the current study, as shown in Table 8. Therefore, the studies showed similar results in the use of expressive speech acts by the teachers. This finding may imply that institutionalized settings are not appropriate places to express feelings and emotions.

Research Question 2: Which types of speech acts are used by the students according to the taxonomy of Searle?

When the speech acts used by the students were examined, it was revealed that the same three types of speech acts were mainly used with an identical order of frequency as the instructors: Assertives (91.56%), directives (7.99%), and expressives (0.44%). Commissives and declarations were not detected in students' utterances, either.

The studies in the literature review section investigated how students used some particular speech acts. These speech acts were *complaint, refusal, request, apology, compliment, greeting, thanking, acceptance, articulating displeasure, giving managerial commands, ordering food, and advice offering* speech acts. These speech acts are classified under the types of *directive* (request, giving managerial commands, and ordering food), *assertive* (refusal, greeting, advice offering, and acceptance), and *expressive* (apology, compliment, thanking, and articulating displeasure). The students in the present study are observed to use the same kinds of speech acts as well.

Furthermore, like in Mirzaei, Roohani, and Esmaeili's study (2012), the students in this study also lacked the capability of using formulaic phrases as they lacked explicit instruction as Kılıçkaya (2010), Elisifa (2016), Kholili (2018) point out. Only the most proficient group of learners in level C were observed to be using them. Code-switching was used as a compensation strategy by most of the students who are categorized as *pragmatists* according to Cohen and Olshtain (1993).

Research Question 3: Which functions do these speech acts fulfill in both groups?

Table 12. Types of Speech Acts Used by the Instructors with Their Functions in the Order of Frequency

Types of Speech Acts Used by the Instructors	Functions
Assertives (4948)	1. informing (38.15%) 2. instructing (% 26.96) 3. confirming (13.70%) 4. concluding (7.07%) 5. exemplifying (5.90%) 6. informing about oneself (3.43%) 7. correcting (2.7%) 8. reminding (1.13%) 9. agreeing /accepting (0.46%) 10. objecting/rejecting (0.38%)
Directives (3268)	1. asking (72.6%) 2. ordering (23.89%) 3. asking for confirmation (2.81%) 4. attracting attention (0.55%) 5. requesting (0.12%)
Expressives (278)	1. praising (49%) 2. joking (26%) 3. thanking (16%) 4. expressing surprise (5%) 5. apologizing (4%)

As shown in Table 12, the instructors used 4948 assertive speech acts with 10 distinctive functions which were informing (38.15%), instructing (26.96%), confirming (13.70%), concluding (7.07%), exemplifying (5.90%), informing about oneself (3.43%), correcting (2.7%), reminding (1.13%), agreeing/accepting (0.46%), and objecting/rejecting (0.38%) in the order of frequency. Among these 10 functions, informing was the most frequently observed one, whereas objecting was the least frequent. They used 3268 directive speech acts with five separate functions: Asking (72.6%), ordering (23.89%), asking for confirmation (2.81%), attracting attention

(0.55%), and requesting (0.12%). Asking was the most common one, while the least common one was requesting. Finally, 278 expressive speech acts used by the instructors had five different functions that were praising (49%), joking (26%), thanking (16%), expressing surprise (5%), and apologizing (4%). Among these, praising was seen most frequently, and apologizing was the least frequently detected one.

In Yoshida's (2008) study, the teachers used *directive* speech acts for *requests, feedback, and correction* and *expressive* speech acts for *showing feelings like surprise*. In Basra and Thoyyibah's (2017) study, *directive* speech acts were used for *asking, requesting, commanding, ordering, and inviting, begging, pleading, praying, entreating, permitting, advising, daring, defying, and challenging*; *representative/assertive* speech acts were used for *hypothesizing, insisting, boasting, complaining, concluding/stating, deducing, diagnosing, claiming, assuming, and suspecting*; and *expressive* speech acts were used for *thanking, apologizing, and showing surprise*. In Andewi and Wazina's (2019) study, *directive* speech acts were used for *asking, commanding, ordering, requesting, advising, suggesting, and warning*; *expressive* speech acts were used for *apologizing, complimenting, praising, congratulating, and thanking*. In the current study, *expressive* speech acts are used with almost exactly the same functions as shown in Figure 3. However, there are some differences in the use of *directive* and *assertive* speech acts. *Assertive* speech acts are used for *informing, instructing, confirming, concluding, exemplifying, informing about oneself, correcting, reminding, agreeing/accepting, and objecting/rejecting* (Figure 1); and *directive* speech acts are used for *ordering, asking for confirmation, attracting attention, and requesting* (Figure 2)

Table 13. Types of Speech Acts Used by the Students with Their Functions in the Order of Frequency

Types of Speech Acts Used by the Students	Functions
Assertives (2669)	1. answering (74.7%)

	2. informing about oneself (13.8%) 3. informing (6.29%) 4. confirming (2.09%) 5. concluding (1.42%) 6. correcting (0.82%) 7. reminding (0.26%) 8. self-correcting (0.22%) 9. objecting (0.22%) 10. exemplifying (0.07%) 11. agreeing/accepting (0.03%)
<i>Directives</i> (233)	1. asking (88%) 2. requesting (7%) 3. asking for confirmation (5%)
<i>Expressives</i> (13)	1. joking (62%) 2. thanking (15%) 3. expressing surprise (15%) 4. apologizing (8%)

Table 13 shows that students used 2669 assertive speech acts for 11 distinctive functions: Answering (74.7%), informing about oneself (13.8%), informing (6.29%), confirming (2.09%), concluding (1.42%), correcting (0.82%), reminding (0.26%), self-correcting (0.22%), objecting (0.22%), exemplifying (0.07%), and agreeing/accepting (0.03%). Answering was the most frequent one among these while agreeing/accepting was the one seen the least frequently. They used 233 directive speech acts with only three functions which were asking (88%), requesting (7%), and asking for confirmation (5%). Lastly, 13 expressive speech acts used by the students had just four different functions which were joking (62%), thanking (15%), expressing surprise (15%), and apologizing (8%).

As mentioned before, students in the studies in the literature review used *directive* speech acts for *request, giving managerial commands, and ordering food*; *assertive* speech acts for *refusal, greeting, advice offering, and acceptance*; and *expressive*

speech acts for *apology, compliment, thanking, and articulating displeasure*. On the other hand, students in the present study used *assertive* speech acts for *answering, informing about oneself, informing, confirming, concluding, correcting, reminding, self-correcting, objecting, exemplifying, and agreeing/accepting* (Figure 4); *directive* speech acts for *asking, requesting, and asking for confirmation* (Figure 5); *expressive* speech acts for *joking, expressing surprise, thanking, and apologizing* (Figure 6). Among these, *request, refusal, acceptance, apology, and thanking* were in common with previous studies.



CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

6.1. Summary of the Whole Study

The purpose of this study is to identify and classify the speech acts that instructors and students use in Turkish EFL classes based on the taxonomy of Searle (1969) along with their functions adapted from Austin (1962).

In this respect, this study addressed the following questions:

1. Which types of speech acts are used by the instructors according to the taxonomy of Searle?
2. Which types of speech acts are used by the students according to the taxonomy of Searle?
3. Which functions do these speech acts fulfill in both groups?

The study was carried out at a state university in Turkey, and eight instructors of English (four males and four females) and 129 students participated in it. Forty-two 40-minute lessons (1680 minutes in total) were recorded, transcribed, and analyzed. While transcribing, utterances were divided as intonation units determined by the pauses before and after them, the accelerating or decelerating tempo, the declining pitch level, the final “falling pitch contour, and the creaky voice at the end (Chafe, 1992: 43) so that each line contains a single intonation unit. Later, the recordings were analyzed in terms of the speech act categories used by the instructors and their students, and these speech acts were then classified according to their functions. Greetings and nominations were not taken into consideration.

First of all, it was found that teacher talk dominated the student talk, which was not surprising. When it comes to the speech acts used according to the taxonomy of Searle, instructors were observed to be using three types of speech acts mainly: Assertives, directives, and expressives. Assertive speech acts had 10 different functions: *Informing, instructing, confirming, concluding, exemplifying, informing about oneself, correcting, reminding, agreeing/accepting, and objecting/rejecting*. Directive speech acts had five functions: *Asking, ordering, asking for confirmation, attracting attention, and requesting*. Expressive speech acts had five different functions: *Praising, joking, thanking, expressing surprise, and apologizing*.

On the other hand, students were also seen to be using the same types of speech acts as their instructors: Assertives, directives, and expressives. This may imply that the students have been taking the teacher as a model and produce the same types of speech acts being influenced by the teacher talk. This may also imply that these specific types of speech acts are the most appropriate or typical in a language class.

Assertive speech acts of the students had 11 distinct functions: *Answering, informing about oneself, informing, confirming, concluding, correcting, reminding, self-correcting, objecting, exemplifying, and agreeing/accepting*. Directive speech acts had three functions: *Asking, requesting, and asking for confirmation*. Lastly, expressive speech acts had four functions: *Joking, expressing surprise, thanking, and apologizing*. Expressive speech acts were found to be used more frequently and more accurately as the proficiency level increased.

The functions of the three types of speech acts were also quite similar in both groups; however their frequency differed. Firstly, the most common functions of assertives were *informing, instructing, and confirming* in instructors' use; however, the students mostly used *answering, informing about oneself, and informing* functions. Secondly, whereas the second most used function of directives was *ordering* in instructors, it was *requesting* in students. Lastly, the most common function of expressives is *praising* in instructors' use, but it was *joking* in students' use. These differences can be thought to have emerged from the distinctive roles of teachers and students in the classroom. The fundamental role of a teacher informing and the major role of a student is answering the teacher's questions. A student cannot give orders to the teacher, and a teacher praises his/her students' good performance.

Finally, although it was not one of the research questions, the study also revealed that there were no differences in the use of speech acts by the instructors in terms of gender. This finding may imply that classrooms are not places where teachers or students can have natural conversations like they do in everyday life among their family members and friends.

6.2. Pedagogical Implications and Suggestions

Some pedagogical implications and suggestions arose at the end of this study which identified the nature of the use of speech acts in EFL classes. Firstly, if prospective teachers who study at language teaching faculties gain some awareness of Pragmatics and the effects of using speech acts in language classrooms, their classroom practices may get much better, as Zayed (2014) and Göy and İşısağ (2019) also stated, teachers may not be able to perform speech acts properly enough and students in their classes cannot produce speech acts appropriately, either. Gaining awareness of interactional patterns in classrooms through conversation analysis may also be helpful in improving language education (Sert, 2010; Petek 2013), and speech act theory should also be included here (Fidan, 2017). In addition, like some other researchers (Billmyer, 1990; Morrow, 1995; Eslem-Rasekh, 2005; Zao and Throssel , 2011; Halenko and Jones, 2011; Rajabi and Farahian, 2013; Demirkol, 2015; Gopalkrishnan and Bhutani, 2017; Caturay, Jr.; 2018; Bayındır, 2019) suggest as well, if some time is spared for formal instruction of Speech Act Theory and for some awareness-raising activities in language classes in addition to course books, learners can perform speech acts in a more natural and nativelike way because the production of speech acts is affected by cultural backgrounds and L1 (Göy and İşısağ, 2019; Tam, 2005). These awareness-raising activities should especially focus on the differences between the target language and the native language to avoid negative transfer (Mızıkacı, 1990) which causes inappropriate use of speech acts (Şanal, 2016). As Tan and Farashaiyan (2015) point out, pragma-linguistic and socio-pragmatic knowledge should be taught explicitly. When students lack the knowledge of speech acts, they use them incorrectly, as Allami and Naeimi (2011), and Kholili (2018) point out, and they sound impolite due to their lack of pragmatic competence (Tam, 2005). Finally, as Kılıçkaya (2010) also suggests, if course-books concentrate more on natural use of language, learners can perform speech acts better and sound more nativelike, which is supported by Elisifa's (2016) suggestion that language education should not only focus on forms but also on communicative competence. Understanding speech acts (illocutionary acts in particular) is a part of communicative competence. In order to be able to communicate successfully, speech acts should be interpreted appropriately within the context.

Language learning and language use strategies should be taught explicitly in order to make learners competent in interlanguage pragmatics and speech act use (Cohen,

2005; Tajeddin and Malmir, 2015). However, pragmatic instruction had better start at a later stage because as Koike (1993) points out, learners need to feel confident in grammar before they start producing speech acts by applying pragmatic rules. All in all, prospective teachers' awareness of the importance of discourse should be raised in teacher education courses (Gibbons, 2003), and the knowledge of speech acts is crucial for both language teachers and learners (Ak, 2020). Once the teachers are more aware of how their *talk* affects their students' understandings and achievements, they can work to change the features of their talk in the classrooms. In the light of the research just as in the present study, teachers can gain awareness about their pedagogical practices in the classrooms and they can reorganize their *talks* in terms of their students' needs. Small changes in *teacher talk* will have a positive impact on students' language use and achievement.

6.3. Suggestions for Further Research

Further qualitative and quantitative studies are needed with more participants and with bigger database in different institutions. These institutions may be in different regions of Turkey. They may be private or state institutions. Furthermore, gender differences in teachers' and in students' language use, speech act use in particular, may also be analyzed. Finally, native and non-native use of speech acts can be compared with foreign teachers and students.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Jeffersonian Transcription Notation Symbols

Symbol	Name	Use
[text]	Brackets	Indicates the start and end points of overlapping speech.

	Equal Sign	Indicates the break and subsequent continuation of a single interrupted utterance.
(# of seconds)	Timed Pause	A number in parentheses indicates the time, in seconds, of a pause in speech.
(.)	Micropause	A brief pause, usually less than 0.2 seconds.
. or ↓	Period or Down Arrow	Indicates falling pitch.
? or ↑	Question Mark or Up Arrow	Indicates rising pitch.
,	Comma	Indicates a temporary rise or fall in intonation.
-	Hyphen	Indicates an abrupt halt or interruption in utterance.
>text<	Greater than / Less than symbols	Indicates that the enclosed speech was delivered more rapidly than usual for the speaker.
<text>	Less than / Greater than symbols	Indicates that the enclosed speech was delivered more slowly than usual for the speaker.
°	Degree symbol	Indicates whisper or reduced volume speech.
ALL CAPS	Capitalized text	Indicates shouted or increased volume speech.
underline	Underlined text	Indicates the speaker is emphasizing or stressing the speech.
:::	Colon(s)	Indicates prolongation of an utterance.
(hhh)		Audible exhalation
? or (.hhh)	High Dot	Audible inhalation
(text)	Parentheses	Speech which is unclear or in doubt in the transcript.

ÖZGEÇMİŞ

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HOBİLER

Puzzle yapmak, kitap okumak, doğa yürüyüşü

