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Apology Strategies for Maintaining Relationships among People

Case Study of Third Year Students, University of Constantine1

**Thesis submitted to the department of letters and the English language in
candidacy for the degree of Doctorat L.M.D. in Applied Language Studies**

By: Miss. Souaad Allili

Supervisor: Prof. Salah Kaouache

Board of Examiners

Chairman: Prof. Nacif Labeled

University of Constantine 1

Supervisor: Prof. Salah Kaouache

University of Constantine 1

Member: Prof. Youcef Beghoul

University of Constantine 1

Member: Prof. Said Keskes

University of Sétif

Member: Dr. Saliha Chelli

University of Biskra

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Dedication

I dedicate this work to my parents who taught me determination and perseverance.

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Abstract

One important speech act speakers employ for restoring harmony is apology. Learners of English as a foreign language find it difficult to perform since it is essential to realize whether a specific action or utterance calls for an apology or not and make use of appropriate linguistic forms. The current study aims at investigating the apology strategies used by 60 Algerian undergraduate students of English at the University of Constantine 1 in relation to social status, social distance and severity of the offense. It is hypothesized that the most predominant factor that determines the selection, frequency and intensity of apology strategies is the seriousness of the offense. Data for analysis are collected through a Discourse Completion Questionnaire. Interviews are also conducted. The findings reveal that the respondents prefer giving direct expressions of apology and taking on responsibility more than the other strategies. They also resort to new strategies. These include a call to hold anger, determinism and arrogance. The results further show that EFL learners intensify the apologies given to high status interlocutors to evade academic penalty. They give simple expressions of apology to acquaintances but polite and complex ones to strangers. Such formal apologies are given to close friends when the offense is perceived as severe. Learners' intensified apologies are given more frequently in high severity situations. It becomes obvious that the severity of the offense is the predominant factor that determines the selection and intensity of apology strategies. All the interviewees agree that apology speech act maintains a good relationship among people. They believe using explicit apology teaching in a language classroom would enable them to select appropriate apology strategies in different contexts and that comparing the similarities and differences of Algerian Arabic and English apology could raise their ability to communicate in English.

Key Words: Apology speech act, EFL learners, Discourse Completion Task (DCT), apology strategies.

List of Abbreviations

CP: Conversational Principle

D: Distance

DCT: Discourse Completion Task

FL: Foreign Language

FTA: Face Threatening Act

H: Hearer

IFIDs: Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices

IL: Inter-language

ILP: Inter Language Pragmatics

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

NL: Native Language

P: Power

PRM: Primary Remedial Moves

R: Ranking of Imposition

S: Speaker

SA: Speech Act

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

TL: Target Language

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Introduction

1. Statement of the Problem

Earlier views on foreign language education have focused on the learning of the target language lexical items and grammatical rules. Learners are taught how language works in terms of its different forms. These learners manage to attain a good command of the target language at the levels of syntax, lexis, grammar and pronunciation, but since real language use is a dynamic, creative, culturally sensitive, and communicative endeavor, they are ultimately unsuccessful. It becomes important that for them to be successful language users. EFL learners should be aware of the socio-cultural rules that govern the use of linguistic forms. EFL learners may fail to communicate effectively if they have a lack of sociolinguistic awareness.

To achieve their communicative goals, speakers employ a variety of speech acts such as apologies, requests, complaints and refusals. Although speech acts are embedded in all languages, they differ in verbalization and conceptualization from one culture to another. Language learners may have access to the same range of speech acts as native speakers do; yet, they fail to choose the appropriate patterns for realizing them. These patterns vary considerably across speech communities. In other words, the forms used to realize a specific act in one community are not similar to those used to realize the same act in another. These differences in forms are dictated by other differences in the social and cultural rules of each speech community. Specific actions or circumstances which call for a specific speech act in one language may not be the same in the other. While these specificities of the verbalization and conceptualization of speech acts are acquired by native speakers in early years of development, the situation is different with foreign language learners. These learners are likely to face communication difficulties when engaging in conversations. While grammatical problems as word order and intonation are perceived as errors indicating a less proficient language user, pragmatic problems

as producing a specific speech act whose function is not considered as appropriate in a given situation may offend the hearer.

One speech act that is frequently used in conversation for restoring harmony between speakers is apology. It is difficult to perform since it is essential that language learners realize whether a specific action or utterance calls for an apology or not and make use of appropriate linguistic forms. The choice of these linguistic forms is affected by social and contextual factors including power, distance and severity of the offense (Trosborg, 1987). Inter-language studies have shown that linguistically competent learners are likely to transfer L1 pragmatic rules in their L2 production. It is due to transfer that communication difficulties arise. Learners of English can escape such difficulties only if they are aware of the pragma-linguistic and sociolinguistic similarities and differences between their native language and the target language.

2. Aims of the Study

The aim of the present study is to investigate the apology strategies employed by Algerian third year students of English at the university of Constantine 1. It also aims at highlighting the influence of social status, social distance and severity of the offense on the choice, frequency, and intensity of the apology strategies.

3. Research Questions

Two central research questions guided the study

1. What are the semantic formulas EFL learners use to realize the speech act of apology?
2. To what extent do the strategies employed reflect distance, power differences and severity perceptions among the informants?

4. Hypothesis

On the basis of the above questions, it can be hypothesized that the most predominant factor that determines the selection, frequency and intensity of apology strategies is the seriousness of the offense.

5. Research Methodology

5.1 Informants

The current study involves 60 Algerian third year LMD students of English at the university of Frères Mentouri-Constantine 1. They are undergraduate students working towards a BA degree in Applied Language Studies aged between nineteen and twenty five. The reason why only third year students are selected to take part in the study is that they have been studying English for three years and thus, believed to have acquired knowledge of how apologies are constructed and interpreted under a number of social constraints. Variables such as age, major of study and English proficiency level are not considered. The informants are homogeneous in many aspects such as social class, educational background and age. They, consequently, share similar linguistic and value systems with the whole population.

5.2 Instruments

To elicit data on the realization patterns of apology speech act employed by the informants, a Discourse Completion Questionnaire based on Olshtain and Cohen's (1983) model is adopted. The questionnaire consists of 12 situations designed to be categorized by the social status, social distance and severity of offense. The informants are asked to write down what they would say in each situation.

The social factor of relative power is assigned to participants by the way of their institutionalized role in society. Three categories are used to classify the data in terms of interlocutor's relative power. (1) + status (high status), (2) = status (equal status), (3) – status (low status).

Social distance is taken to represent the degree of familiarity between the interlocutors. Three categories are used to classify the data in terms of social distance: (1) + distance (a stranger), (2) = distance (an acquaintance), and (3) – distance (a close friend).

As to severity of offense, two categories are used: (1) + severity (high severity), (2) – severity (low severity).

Interviewing is also another instrument that is adopted in the present study. It aims to find out more information about the strategies that Algerian EFL learners at the University of Frères Mentour-Constantine 1 use to apologize in different sociolinguistic situations and also provide information of learners' opinions about the significance of apology speech act and apology teaching in foreign language classrooms. The data are studied from the interviews undertaken with 8 participants. These participants are coded as S1 to S8.

It is important to note that interviewing is adopted to make up for the shortcomings of the Discourse Completion Questionnaire. They provide better understanding of the respondents' perceptions of the underlying social rules that monitor their production of apologies in each of the twelve situations.

5.3 Procedure

The Discourse Completion Questionnaire is pilot tested to establish the contextual appropriateness of the situations in eliciting the speech act under study. It is also important to test the clarity of the instructions; whether the instructions are understandable by all the respondents

and that no ambiguity as to what the informants should do. No time limit is set for the participants to complete the task.

6. Structure of the Study

The present study falls in seven chapters. Chapter one provides a review of literature relevant to communicative competence, pragmatics, inter-language pragmatics and pragmatic transfer. Chapter two presents an overview of speech acts and politeness theories. Chapter three discusses the literature review on apology speech act; its definitions, categorizations and the studies conducted on it. Chapter four provides the research methodology. It discusses the data elicitation techniques adopted in the study, the procedure and the coding scheme used for data analysis. Chapter five contains the findings of the DCTs. The use of apology strategies, the new employed ones and the effect of the variables on the choice, frequency and intensity of these strategies. Chapter six presents the findings of the interviews data analysis of learners' views with regard the importance of apology speech act, strategy choice and apology teaching. Chapter seven summarizes the main findings and discusses some pedagogical implications and suggestions for future research.

Chapter 1: Communicative Competence and Pragmatics

Introduction

Communicative competence and pragmatics are notions on which considerable literature exists. In this chapter, the definitions given to the concept of communicative competence and its models are viewed. Then, the notions of pragmatics, inter-language pragmatics and pragmatic transfer are explored.

1.1 Communicative Competence

1.1.1 A Historical Overview

The notion of ‘competence’ was first introduced by Chomsky (1965) to mean the shared knowledge of the “ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech community who knows language perfectly” (p.3). It is the knowledge an idealized speaker possesses about the possible grammatical structures. Such knowledge enables the user of a language to understand and produce an infinite number of sentences. He also uses the term ‘performance’ to refer to the “actual use of language in concrete situations”(p.4) which is an “imperfect manifestation of [the] underlying system”(p.272). It “shows numerous false starts, deviations from rules, changes of plan in mid-course” (p.15). For Chomsky, performance does not constitute the subject matter of linguistics. The task of a linguist is, thus, to “determine from the data of performance the underlying system of rules that has been mastered by the speaker” (p.15).

Based on the fact that performance can never completely reflect competence except under the ideal circumstances (the speaker and listener know and use language perfectly without making any mistakes), Hymes (1972) points out that Chomsky’s notion of ‘competence’ does not provide an explicit place for socio-cultural factors or differential competence in a

heterogeneous speech community. "such a theory of competence posits ideal objects in abstraction from socio-cultural features that might enter into their description" (p.271). In order to achieve communicative actions, knowledge of linguistic rules should be supported by the competence of using language appropriately in social situations. It involves "when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner" (p.277).

Hymes (1972) introduces the notion of 'communicative competence' to cover the speaker's underlying knowledge of the rules of grammar including phonology, syntax and semantics as well as rules for their use in socially appropriate circumstances. "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless. Just as rules of syntax can control aspects of phonology, and just as semantic rules perhaps control aspects of syntax, so rules of speech acts enter as a controlling factor for linguistic form as a whole"(p.278). Hymes points out that "there are several sectors of communicative competence, of which the grammatical is one. Put otherwise, there is behavior, and, underlying it, there are several systems of rules reflected in the judgments and abilities of those whose messages the behavior manifests"(p.281). Communicative competence comprises the following four different aspects of knowledge:

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

As can be seen, Hymes views communicative competence as the interaction of grammatical (what is formally possible), psycholinguistic (what is feasible in terms of human

information processing), socio-cultural (what is the social meaning or value of a given utterance), and probabilistic (what actually occurs) systems of competence.

Savignon (1997) summarizes four main characteristics of communicative competence indicating that (1)“it is a dynamic concept, (2) applies to both spoken and written language, (3) is context specific, (4) is relative and dependent on the cooperation of all participants”(pp.14-15). The last feature emphasizes the social aspect of competence in communication. Paulston (1974) suggests that second language classroom teaching should not merely stress on the grammatical accuracy but also incorporate rules of speaking into it. Nunn (2006) claims that the communicative competence theory influences the emphasis of what is taught from teaching language as grammar system towards teaching language for usage in social context.

Hymes’s insights regarding communicative competence have also had an important influence in the field of second language acquisition and second language pedagogy. A variety of studies on communicative language teaching and its usage in classrooms and syllabuses are carried out (Johnson, 1982; Littlewood, 1981; Savignon, 1983; Yalden, 1983). Different researchers attempt to define the specific components of the construct of communicative competence. Three main models are proposed.

1.1.2 Models of Communicative Competence

1.1.2.1 Canale and Swain’s Model

In 1980, Canale and Swain propose their model of communicative competence. At first, such model has three main components: grammatical, sociolinguistic and strategic. Later, Canale (1983) transfers some elements from socio-linguistic competence into a fourth component which he names discourse competence.

Grammatical competence is concerned with knowledge of lexical items, rules of morphology, syntax and semantics. Such knowledge enables a user of language to understand and produce an indefinite number of utterances. Alptekin (2002) defines it as directly related to Chomsky's linguistic competence; "the native speaker's knowledge of the syntactic, lexical, morphological and phonological features of the language, as well as the capacity to manipulate these features to produce well-formed words and sentences" (p. 57).

Sociolinguistic competence refers to knowledge of rules that underlies the appropriate comprehension and production of linguistic action in different socio-cultural contexts. It includes appropriateness of form and meaning. The former refers to the extent to which a particular meaning is represented in a linguistic form that is appropriate to the context. The latter, however, deals with the extent to which the particular communicative function the utterance expresses is judged as appropriate in the context of use. Discourse competence is used to refer to the mastery of combining grammatical forms to achieve a unified spoken or written text. Such unity (of a text) is achieved through cohesion; how pronouns, synonyms and parallel structures are used to link sentences together and cohesion; the logical relationships among the different parts of the text. They include repetition, consistency and relevance of ideas. Canale and Swain describe strategic competence as knowledge of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies used to compensate for breakdowns in communication. These strategies include paraphrasing, guessing, changes of register and style. Breakdowns in communication are generally due to insufficient competence in one or more components of communicative competence.

Three years later, Canale (1983) revises the above model of communicative competence and draws a distinction between discourse and sociolinguistic competence. Sociolinguistics would only include the socio-cultural rules of use whereas discourse competence deals with the mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified speech or written text.

Canale and Swain’s model has been criticized for it ignores the importance of the pragmatic component. Schachter (1990) asks “where does pragmatics fit into the Canale and Swain’s framework; is it assumed not to exist?” (p. 42). Although the previous model includes pragmatics within sociolinguistic competence, Bachman (1990) is the first researcher to divide language competence into organizational and pragmatic competence.

1.1.2.2 Bachman’s Model

In the late 1980s, Bachman proposes a more comprehensive and much clearer model of communicative competence.

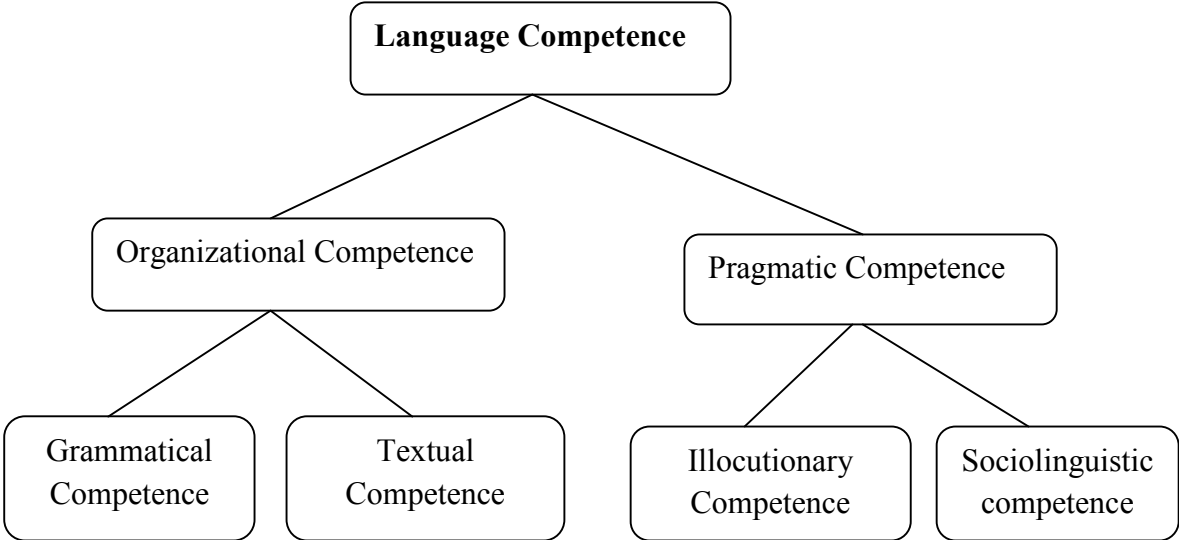


Figure 1: Bachman’s (1990, p.87) Model of Communicative Competence

In his view, a language user’s competence to communicate consists of two areas- language knowledge and strategic competence. Language knowledge includes two main components-organizational knowledge and pragmatic knowledge. Organizational knowledge refers to “the knowledge of linguistic units and the rules of joining them together at the levels of sentence and discourse”(p.87). It includes two types of abilities: grammatical and textual. Grammatical competence includes control over vocabulary, morphology, syntax and phonology. It enables a language user to form grammatically correct sentences as well as understand their

propositional content. Textual competence covers the ability to join utterances together to form a unified whole. It includes knowledge of cohesion: ways of marking semantic relationships in a written text or utterances in a conversation, knowledge of rhetorical organization: ways of developing descriptive, comparative or narrative texts and conversational organization: conventions for initiating, maintaining and closing conversations.

Bachman's contribution, in comparison to the previous models of communicative competence, lies in the second type of competence, that is to say, pragmatic competence. It is divided into 'illocutionary competence' and 'sociolinguistic competence'. Illocutionary competence deals with "the knowledge of communicative action and how to carry it out". It "enables us to use language to express a wide range of functions, and interpret the illocutionary force of utterances or discourse" (p.94), which can be introduced by reference to the theory of speech acts. Illocutionary competence includes four functions: ideation, manipulation, heuristic and imagination. In order to be illocutionary competent, people need to develop the abilities of all these functions.

Knowledge of ideational functions enables us to express or interpret meaning in terms of our experience of the real world. Knowledge of manipulative functions enables us to use language to affect the world around us. Knowledge of heuristic functions enables us to use language to extend the knowledge of the world around us. Knowledge of imaginative functions enables us to use language to create an imaginary world or extend the world around us for humorous or aesthetic purposes. (Bachman & Palmer, 2001, pp.47-49).

Sociolinguistic competence refers to sensitivity to dialect or variety, register, naturalness, cultural references and figures of speech. It includes the ability to correctly perform language functions in the corresponding context.

Regional and social dialects are governed by different conventions and the appropriateness of the linguistic code used in each variety differs depending on the context. Sensitivity to register enables the speaker to distinguish variation in language use within a single

dialect or variety. Sensitivity to naturalness refers to the ability of language learners to formulate and interpret an utterance which is not only linguistically accurate, but which is also phrased in a ‘native-like’ way (Pawley & Syder, 1983). The ability to interpret cultural references and figures of speech enables us to use and interpret cultural references and figures of speech in certain contexts (Bachman, 1990; Bachman & Palmer, 2010).

1.1.2.3 Celce-Muricia Model

Celce-Muricia et al. (1995) are the first to establish the connection among the components of the concept of communicative competence. Their model is displayed in figure 2 below.

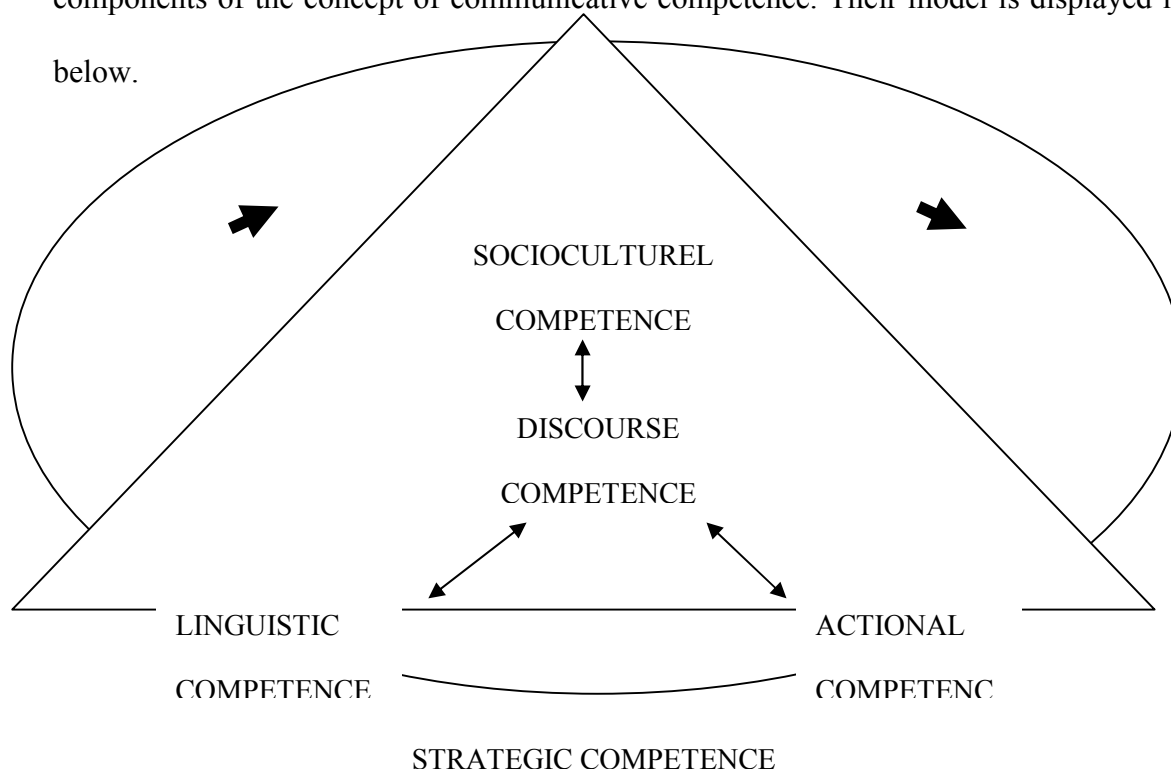


Figure 2 : Celce-Muricia et al. ’s (1995, p.10) Model of Communicative Competence

In their model of communicative competence, Celce-Murcia et al.(1995) refer to pragmatic competence as actional competence. It involves understanding of interlocutors’ communicative intents by performing and interpreting speech acts. Discourse competence is concerned with the selection of sequencing sentences to achieve a unified spoken or written text. Unlike Canale and Swain’s (1980), Bachman’s (1990) grammatical competencies which merely

include grammatical abilities, linguistic competence, in this model, comprises the basic elements of communication such as phonological, orthographic, morphological and lexical forms. Socio-cultural competence covers knowledge of social context, stylistic appropriateness, cultural factors (i.e., socio-cultural background, dialect differences and cross-cultural awareness) as well as nonverbal communicative acts. Strategic competence refers to knowledge of communication strategies and how to use them.

To sum up, the model proposed by Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) shows “how complex, socially and culturally situated and contextualized the mastery of another language actually is” (Miller, 2003, p.24). This model is important because it shows that in order to be communicatively competent in a given language; all the parts need to be developed. Moreover, it plays a crucial role as it integrates and connects those parts (linguistic, actional, socio-cultural and strategic competence) to each other to build discourse competence.

In second language contexts, it has been found that learners who have mastery over language grammatical rules may still be unable to produce language that is socially and culturally appropriate. They should also know culturally acceptable language usages in different contexts. Communicative competence should, thus, be the goal of second language teaching. All the models of communicative competence especially the one proposed by Bachman (1990) pay particular attention to the pragmatic component.

1.2 Pragmatics

1.2.1 Theoretical Background on Pragmatics

The term ‘pragmatics’ was first introduced by Morris (1938). He points out that language, as a system of signs, may be governed by syntactic, semantic and pragmatic rules. Syntactic rules determine the grammatical relations of signs (linguistic units) to one another and the

grammatical structures of sentences that result from these grammatical relations. Semantic rules determine the conditions under which signs may be applicable to objects or events. Pragmatic rules determine the relations which signs have to their producers and interpreters. Pragmatics, thus, deals with “all the psychological, biological and sociological phenomena which occur in the functioning of signs” (p.108).

Morris’s claim that signs have three types of relations: to objects, to other signs and to producers provides a place of social context for language study.

Although pragmatics had its roots in semiotics, it was not until the 1970s that this field came to be recognized as a separate discipline. Chomsky’s (1957) distinction between ‘competence’ and ‘performance’ and Saussure’s (1959) concepts of ‘langue’ and ‘parole’ focus on isolated linguistic structures without taking into account the real use of language which is communication. Leech (1983) states that “we cannot really understand the nature of language itself unless we understand pragmatics: how language is used in communication” (p.1). For this reason, scholars such as Austin (1962), Searle (1969), and Grice (1975) attack these works that see language as merely an abstract system. As Huang (2007) points out, Levinson’s (1983) work entitled ‘Pragmatics’ systematizes the field and marks the coming of pragmatics as a linguistic discipline in its own right. Since then, Pragmatics has been defined differently by several scholars.

Levinson (1983) claims that pragmatics is distinct from syntax, which is the study of the rules that determine the grammatically possible combinations of words and from semantics, which is the study of meaning. It is “the study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with the context in which they would be appropriate” (p.24). May (1993) also regards pragmatics as “the study of the conditions of human language uses as these are determined by the context of society” (p.42). The importance of context is also stressed by Jaszycyolt (2002) who states “

pragmatics is the study of how hearers add contextual information to the semantic structure and how they draw inferences from what is said” (p.1).

Crystal (1985) states that “pragmatics is the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication” (p.240). In other words, pragmatics is the study of language usage determined by the socio-cultural conditions of the speech community.

Thomas (1995) criticizes Crystal’s definition by stating that Crystal focuses on the producer of the message while interaction contains other important aspects as well. In his view, Crystal takes a social view by defining pragmatics as speaker meaning and overlooking hearer’s interpretation or utterance interpretation. In his definition of pragmatics, Yule (1996) takes into consideration these aspects by stating that pragmatics is “the study of speaker meaning [...] the study of contextual meaning [...] the study of how more gets communicated than is said [...] the study of the expression of relative distance” (p. 4). Pragmatics, thus, studies what the speaker means and intends by his utterance. This feature of pragmatics covers the field of speech acts; these are actions performed via utterances. Speech acts were first introduced by Austin in the 1960’s and 1970’s.

Second, pragmatics studies how context influences what is said and how speech is structured in accordance with who is listening. For example, speakers construct their utterances differently when speaking to a friend than to a teacher. The conversation that the participants engage in has a structure. In addition to aspects of turn-takings, leavings of the floor, pauses, overlaps, there are other linguistic aspects such as coherence and the ability to use and understand adjacency pairs (Bialystok, 1993). These are pairs of utterances that follow each other. They consist of an initiating utterance and a response utterance (Crystal, 2010). Situational routines are conventional utterances that are used in specific situations (Roever, 2006). They

include greetings, leave-takings and certain question-answer pairings. These routines assure natural interaction. According to Yamashita (2008), routine expressions such as “please speak slowly” or “what does it mean?” are helpful when learners face communication problems (p. 212).

Thirdly, pragmatics studies what inferences can be made from the speaker’s utterance. It is not only interested about ‘what is said’ but also ‘what is meant’. Generally, it is difficult to interpret the real meaning the speakers want to convey. Grice (1975) is the first to distinguish between what is said and what is meant. He introduces the notion of implicature ; the speaker’s conveyed meaning. According to Grice, interpreting the speaker’s meaning is possible on the basis of the shared background knowledge and the features of the speaker’s utterance. Grice creates the cooperative principle with its maxims. He considers them important for successful interactions.

Finally, Yule states that pragmatics deals with how the speaker and hearer’s closeness or distance affects what is said or not said. As people strive for harmony, they adopt rules and conventions which ensure polite interaction. Such politeness “deal [s] with perceptions, expectations, and conventional realizations of communicative strategies which enhance social harmony” (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, p. 25). Politeness, which is first introduced by Brown and Levinson in 1978 as a pragmatic phenomenon, varies according to the speakers’ perceived closeness or distance with each other. Brown and Levinson acknowledge that socially distant and socially close speakers use different politeness strategies.

Thomas (1995) also considers that both speaker meaning and utterance interpretation are important in the definition of pragmatics. Thomas (1995) defines pragmatics as “meaning in interaction” (p. 22). Thomas regards language as a dynamic process: the speaker and listener make meanings in communication which are in turn influenced by the physical and social context. In contrast to syntax and semantics, pragmatics analyses human actions. This has its

advantages and disadvantages: on the one hand, it is interesting to study how people make sense of each other but on the other hand, it is challenging to study individuals and their minds (Yule, 1996).

All the definitions which have been explored so far emphasize two different features of pragmatics which differentiate this field from other disciplines such as semantics and syntax. First of all, pragmatics takes into consideration the users of the language. Secondly, Context in which the users interact with each other is regarded as important in the interpretation of their utterances.

Since both pragmatic competence and socio-linguistic competence make reference to the appropriateness of language use depending on different contexts. Leech & Thomas (1983) have subdivided pragmatics into two components; pragma-linguistics and socio-pragmatics. While the former refers to the linguistic means of conveying the intended meanings including pragmatic strategies like directness, indirectness, routines and other forms which intensify or soften communicative acts. , the latter is described as “the sociological interface of pragmatics” (p10), referring to the social perceptions underlying participants’ performance and interpretation of communicative action. It consists of knowledge of speech acts, politeness conventions, and conversation structure. Roever (2006) affirms that both socio-pragmatic and pragma-linguistic competences are essential for language users and thus, they are closely connected. If speakers do not have a good command of socio-pragmatic conventions, they may unintentionally be offensive, too outspoken or incomprehensible (McNamara & Roever, 2006). Furthermore, speakers lacking in pragma-linguistic competence can be excluded from a conversation).

In Bachman’s (1990) model of communicative competence, pragmatic competence includes illocutionary competence that enables a user of language to produce and understand the illocutionary force of language functions and socio-linguistic competence that contributes to the production of contextually appropriate utterances. According to Kasper (1992), pragmatic

competence refers to the acquisition of pragmatic knowledge and to gaining automatic control in processing it in real time. Pragmatic knowledge reflects the concepts of socio-pragmatic (evaluation of contextual factors) and pragma-linguistic (linguistic means for performing language functions).

Cohen (1996) proposes that a pragmatically competent language user has two abilities; socio-cultural ability and socio-linguistic ability. Socio-cultural ability enables a speaker to choose the speech act appropriate for the context in which it occurs and socio-linguistic enables him to choose the language form for realizing the speech act. Kasper and Rose (2002) define becoming pragmatically competent as “the process of establishing socio-pragmatic and pragma-linguistic competence and the increasing ability to understand and produce socio-pragmatic meanings with pragma-linguistic conventions” (p. 318).

To sum up, pragmatics is the study of the factors that influence speakers’ choice of language in social interactions and the effects of these choices on others. Since pragmatic competence is one of the most important complements of a speaker’s communicative competence, learners need to develop their L2 pragmatic competence which consists of the knowledge of pragmatic aspects such as speech acts, politeness conventions and conversation structure. Many studies have focused on the aspects of pragmatic competence of native and nonnative speakers which pave the way to the development of fields such as inter-language pragmatics and cross-cultural pragmatics.

The study of the acquisition of pragmatic competence in a second language is generally referred to as inter-language pragmatics (ILP). It has received considerable attention from researchers in recent years. The central object of inter-language research is to explain how non-native speakers differ from native speakers in understanding and producing linguistic action in communication. It covers a wide range of phenomena including the ways in which language encodes features of the context of utterance, conversational implicatures and presupposition, the

use of language to perform speech acts, conversational structure, and the conversational work undertaken

1.2.2 Pragmatics and Second Language Acquisition

1.2.2.1 Inter-language Pragmatics

The term Inter-language (IL) was first coined by Selinker (1972) to refer to the linguistic system a second language learner produces when s/he attempts to express meanings in the target language. As emphasized by Ellis (1994), this system is viewed as separate, clearly different from both the learner's native language (NL) and the target language (TL) being learned.

Prior to the development of the idea of inter-language, contrastive analysts assert that learners' language is shaped only by transfer from the native language. However, in the late 1960s, error analysts argue that great deals of learners' 'errors' are not due to transfer and that these learners experience a continuum between their mother tongue and the target language before mastering the language. Selinker (1972) calls such interval 'inter-language'. Inter-language has been viewed as the result of a variety of processes. They include negative language transfer, overgeneralization of target language rules, transfer of training, strategies of communication, and strategies of learning.

Inter-language studies have generally focused on phonology, morphology and syntax. However, by the emergence of the communicative competence approach, inter-language studies have been expanded to include the socio-linguistic component of this approach. In Kasper and Rose's (1999) article *Pragmatics and SLA*, they claim that "Pragmatics has two roles in SLA: It acts as a constraint on linguistic forms and their acquisition, and it represents a type of communicative knowledge and object of second language (L2) learning in its own right" (p.81). By focusing on language learner's knowledge, use and acquisition of L2 pragmatics, they

introduce the concept of ‘ inter-language pragmatics’ to refer to “ the study of non-native speakers use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge” (p. 81).

Kasper and Rose (2002) describe ILP as a subfield of both SLA research and pragmatics.

The study of second language use, inter-language pragmatics examines how nonnative speakers comprehend and produce action in a target language. As the study of second language learning, inter-language pragmatics investigates how L2 learners develop the ability to understand and perform action in a target language. (p.5)

Research in inter-language pragmatics focuses on “describing and explaining learners’ use, perception, and acquisition of second language (L2) pragmatic ability both in L2 and FL contexts. Regarding learners’ use, most of the studies have been comparative given its closeness to cross-cultural pragmatics, and their main focus of research has been speech acts” (Alcon & Martinez-Flor, 2008, p.8). Thus, Research in inter-language pragmatics have included comparative work on the way in which second language learners perform speech acts across three linguistic systems and concentrated on the evidence of pragmatic transfer; the learners’ employment of the norms, strategies and phrases used in their native language by comparing three types of data:“(1) the baseline data from native speakers of the learner’ s native language, (2) the inter-language data from the learners, (3) the target baseline data from native speakers of the target language” (Kasper, 1992, p. 223).

It also investigates how these learners differ from native speakers of the target language in terms of their perceptions of illocutionary forces, production of linguistic action and the influence of contextual variables on the choices of the linguistic means for realizing these speech acts (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1986; Scarcella, 1979; Takahashi, 1996; Trosborg, 1987, Koike, 1996; Maeshiba et al., 1996; Hill, 1997, Rose, 1998). Findings of these inter-language pragmatic studies show that there are differences between languages with regard to when particular linguistic forms should be performed and with what strategy. They also indicate that learners use almost the same speech act realization strategies as native speakers. However, learners differ

from native speakers in selecting conventions of form and means according to social context (Kasper & Rose, 1999).

As the great majority of ILP studies have focused on L2 use rather than development, there are only a few longitudinal studies in ILP (Bouton, 1992; Ellis, 1992; Sawyer, 1992; Cohen, 1997).

For these learners to be effective communicators, they have to learn the conventions of language use: what linguistic forms should be used and under what conditions.

1.2.2.2 Pragmatic Universality and Culture Specificity

Researchers within inter-language pragmatics have always placed great importance on the issue of universality. Speech acts, as a key concept in inter-language pragmatics, have been claimed to be operated by universal pragmatic principles such as cooperation and politeness. Austin (1962) claims that speech acts are universal, they are found in all cultures. Searle (1975) argues that all languages have general linguistic means for realizing speech acts. In 1981, Cohen and Olshtain find out that non-native speakers use the same apology realization patterns as native speakers. Fraser (1985) compares requestive strategies in different languages. He concludes that the patterns for realizing such an act are similar. He further suggests that L2 learners do not need to be taught how to code their intentions. Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper (1989) examine the linguistic expressions utilized for performing the acts of request and apologies. Their findings support the claim of pragmatic universality in the realization patterns of speech acts.

Other scholars, however, maintain that speech acts are perceived and verbalized differently across cultures. Speech acts are influenced by differences of cultural conventions and social values. In a comparative study of indirect strategies, Blum-Kulka (1982) argues that “conventional indirect speech acts represent a special case of interdependence between conventions of language and conventions about the use of language” (p. 33). By giving examples

from Polish and Japanese, Weirzbicka (1991) argues that when and how to perform certain speech acts is based on cultural norms and values rather than on universal principles.

To sum up, although the strategies for performing speech acts are universal, their conceptualization and verbalization can vary to a great extent across languages and cultures. Speakers may use the same range of speech acts, but they may differ in their strategy selection in relation to different contexts.

1.2.3 Pragmatic Transfer

1.2.3.1 A Historical Overview on Pragmatic Transfer

The notion of transfer was first invoked by contrastive analysts who were greatly affected by behaviorist theories of language learning. These analysts assert that learners' L1 always affect their second language learning and that this effect is negative. (Fries, 1945; Lado, 1957). Lado (1957) claims that "those elements that, are similar to L2 learner's native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult" (p. 2). Based on this claim, learning difficulties stem from the differences between the learner's native and target language: "where two languages were different, there would be negative transfer or interference and that where two languages were similar, there would be positive transfer" (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991, p. 53).

In 1970s, Chomsky emphasizes the developmental nature of language acquisition. This results in two different ways of explaining the role of L1 influence. One is adopted by Selinker (1972) who considers transfer as one of the psycho-linguistic processes involved in second language acquisition. The other is associated with Ellis (1994) who minimizes the importance of L1 and emphasizes the contribution of universal processes of language learning such as hypothesis testing.

The two ways of dealing with transfer focus on learner's phonological, morphological and syntactic knowledge. After the emergence of the communicative approach, transfer has a much wider scope including the use of the rules of speaking of one speech community when communicating meanings in a second language.

Kasper (1992) defines pragmatic transfer as "the influence exerted by learner's pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension, production and L2 pragmatic information" (p. 207). Faerch and Kasper (1984) terms this "pragmatic knowledge" as "a particular component of language users' general communicative competence, viz. Knowledge of how verbal acts are understood and performed in accordance with a speaker's intention under contextual and discoursal constraints" (p. 215)

When L2 learners apply the socially appropriate rules of their native language to the target language situation, they are thought to be either unaware of TL rules or that they want to stick to their L1 norms of speech behavior.

For the successful production of a speech act in a target language, learners' first "have to recognize the extra-linguistic, cultural constraints that operate in a NS's choice of a particular speech act appropriate to the context. They also have to know how to realize this speech act at the linguistic level, and in accordance with L2 socio-cultural norms" (Kasper 1984, p. 3).

A great number of inter-language pragmatic studies have been conducted to observe L1 negative transfer in the L2 context. Some of them examine L1 transfer of learners perception towards different speech acts and various speech styles (Beebe et al. , 1990; Bergman & Kasper, 1993; Cohen & Olshtain, 1981; House, 1988; Olshtain, 1983). Others investigate learners L1 influence on the production of a speech act in L2 (Beebe et al. , 1990 ; Bergman & Kasper, 1993; Blum-Kulka, 1982; Faerch & Kasper, 1989; House, 1988; House & Kasper, 1987; Olshtain, 1983; Olshain & Blum-Kulka, 1985; Takahashi & Dufon, 1996; Takahashi, 1996; Trosborg, 1987).

1.2.3.2 Types of Pragmatic Transfer

Many inter-language studies have investigated what is transferred from L1 to L2. Some of these studies examine L1 transfer in learners' perceptions as to certain speech acts (Scarcella, 1983 ; Bergman & Kasper, 1993; Cohen & Olshtain, 1981; House, 1988). Others investigate L1 influence on learners' production of specific speech acts (Beebe et al., 1990; Blum-Kulka, 1982; House & Kasper, 1987; Olshtain & Blum-Kulka, 1985; Takahashi & Dufon, 1989; Trosborg, 1987). These studies show that pragmatic transfer in L2 learners' inter-language is of different types.

Stemming from the inseparable relationship between language and culture, Kasper (1992) identifies two types of pragmatic transfer: pragma-linguistic and socio-pragmatic. Pragma-linguistic transfer refers to "the process whereby the illocutionary force or politeness value assigned to a particular linguistic material in L1 influences learner's perception and production of form-function mappings in L2" (p. 209). Socio-pragmatic transfer operates in learner's perceptions of contextual factors, such as imposition, social status and social distance. (Beebe et al., 1990; Takahashi and Beebe, 1993); learners' assessment about whether a particular linguistic action is socially appropriate (Robinson, 1992), and learners' overall politeness style adopted in contexts (Blum-Kulka, 1982; Garcia, 1989; Olshtain and Cohen, 1989). Kasper (1992) claims: "socio-pragmatic transfer, then, is operative when the social perceptions underlying language users' interpretation and performance of linguistic action in L2 are influenced by their assessment of subjectively equivalent L1 contexts" (p. 209). With regard to pragma-linguistic transfer, Studies have focused on pragmatic routines (House, 1996), lexical and syntactic modification (Nikula, 1996) and on speech act realization strategies (Trosborg, 1995). As to socio-pragmatic transfer, studies have been conducted in three main areas: learners' evaluation of context factors (Nikula, 1996), the overall politeness style (Takahashi & Beebe, 1993) and the relative appropriateness of a particular speech act (Robinson, 1992).

Kasper (1992) claims that when identifying pragmatic transfer, looking at only the percentages by which a particular category occurs in the L1, L2, and IL data is not enough. She accepts that these figures do tell us something meaningful about pragmatic transfer, but cautions us that we need to employ procedures which allow us to make claims with reasonable confidence. She states that an adequate method for identifying pragmatic competence is to determine whether the differences between the inter-language and the learner's native language on a particular pragmatic feature are statistically significant and how these differences relate to the target language. She explains that lack of statistically significant differences in the frequencies of a pragmatic feature in L1, L2 and IL can be operationally defined as positive transfer. On the other hand, statistically significant differences in the frequencies of a pragmatic feature between IL-L2 and L1-L2 and lack of statistically significant differences between IL and L1 can be defined as negative transfer.

According to Kasper (1992), Pragmatic transfer can be either positive or negative. Positive transfer or 'facilitation' is the transfer of the similarities in expressing the function of the speech act in a certain form in context. In other words, it is observed when language specific conventions are shared by the language learners' L1 and L2. It does not hinder successful communication. Negative transfer or 'interference' occurs because of the learners' use of their L1 ideas, styles and semantic formulas that might convey another illocutionary act in L2. In other words, it is the inappropriate fallback on L1 norms and culture-bound peculiarities in form and function into L2. It leads to pragmatic failure.

In a study conducted by Cohen & Olshtain (1981) on the Hebrew learners of English, it has been found that L2 learners transfer the Hebrew feature of using less apology semantic expressions in their apologies in English. In another study on apology in Hebrew as a second language, Olshtain (1983) finds out that the English informants transfer their language styles and formulaic expression in performing the speech act of apology. These forms were not used in the same contexts by the Hebrew.

Other studies, however, show how the existence of universals between languages leads to positive transfer. Universality in expressing speech acts in L2 was found by Blum-Kulka (1989). She investigates the speech act of request as performed by the English learners of Hebrew as L2. Results show that learners positively transfer the common styles used in the requestive questions in English to Hebrew.

Scarcella (1979) finds that Spanish learners of English as L2 shifted the discourse accent styles into English appropriately which meant that what was considered proper in this communicative aspect in L1 was the same in L2. Thus, leading to positive pragmatic transfer and successful communication.

1.2.3.3 Transferability Constraints of Pragmatic Transfer

Many inter-language pragmatic studies have investigated the influence of learners' pragmatic knowledge on the perception and production of speech acts. These studies demonstrate that there are a number of factors that affect pragmatic transfer. Bou (1998) calls such conditions as transferability constraints.

One such factor is learner's perception of pragmatic universality or specificity (Blum-Kulka, 1983; Bodman & Eisenstein, 1988; House & Kasper, 1987; Olshtain, 1983; Takahashi, 1993). House & Kasper (1987) investigate the influence of L1 pragmatic knowledge on L2 pragmatic performance. They find that L2 learners may not transfer L1 pragmatic features to L2 if they perceive L1 features as specific.

Another study conducted by Olshtain (1983) reveals that transfer from L1 to L2 occurs when learners perceive L1 pragmatic feature as universal. Kasper (2001) notes that studies of inter-language pragmatic use demonstrate that adult learners rely heavily on universal or L1 based pragmatic knowledge

Length of stay in L2 community has also been found to be another transferability constraint. Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986) argue that such constraint is a positive factor in L2 pragmatic development.

Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993) find out that non-native speakers studying at a university in the United States of America utilize the speech acts preferred by native speakers as their length of stay in that community increases.

Bouton (1994) argues that ESL learners at an American university interpret implicatures appropriately as their length of stay increases.

Contrary to these findings, Kasper (1992) claims that length of stay in the target community does not ensure appropriate production and interpretation of linguistic action “extended residence in the target community does not in and of itself make negative pragmatic transfer go away” (p. 220).

Cultural information is also an important factor that influences the occurrence of pragmatic transfer. Eisenstein and Bodman (1986) investigate expressions of gratitude as utilized by native as well as non-native speakers of English. Findings reveal that Learners of English face difficulty expressing gratitude in L2.

Another factor that affects pragmatic transfer is linguistic proficiency. Many studies examine the relationship between proficiency and pragmatic performance of a particular speech act (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999; Kasper, 2001; Kasper & Ross, 1999).

Cohen and Olshtain (1981) compare apology production of Hebrew speakers at intermediate level to native speakers. They find that Hebrew learners utilize less apology strategies. They also do not adequately intensify their apologies. However, in their study on Hebrew speakers who are advanced learners of English, it has not been the case (Cohen, Olshtain & Rosenstein, 1986).

In a comparative study of apology speech act produced by native speakers of English, Danish and Danish EFL learners at three proficiency levels, Trosborg (1987) finds that the use of modality markers by EFL learners increases with their English proficiency.

However, other studies reveal that proficient L2 learners transfer L1 norms more frequently. Takahashi and Beebe (1987) compare refusals produced by high- proficiency and low-proficiency Japanese learners of English as a second language. They find that high-proficiency learners transfer more L1 socio-cultural norms to L2 while requesting. They applied their L1 formal tones of refusing in L2 speech act of refusing. Thus, their own language' s norms are transferred into L2 by means of their L2 linguistic knowledge.

In their study of the speech act of request as produced by the Japanese learners of English, Takahashi & Dufon (1989) prove that beginners transfer their L1 norms and styles in the realization of L2 request speech act. They used indirect strategies similar to those used by the Japanese in requesting. However, advanced learners do not transfer their L1 features. They did not use L1 hinting styles and were more direct similar to the English styles in requests.

The different views as to the effect of linguistic proficiency on pragmatic performance suggest the need for further research.

1.2.4 Pragmatic Failure

Research studies have often revealed that second language learners achieve an advanced level of grammatical competence; their inappropriate use of language in context often result in communication breakdowns. This kind of failure is generally referred to as pragmatic transfer. Riley (1989) describes pragmatic failure as “the result of an interactant imposing the social rules of one culture on his communicative behavior in a situation where the social rules of another culture would be more appropriate” (p. 234). Thomas (1983) refers to pragmatic failure as the inability to understand “ what is meant by what is said” (p. 91). Pragmatic failure occurs when

the H (hearer) perceives the force of the S's (speaker's) utterance as other than the S intended s/ he should perceive it. For example, if:

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

According to Thomas, there are two types of pragmatic failure: pragma-linguistic failure and socio- pragmatic failure

Pragma-linguistic failure refers to the inability to understand or encode the illocutionary force of an utterance appropriately, or as Thomas (1983) puts it " pragma-linguistic failure occurs when the pragmatic force mapped by S [...] is systematically different from the force most frequently assigned to it by native speakers of the target language" (p.99). That is when " a learner tries to perform the right speech act but uses the wrong linguistic means" (Ellis, 1994, p. 167). For example, the English expression 'can you x' is used by native speakers as a request to do x. However, native speakers of French and Russian use it as a question about one's ability to do x.

This kind of misunderstanding has its roots in the ambiguity of a message. Where utterances are indirect, the receiver of the message cannot infer meaning that is not explicitly stated.

Socio-pragmatic failure results from unfamiliarity with the norms of another culture (Hurley, 1992). According to Thomas (1983), socio-pragmatic failure “ stems from cross-culturally different perceptions of what constitutes appropriate linguistic behavior ” (p.99).

Research on the two components of pragmatic competence show that, in L2 classrooms, pragma-linguistic failures are often due to either transfer from learners’ first language (L1) or teacher-induced errors (Thomas, 1983). Although the benefits of instruction in developing pragmatic competence is now acknowledged, teaching can over-emphasize L1 strategies, certain aspects of pragmatics and an overall lack of pragmatic focus can be found in language classrooms (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001).

According to Kasper and Rose (2002), learners tend to struggle more with socio-pragmatic than with pragma-linguistic aspects of language. Similarly, Thomas (1983) states that pragma-linguistic failures are easy to overcome since pragma-linguistic competence involves the knowledge of conventions which is quite straightforward to teach and learn. Socio-pragmatic failures, in contrast, are more serious because they deal with student’ s system of beliefs as much as his/ her knowledge of the language. Learners can also choose not to use the conventions of the target language to assert their own identity (McNamara & Roever, 2006). Thus, the teacher is responsible of raising learners’ awareness of socio-pragmatic and pragma-linguistic aspects of language.

Conclusion

Second language learners should acquire the rules of language use and ways of speaking as well as linguistic competence. Sharpening learners’ awareness of appropriate socio-progmatic behavior through explicit teaching is important (Trosborg, 1995; Kasper, 2001). More specifically, pragmatic and grammatical awareness are largely independent, and high levels of grammatical competence do not guarantee concomitant high levels of pragmatic competence (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999).

Chapter 2: Overview of Speech Act and Politeness Theories

Introduction

In this chapter, a review of literature on scholars' work in the field of speech act theory; the definitions and categorization systems are presented. The key concepts about the phenomenon of Politeness are provided.

2.1 Classical Work on Speech Act Theory

For much of the history of linguistics, meaning has been explained through some forms of reduction. The meaning of a sentence is reduced to a fact to which this sentence corresponds. Dowty, Wall, and Peters (1985) claim that to explain the meaning of a sentence is to specify its truth conditions, i.e., to give necessary and sufficient conditions for the truth of that sentence. Language, thus, is viewed as a tool for making factual assertions. That is a tool which is primarily interested in providing statements about the world, for these to be true or false; they must contain a testable proposition. For example, if one says: 'it is cold outside', one can go out and test the truth of the statement. Such a rather limited view seems to exclude a range of everyday utterances which carry no information about the world outside language. This is because they refer to themselves and are therefore self-reflexive utterances. If one says 'good luck', he is just talking about the truth of his feelings not the truth of the wish. Austin (1962) argues against the view that the only function of language is to state facts. He claims that language has many other functions than what language philosophers believe.

2.1.1 Austin's Theory of Speech Act

In his famous work, *How to Do Things with Words*, Austin (1962) outlines his theory of speech acts which explains how language can be used not only to describe things, but also to do

them. First, Austin establishes a clear distinction between constatives ; statements that attempt to describe reality and which can be judged true or false depending on their correspondence (or not) with the facts and other sentences which are not so used and thus not truth-evaluable; instead, when something is wrong with them, then they are felicitous or infelicitous depending on whether or not they successfully perform the act in question. They include interrogatives and directives. Austin calls them performatives. For example, if one utters *I name this ship the queen Elizabeth*, he does not describe a state of affairs in the real world. Rather, he brings a state of affairs into existence by virtue of his utterance. That is, the mere fact that I have said the words produces the event to which I am referring. Thanks to my utterance, the ship is named where it was not before. The performative is therefore an act and not a representation of something else.

Performatives can be either explicit or implicit. When explicit, they make clear what act one is performing. An example is, *I beseech you to defend my honour* . It is assumed that underlying every utterance (U), there is a clause containing a performative verb (VP) which makes the function explicit. The basic format of the underlying clause is: I (hereby) Vp you (that) + U

I hereby beseech you that you defend my honour.

The subject must be first person singular+ the adverb ‘hereby’ , indicating that the utterance counts as an action by being uttered+ a performative verb in the present tense + indirect object in the second person singular. In an utterance like ‘I promise to come’ , ‘I ’ has performed the promise of coming and established a ‘binding obligation’. However, ‘I promised to come’ is not performative. Here, the sentence describes a state of affairs that has happened once upon a time. It is not a speech act of ‘promising’ despite the use of the word ‘promise’. From this example, it seems clear and as Cruse (2000) states “performative verbs can be used either performatively or descriptively” (p. 334). When used performatively, it must be in the simple present tense, and when active in the first person.

In some other cases, it is not even important to use a specific verb that names the speech act one is performing. In the utterance *I order you to shut the door*, one can express the same order by using many other ordering verbs such as ‘to shut’ in the imperative as in *shut the door*. Many theoreticians believe that some verbs have the characteristic of being performative. *I hereby declare the bridge to be opened* when uttered in certain circumstances and by people in certain positions, it is by confronting to a convention that this utterance (containing one of such verbs) counts as the performance of an act of a certain sort. Utterances of this kind contain the adverb ‘hereby’ which is a criterion for a true performative speech act verb. It is used to test whether an utterance is performative i.e, there exists a performative verb. Hereby is to be inserted between the subject and the verb. If the utterance makes sense, so the verb is performative. However, since one can say *I declare my innocence* (which is not performative), this shows that ‘hereby’ is an indicator of speech act verbs in general and not exclusively of performatives. So, the function of the utterance is created by the form. However, the utterance succeeds only if certain external conditions are fulfilled. Austin (1962) calls them felicity conditions. These refer to the conditions that must be in place for the speech act in question to be performed successfully or felicitously.

A. • There must be a conventional procedure having a conventional effect.

- The circumstances and persons must be appropriate.

B. The procedure must be executed correctly and completely.

C. • The persons must have the requisite thoughts, feelings and intentions

- If consequent conduct is specified, then the relevant parties must do it. (pp. 14-15).

In his view, only certain people are qualified to declare war, baptize people or sentence convicted fellows. They include first, there must exist an accepted conventional procedure having a certain conventional effect. This procedure includes the uttering of certain words by

certain persons in certain circumstances and further, the particular persons and circumstances in a given case must be appropriate for the invocation of the particular procedure. Thomas (1995) describes marriage in western societies as

This conventional procedure involves a man and a woman, who are not debarred from marrying for any reason, presenting themselves before an authorized person, in an authorized place at an approved time accompanied by a minimum of two witnesses. They must go through a specified form of marriage: the marriage is not legal unless certain declarations are made and unless certain words have been spoken (p. 38).

The violations of these conditions are described as “misinvocations” in which the purported act is disallowed (p.18). Second, the procedure must be executed by all participants both correctly and completely. Violations of this second type of conditions are described as “mis-executions ” in which a purported act is vitiated. Third, the procedure is designed for use by persons having certain thoughts or feelings, or for the inauguration of certain consequential conduct on the part of any participant, then a person participating in and so invoking the procedure must in fact have those thoughts or feelings, and the participants must intend so to conduct themselves, and further must actually so conduct themselves subsequently (pp.14-15). Violations of these conditions are described as “an abuse”, in which the professed act is hollow (p.18). Violating such felicity conditions does not result in non-performance.

According to Austin, to utter a performative sentence is to be evaluated in terms of conventionality: the associated conventions which are valid, actuality or the speaker’s actual utterance that induces an associated response from the hearer, and intentionality: the associated intention of the speaker

An utterance like *I sentence you to death* has to fulfill a number of conditions to succeed: the words must be uttered by someone with the necessary authority (a judge), in a country where there is death penalty, to a person who has been convicted of a particular crime. The words must also be spoken not written, at the right time (the end of a trial), in the right place (in court).

After numerous attempts to find more characteristics of performatives which can distinguish them from constatives, Austin realizes that they function in essentially the same way. An utterance like 'I state...' can be infelicitous in the same way as uttering a performative one. First, there are some languages whose lexicon lacks a verb with a sense of 'to state' in English, yet they have verbs with a sense of 'to utter' and 'to say'. The speakers of such languages cannot perform the same speech act the English speaker would in uttering the sentence 'I state...', therefore violating the felicity conditions. However, the speaker can possibly perform similar acts and achieve similar effects by uttering the sentence with alternative verbs. Second, if the person I am talking to is not listening to me or thinks I am joking, 'I state...' is infelicitous. Third, if I state something without believing that it is the case, my utterance is infelicitous. Thus, even if the utterance 'I state...' appears to be related to making a statement, it is evaluated just like performatives in terms of the speech situation namely, conventionality, actuality and intentionality and thus subject to infelicities related to them.

Austin (1962) proposes a new trichotomy to analyze a speech act. He says that in uttering a sentence, the speaker performs three distinct acts.

A locutionary act: It is "the utterance of certain noises...certain words in a certain construction and the utterance of them with a certain sense and a certain reference" (p.92). It consists of three main acts: phonetic acts which are the acts of pronouncing sounds. Phatic acts which are acts of uttering words or sentences in accordance with the phonological and syntactic rules of the language to which they belong. Rhetic acts are the acts of uttering a sentence with a sense and a more or less definite reference. As sentences have lexical and grammatical ambiguities, what is said is not always identical to what the sentence means. In such a case, only one of the sentence's conventional meanings is operative. Also, linguistic meaning does not determine what indexicals like 'she' and this are used to refer to in an utterance like 'she wants

this book'. So along with linguistic information, the speaker's semantic intentions are often needed to determine fully what is said.

An illocutionary Act: is the act performed in uttering a sentence. It is the act which Austin claims that it is an utterance that has a certain (conventional) force. Such acts include: informing, claiming, guessing, warning or requesting.

Austin believes that the use of a sentence with a particular illocutionary force is conventional in the sense that this force can be made explicit by the performative formula. It is, however, argued that Austin was very impressed by those utterances that affect institutional state of affairs. In these explicit performative utterances, the act one performs is named by the verb used to realize it. The problem, however, with this view is that the same sorts of illocutionary acts that can be performed by means of such devices (performative verbs) can be performed without them. For example, in order to demand someone to be quite, one does not need to use a performative as in *I demand that you be quite*. Illocutionary acts thus succeed not by conforming to a convention but by recognition of intention. Recognizing such intention is not always easy. The speaker generally uses many indications that range from the obvious ones, such as performative verbs to the more vague ones including paralinguistic features such as stress and intonation as well as word order. The hearer should also be acquainted with the context in which the speech act occurs.

A perlocutionary Act: it is " what speakers bring about or achieve by saying something. The speaker may be performing the act of thanking, claiming, guessing, reminding, warning, threatening or requesting by uttering an act" (Austin, 1962, p. 150). Such act consists of the effect the utterance has on the hearer. Speech acts were first classified by Austin (1975). He outlines five types:

Verdictives: these acts consist in “ the giving of verdict by jury” or in“ the delivering of a finding, official or unofficial, upon evidence or reasons as to value or fact so far as these are distinguishable” (p.152). These include verbs such as: calculate, analyze, rank, assess and characterize.

Exercitives : these acts are the “ exercising of powers, rights, or influence and the giving of a decision in favor of or against a certain course of action or advocacy of it...” (p.154). Examples include ordering, directing, recommending, advising, and voting

Commissives: they “commit the speaker to a certain course of action” (p.156) Examples include promising, guaranteeing and swearing.

Behabitives: such acts “include the notion of reaction to other people’s behavior and fortunes and of attitudes and expressions of attitudes to someone else s past conduct or imminent conduct” (p. 159). Examples include apologize, thank, deplore, congratulate, criticize and welcome.

Expositives: these “are used in acts of exposition involving the expounding of views, the conducting of arguments and the clarifying of usages and reference” (p. 160). Verbs of this class include affirm, deny, report.

Many illocutionary verbs can be listed under more than one category. This is mainly because the principles of categorization are not clear. The verb describe , for example, has been listed by Austin as both verdictive and expositive, describing can be both the exercising of a judgment and the clarification of a reason or judgment. Austin (1962) concludes that

The verdictive is an exercise of judgement, the exercitive is an assertion of influence or exercising of power, the commissive is an assuming of an obligation or declaring of an intention, the behabitive is the adopting of an attitude, and the expositive is the clarifying or reason, arguments and communications (p.192)

2.1.2 Searle 's Theory of Speech Act

Searle's theory of speech acts has come to systematize Austin's. He claims that the classification of speech acts provided by Austin is not completely general. The meaning of the sentence 'I hereby promise that I am going to do it' determines one specific illocutionary force (here a promise). The force of the utterance is part of the meaning. So, there are not two different acts (locutionary and perlocutionary) but two different labels for the same act.

Searle examines the examples Austin gives in order to contrast the locutionary and illocutionary acts. Locution: he said to me 'shoot her!' meaning by 'shoot' shoot and referring by ' her' to her. Illocution: he urged (or advised, ordered, etc.) me to shoot her.

Searle states that Austin uses direct quotation to identify locutionary acts but indirect quotation to identify illocutionary acts. However, when discussing the structure of the locutionary act, Austin (1962) uses direct quotation to identify the phatic act while he uses indirect quotation to identify the rhetic act. He says "I shall be there" (phatic) (p. 95). He says he would be there (rhetic). Searle claims that it is inconsistent to identify the locutionary act by using a direct quotation then identify the rhetic part of the locution by indirect quotation. Even if reporting the locutionary act is achieved by an appropriate indirect speech form, the verbs used for reporting are illocutionary verbs. Rhetic acts are thus characterized as illocutionary acts. Searle concludes that the phonetic acts are acts of uttering certain noises. While there are no acts of using vocables with sense and references which are not already illocutionary acts. Eliminating the rhetic act, Searle states another classification of speech acts including phonetic, phatic and illocutionary acts.

According to Searle, the distinction between meaning and force by Austin results from a neglect of the principle of expressibility : whenever one wishes to make an utterance with force F, it is always possible to utter a sentence the meaning of which expresses exactly force F. He claims that the study of the meanings of sentences and the study of the illocutionary acts which could be performed in the utterance of sentences are not two different studies, but one and the same study from two different points of view.

Searle's analysis suggests that meaning and force of utterances are not two different classes of speech acts because the force that the speaker intends can always be given an expression in the sentence. An utterance contains a propositional act (similar to Austin's phonetic and phatic acts) which expresses a proposition: a phrase without an illocutionary act and an illocutionary act. Searle proposes four basic types of conditions that have to be met in order for an act to be performed non-defectively- the first type of condition includes propositional content conditions which specify the kind of meaning expressed by the propositional part of an utterance. In other words, the conditions in this category are concerned with what the speech act is about. For instance, the propositional content condition for an apology involves a past action done by the speaker. For a promise, the propositional content condition is to predicate a future act of the speaker. The second category is composed of preparatory conditions which state the real world requirements for the speech act. For example, in the case of a request, the preparatory condition is that the speaker has the reason to believe that the addressee has the ability to perform the action requested. Sincerity conditions relate to the degree of sincerity with which a speech act is performed. Thus, for a promise to be sincere, the speaker must genuinely intend to keep the promise. Essential conditions specify "what the speech act must conventionally count as" (Seale, 1969, p. 59). The uttering of 'please, close the door ' counts as a request for the hearer to shut the door.

It is possible to note that Austin (1962) is concerned with the procedure and the framing of speech acts with reference to his felicity conditions whereas Searle is more concerned with the content of different types of conditions.

Speech act is a much disputed field, and there is no one accepted definition of what a speech act is. Such differences in speech act definitions lead to differences in classification.

Many problems are encountered with this classification. Searle notices that there is overlap is also found within verbs of the same category. For example, dare and challenge which are listed together with thank and apologize as behabitives are also exercitives since they relate to the hearer' s subsequent actions. Searle, thus, proposes taxonomy of illocutionary acts to overcome the difficulties in Austin's. He, first, states twelve aspects in which any two speech acts may differ:

1. Differences in the point (or purpose) of the (type of) act: the point of an order is to get the hearer to do something while that of a description is to offer a representation of the world. According to Searle, the point of an illocution is different from its force. The point of both a request and a command is to get the hearer to do something, their forces are quite different.

2. Differences in the Direction of Fit between Words and the World: some illocutionary acts like assertions try to get the words (the propositional content) match the world, while others to try to get the world match the words. These include promises and orders.

3. Differences in Expressed Psychological States: in performing illocutionary act, the speaker expresses an attitude. In stating, the speaker expresses a belief, in promising, he expresses an intention to do something. When apologizing, the speaker expresses regret at having done something. Searle claims that the speaker can express a belief, an intention or regret even if he does not possess such attitudes.

4. Differences in the Force or Strength with which the Illocutionary Point is presented: illocutionary acts of the same point may vary with regard to the force or strength. Both *I suggest we go to the movies* and *I insist that we go to the movies* have the same illocutionary point. This point, however, is presented with different strengths.

5. Differences in the Status or Position of the Speaker and Hearer as these bear on the illocutionary force of the utterance.

6. Differences in the Way the Utterance Relates to the Interests of the Speaker and Hearer: congratulations are different from condolences in the way each is in the interest of the speaker or hearer.

7. Differences in Relations to the Rest of the Discourse: an expression like *I object* relates the utterance to the rest of the discourse, i.e., to what someone said.

8. Differences in Propositional Content that are determined by illocutionary force indicating devices: the illocutionary act of reporting is different from that of predicting. The former can be about a past or present situation. The latter, however, can only be about a future situation.

9. Differences between those Acts that must always be Speech Acts, and those that can be, but need not be performed as Speech Acts: in estimating the height of a building, one may say *I estimate* but it is not always necessary to say this since one may stand the height of the building.

10. Differences between those Acts that Require Extra-Linguistic Institutions for their Performance and those that do not: for some illocutionary acts to be performed successfully, both the speaker and hearer need to occupy certain positions within institutions. There are, however, other illocutionary acts whose success does not depend on conformity to the institutions.

11. Differences between those Acts where the Corresponding illocutionary Verb has a performative Use and those where it does not: illocutionary verbs are not always of a performative nature. One cannot perform an act of threatening by saying ‘I hereby threaten...’.

12. Differences in the Style of Performance of the Illocutionary Act: a number of illocutionary verbs mark the same illocutionary act. They only differ in the style in which such act is performed.

For Searle, any speech act will fall under one of five categories:

Representatives: “the point or purpose of the members of the representative class is to commit the speaker (in varying degrees) to something s being the case, to the truth of the expressed proposition” (p.12). Representatives are assessed as true or false. The direction of fit of representatives is words to the world and they express a belief. The associated illocutionary verbs include affirm, assert and state.

Directives: “the illocutionary point of these consists in the fact that they are attempts (of varying degrees, and hence, more precisely, they are determinates of the determinable which includes attempting) by the speaker to get the hearer to do something” (p.13). The direction of fit of directives is world-to-words and they express a wish. Associated illocutionary verbs include order, invite and advice.

Commissives: “are those illocutionary acts whose point is to commit the speaker (again in varying degrees) to some future course of action” (p.14). The direction of fit of the members of commissives is world-to-words and they express an intention.

Expressives: “the illocutionary point of this class is to express the psychological state specified in the sincerity condition about a state of affairs specified in the illocutionary content”. Expressives have no direction of fit. “ in performing an expressive, the speaker is neither trying

to get the world to match the words nor the words to match the world; rather the truth of the expressed proposition is presupposed” (p.15). Associated verbs include thank, congratulate, apologize and condole.

Declarations: “the defining characteristic of this class that the successful performance of one of its members brings about the correspondence between the propositional content and reality, successful performance guarantees that the propositional content corresponds to the world” (pp.16-17). Performing these acts bring about a fit by the very fact of their successful performance. Associated verbs are declare, pronounce and condemn.

It seems that Searle devotes a lot of attention to all the different criteria that one could employ to establish a coherent and consistent taxonomy. Searle’s (1979) taxonomy “is more oriented towards the real world” (Mey, 1993, p. 170) and centres on the illocutionary aspects of language use. Within this system, Searle (1979) addresses possible intentions of speakers and also desires actions of the utterance applying to various situations.

In linguistic communication, people generally perform a number of speech acts. The meaning of the linguistic means used in performing them may be identical with the content intended to be communicated as when one utters a sentence like ‘close the door!’. However, the meaning of these linguistic forms may also be different from the one intended; one may under appropriate circumstances, request somebody to close the door by just saying ‘it is cold in here’. Here, the speaker performs the speech act of requesting by way of performing another; that is a statement. This particular way to perform a speech act is called indirectness. The conversation below is between A, a British woman who telephoned the work center of Mr. Perez and B, a Cuban who worked with Mr. Perez, answered:

A: is Mr. Perez there?

B: yes, he is.

A. Em...can I speak to him, please?

B: yes, wait a minute

(Cutting, 2002, p.21)

In the above example, B's ' yes, he is' is an inappropriate answer to A's question although A utters a question of the yes/no type ' is Mr. Perez there? '. B has not understood A's intended meaning which is not an interrogative to check whether Mr. Perez is at work or not; it is a request for B to bring Mr. Perez to the phone. A does so indirectly; this is called an indirect speech act.

Searle's (1975) contribution to the field of indirect speech acts is tremendous. He maintains that a direct speech act is one in which the propositional content (i.e., ' what is said ') carries one illocutionary force (i.e.; 'what is meant'). Searle (1979) defines an indirect speech act as an act performed "by means of another" (p.60), and states that in indirect speech acts the speaker communicates more than is actually said. Thus, in direct speech acts, there is a connection between the literal meaning and the conventional meaning, or between the form and the function of the utterance. In indirect speech acts, the literal meaning and the conventional meaning are different.

It seems that the meaning of utterances is in large part indirect, so it happens with the use of e.g. requests " (...) most usages are indirect (...) the imperative is very rarely used to issue request in English; instead we tend to employ sentences that only indirectly do requesting" (Levinson, 1983, p. 264) .Yule (2000) presents examples to illustrate the notion of indirectness:

You wear a seat belt

(declarative)

Do you wear a seat belt

(interrogative)

Wear a seat belt!

(imperative)

(p. 54)

Yule divides speech acts into direct and indirect. He claims that a direct speech act occurs “ whenever there is a direct relationship between a structure and a function” and “ whenever there is an indirect relationship between a structure and a function; we have an indirect speech act” (p. 55) Therefore, a declarative sentence used to make a statement is an example of a direct speech act, and a declarative sentence used to make a request is an indirect speech act. Various structures can be used to accomplish the same basic function, For instance, Levinson (1983) enumerates a large number of ways in which we can utter a request and claims that “what people do with sentences seems quite unrestricted by the surface form (i.e. sentence-type) of the sentences uttered” (pp.264-265). Cohen (1971) also states that nearly each and every type of speech act can be realized by means of another act (p. 588).

Indirectness is a communicative strategy that people use when they speak to those they are not familiar with. They want to sound polite. Directives are seen as direct impositions by the speaker on the hearer. Therefore, it is better to avoid such a direct imposition through a direct request and use an interrogative or expressive instead. Levinson (1983) remarks that “ most usages [of requests] are indirect” (p.264) whereas “imperatives are rarely used to command or request” (p.275).

The problem raised by indirect speech acts is how it is possible for the hearer to capture the real meaning of the indirect speech act when it is totally different from what is literally stated. Searle supposes that in understanding an indirect speech act, one brings together his/her knowledge of the following three elements: the felicity conditions of direct speech acts, the context of the utterance, and Principles of conversational cooperation, such as those provided by Grice’s cooperative principle.

The felicity conditions deal with the speaker being in an appropriate situation to make the utterance. The context of the utterance helps understand how a particular utterance should be interpreted. The conversational principles constitute the base-line assumptions which speakers

and hearers conventionally have about relevance, orderliness and truthfulness. “the process of combining these elements draws heavily on inference because much of what is meant is not explicitly stated. It is here that the work of speech acts theories links up with the more general approach of H. P. Grice and his interest in conversational implicatures” (Finch, 2000, p.184).

The illocutionary force of some indirect speech acts can be interpreted based on their conventional use. Searle (1975) provides a long list of examples of structures conventionally used to perform indirect requests in English. He divides them into the following groups: sentences concerning the hearer’s ability to perform an act (e.g., “ Can you walk the dog?”); sentences concerning the speaker’s wish or want that the hearer will do an act (e.g., “ I would like you to walk the dog”); sentences concerning the hearer doing an act (e.g., “ Will you walk the dog? ”); sentences concerning the hearer’s desire or willingness to do an act (e.g., “ would you mind walking the dog ”); sentences concerning reasons for doing an act (e.g., “ You should walk the dog ”); and sentences embedding one of the above elements inside another or embedding an explicit directive illocutionary verb inside one of the above (e.g., “ Would it be too much if I suggested that you could possibly walk the dog”) (pp.65-67).

Searle (1979) introduces the notions of ‘primary illocutionary acts’ which are non-literal and ‘secondary illocutionary acts’ which are literal. In order to explain the difference between the primary and secondary illocutionary acts, Searle (1979) introduces the following example:

A-Student X: Let us go to the movies tonight.

B-Student Y: I have to study for an exam (p. 33).

Searle also suggests that the speaker utters an utterance that has further illocutionary force based on the fact that both the speaker and hearer have shared knowledge information. Such knowledge enables the hearer to infer the intended meaning of the utterance. In the example,

(1) Speaker x: let's go to the movies tonight.

(2) Speaker y: I have to study for the exam.

There are two meanings(illocutionary acts): one can understand from y's ' I have to study for an exam' the primary illocutionary act is y's rejection of x's suggestion and the secondary illocutionary act is y's statement that he has to study for the exam. The hearer can figure out what the indirect speech act is meant to be by a number of steps:

Step 1: A's proposal is made by x (to go to the movies) and y responds by means of a statement (about studying for the exam). These are the facts of the conversation.

Step 2: x assumes that y is cooperating in the conversation, and that she has made a statement that is relevant.

Step 3: relevant answers to the suggestion or request situation are among the following: acceptance, rejection, counter suggestion, and more depending on circumstances.

Step 4: the literal meaning of 'I have to study for the exam' is not relevant to the possible answers in step 3(irrelevant to the conversation).

Step 5: since x assumes that y is cooperative, there must be another meaning to 'I have to study for the exam' that is to say; the primary intention is different from the secondary.

Step 6: based on mutually shared background information, x knows that one needs time to study for the exam and she may lose much time if she goes to the movies.

Step 7: from the preceding step, y cannot go to the movies and study for the exam at the same time.

Step 8: ability is a preparatory condition that is necessary for the fulfillment of a speech act that is a proposal (suggestion).

Step 9: so, A may understand that B cannot accept her proposal.

Step 10: x can understand the primary illocutionary act of 'I have to study for the exam ' must have been a rejection to x's proposal.

With this process, Searle concludes that he has found a method that will satisfactorily reconstruct what happens when an indirect speech act is performed.

As to the reasons why people use indirect speech acts, Linguists such as (Heringer, 1972; Finch, 2000) claim that it is due to politeness. Following the ideas of Grice's Cooperative Principle, Lakoff (1977) presents his 'logic of politeness' with its main requirement of being polite. Leech (1980) introduces a tact maxim aiming at preventing any conflicts. He also observes that the use of direct speech acts in the case of directives, e.g. requests, may lead to hostile behavior. Therefore, he recommends employing indirect speech acts to make requests.

2.1.3 Grice 's Conversational Implicature

Austin regards language as a form of action. Communication takes place directly by means of convention. In his 1968 lectures entitled *Logic and Conversation*, Grice proposes a series of terms as 'what is said' and 'what is meant'. He states that communication succeeds only by the hearer recognizing the speaker's intentions. These intentions (meanings) are among the most important ideas posed by Grice. He refers to them as conversational implicatures which are " cooperative efforts, and each participant recognizes in them, to some extent, a common purpose or set of purposes, or at least mutually accepted directives" (p.307). From these implicatures arise the cooperative principle or the idea that the main goal of any conversation is communication, and the participants must be cooperating to achieve this goal. It states "[M]ake your 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" (p.45).

In order for the cooperative principle to function, Grice (1975) sets out four conversational maxims.

Quantity

1. Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purposes of the exchange).

2. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

This maxim, thus, is concerned with how much information an utterance conveys. It says that speakers should be as informative as required for the conversation to proceed, that they should give neither too little nor too much information. The conversation below is between a mother and a daughter:

M: what did you have for lunch today?

(1).D: baked beans on toast

(2).D: food

(3).D: I had 87 warmed-up baked beans served on a slice toast 12.7 cm by 10.3cm which had been unevenly toasted (Cruse, 2000, p.356)

(1) is a normal answer, (2) gives too little information, and (3) gives too much information.

Quality

1. Do not say what you believe to be false.

2. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

This maxim is thus concerned with truth-telling. It says that speakers should not say what they think is false or make statements for which they lack evidence.

Relation

Be relevant

This maxim says that speakers should say something that is relevant to what has been said before. In the exchange,

A: there is somebody at the door.

B: i am in the bath (Cutting, 2002, p.35)

B's utterance is relevant to A's comment that there is someone at the door. It implicates that she cannot go and see who it is at the door.

Manner

1. Avoid obscurity of expression.

2. Avoid ambiguity.
3. be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).
4. be orderly.

This maxim thus says that speakers should be brief, orderly and avoid ambiguity and obscurity.

Grice's (1975) main idea behind the formulation of these maxims is the effective exchange of information. However, conversation is not only the exchange of information.

People don't wait until they have something important to say in order to talk. (...) But that does not mean that the talk is not important. It is crucially important, as a way of showing that we are involved with each other, and how we feel about being involved (Tannen, 1986, p.15)

Since there are other reasons for starting a conversation, the importance of these maxims is relative and may vary. Grice (1975) also states that interlocutors observe not only the above maxims, but also other maxims such as social and moral. According to Grice, these other maxims are additional to what he considers to be "core requirements (...) a kind of baseline for talking" (Finch, 2000, p. 160).

Grice believes that hearers assume that speakers do conform to the CP and they interpret their utterances under such an assumption. However, speakers may, sometimes, seem not to be observing the CP, and then hearers will look for other ways to interpret the utterances. The difference in what the words of a sentence mean and the speaker's intended meaning is what Grice calls implicature.

A: did you get me any stamps?

B: The post office was closed.

In the dialogue, it seems that B's response to A's question is a violation to the maxim of relation, but if A assumes that B is following the CP, then A will assume that B's response is relevant. A's interpretation will be that since the post office was closed, B was not able to buy stamps. Thus, B has not stated whether or not she has bought the stamps but has implied that she has not. This is called a conversational implicature. It is 'calculable' since the hearer can infer

the implied meaning from the utterance by assuming that the speaker is following the CP. It is also ‘non-detachable’ because the same implicature will apply when the message is expressed in another way. The CP is also ‘cancellable’ i.e., the speaker can possibly deny a particular meaning.

In Grice’s system, there are two mechanisms that give rise to an implicature: the first requires the assumption that speakers are following the CP (standard implicature). The second involves deliberate flouting of the maxims.

Standard Implicatures

In the exchange,

A (stranded motorist): I have run out of petrol.

B (passer-by): there is a garage just round the corner (Cruse, 2000).

B assumes that A is observing the relation maxim, and his reply implicates that the garage both sells petrol and is open.

In the other way in which implicatures arise, the speaker assumes that the hearer will not take the words as they are and can infer the implicit meaning via some sort of extra-processing.

Flouting Quantity

Speakers who flout the quantity maxim tend to give too little or too much information. In,

A: well, how do I look?

B: your shoes are nice (Cutting, 2002).

B knows that A will understand that the t-shirt and jeans do not look nice although he does not mention it. The reason is that A asks about the whole appearance but only gets told about the shoes.

Flouting Quality

Violation of the maxim of quality may give rise to an implicature as in sarcasm, or metaphor as in ‘my house is a refrigerator in January’. Here, the hearer is expected to assume that the house in question is very cold in January.

Flouting Relation

Speakers flout this maxim by using an utterance that appears to be irrelevant to the preceding one. It only implies it.

A: so, what do you think of Mark?

B: his flat mate is a wonderful cook (Cutting, 2002)

B’s reply to the question appears to be irrelevant. However, if A assumes he is adhering to the CP, and then A can infer that his response implicates that he is not very much impressed with Mark.

Another example is provided by Grice (1975).

Two colleagues A and B are talking about their friend C, who has got a job in a bank. A asks B about C’s job, and B replies that C is doing quite well and he has not been to prison yet. In this situation, A may conclude the following (1) B has apparently violated the maxim ‘be relevant’ and so may be regarded as having flouted one of the maxims conjoining perspicuity, yet I have no reason to suppose that he is opting out from the operation of the CP; (2) given the circumstances, I can regard his irrelevance as only apparent if, and only if, I suppose him to think that C potentially dishonest; (3) B knows that I am capable of working out step (2). So B implicates that C is potentially dishonest .

Flouting Manner

In the exchange,

A: where are you off to?

B: I was thinking of going out to get some of that funny white staff for somebody.

A: o.k, but do not be long-dinner is nearly ready (Cutting, 2002).

B's answer to A's question is ambiguous since she used " that funny white staff " and " somebody " instead of " ice cream " and " Michael".

Flouting a maxim is not the only way in which speakers fail to observe that maxim, i.e., non observe it deliberately. It is done in order to deceive or mislead the interlocutor. It is also done for the purpose of politeness as when people tell the host that dinner was delicious whereas, they did not enjoy it. They choose to violate one of the maxims rather than offend another person.

In addition to flouting a maxim and violating a maxim, Grice distinguishes between opting out of a maxim and infringing a maxim. Opting out of a maxim take place when the speaker does not show willingness to cooperate in the way required by a maxim while infringing a maxim happens when the speaker fails to observe a maxim not to generate an implicature but because of the lack of linguistic means.

Observing the four maxims is important for communication to proceed successfully. In the speech act of apology, such maxims should be taken into account in order to maintain a harmonious conversation.

Although Grice's (1975) cooperative principle is thought to be helpful to the hearer since s/he can derive the suitable indirect force of the speech act, Davies (2000) says that it makes the hearer's task more difficult. Speakers tend to produce utterances that are difficult to interpret expecting the hearers to derive other meanings than those stated literally. This indicates that it is not the cooperative principle that is helpful but the assumption that it is based on. "It would seem from this that the CP is not about making the task of the hearer straightforward; potentially, it is quite the reverse. It allows the speaker to make their utterance harder, rather than easier, to interpret: we can omit information or present a non-literal utterance, and expect the hearer to do the extra work necessary to interpret it" (p.3)

Grice (1975) implicitly claims that the maxims of the cooperative principle are universal since they stem from rational behavior. Many scholars, however, argue that the maxims are not universal

Grice's cooperative principle has been criticized by many scholars. In her 1976 article *The universality of conversational postulates*, scholars criticize Grice's universal implicature theory. They point out the lack of research at the time concerning the cross-cultural implications of Grice's theory and how philosophers likely reflect on conversational conduct as it operates in their own society and not in other cultures. She examined the speech of this culture to understand the relevance of applying maxims to Madagascar speakers. Her findings would greatly complicate the application of Grice's theories to non-western cultures.

Keenan (1976) claimed that the cooperative principle and the four maxims are not universal. Speakers associate different values to these maxims across cultures. For example, the question *how are you?* expects an answer of the sort *fine* in the United States and if one goes on describing his state of health is considered as violating the maxim of quantity. However, in Russian cultures, people respond with a long story of their day when asked *how are you?* Such response is appropriate.

Another issue is that it is not always clear whether the nonobservance of a maxim is intentional or unintentional. Thus, making it difficult to distinguish between flouting and violation of a maxim (Thomas, 1995). Grice's theory does not provide an explanation of how the hearer can decide whether the nonobservance is a flout, violation, an infringement, or opting out of a maxim.

Another problem is that a given utterance can often produce more than one possible implicature. Grice's theory, however, does not provide an explanation of how hearers determine which implicature is the correct one considering the circumstances in which the utterance was produced in. The Example below is adapted from Thomas (1995)

A to her husband:

A: The cleaning lady is coming tomorrow. You have some 20-dollar bills lying around your desk (p. 98).

It is not clear from A's Utterance if she is implying that the cleaning lady is not to be trusted, if she is asking her husband to give her the money to pay the cleaning lady, or if she is simply saying that all surfaces should be cleaned of clutter so that the cleaning lady can easily dust them.

Another problem with Grice's theory is the overlap of maxims. Thomas (1995) claims that it is usually difficult to distinguish between the maxim of quantity and the maxim of manner, as well as between the maxim of quantity and the maxim of relevance. She provides the example that follows

A: What did you have to eat?

B: Something masquerading as chicken chasseur (p.92).

There seems to be two different ways to interpret this situation: either B is providing more information than required ('chicken chasseur' would suffice) thus violating the maxim of quantity, Or B's answer is obscure and violates the maxim of manner. Regarding the latter, Thomas notes that it is almost impossible to find instances where the maxim of relevance is not in operation. She states " unless you assume that a contribution is in some way relevant to what has gone before, you will not begin to look for an implicature" (p.92). Grice's theory is quite " informal" (p.93) and it provides a set of procedures for calculating the conversational implicature in only some simple cases.

Sperber and Wilson (1986) argue that all Grice's maxims can be replaced by one principle of relevance; that speakers try to be as relevant as possible in circumstances. This theory of relevance states that every utterance has a variety of linguistically possible interpretations. Accepting or rejecting these interpretations is based on one criterion. Such a criterion can exclude all other possible interpretations; that of relevance.

The Cooperative Principle along with the four maxims help in establishing the real meanings the utterances convey. These meanings are no longer seen to be contained within the words the people use in communication.

Scholars, like Austin, Searle, and Grice made great contribution to the building up of the theory of speech acts. Their theories suggest that when people issue their utterances, they are not merely making propositional statements about objects, contents and situations but also fulfill social functions such as greeting, inviting, refusing, apologizing and complaining through the use of strings of words called speech acts.

2.2 Application of the Speech Act Theory

Most linguistic research has been conducted in the area of speech act theory. Linguists have carried out experiments on responses to these acts (Beebe & Takahashi, 1989b; Boxer, 1993; Edmundson, 1992; Eisenstein & Bodman, 1995; Garcia, 1993; Holmes, 1990). These studies on linguistic forms in different socio-cultural contexts show that nonnative speakers face communication breakdowns while interacting with native speakers of the target language even if they possess adequate linguistic competence (Blum-Kulka, 1982; Eisenstein and Bodman, 1986; Rintell, 1981; Rubin, 1983; Thomas, 1983; Wolfson, 1981). Olshtain and Cohen (1983), thus, argue that language teaching approaches should focus on both linguistic as well as socio-cultural knowledge for effective communication.

Since the emphasis of speech act is beyond the level of the sentence to the issue of what sentences do and how they can do, its application to SLA stresses communicative function as an alternative of grammar (Finnochiaro & Brumfit, 1983; Paulston, 1981).

2.3 Brown and Levinson's Politeness Theory

In most interactions, people's choice of linguistic forms is determined by their relationships with their interlocutors. They make sure that these interlocutors' identities and needs are maintained. They speak or put things in such a way as to minimize any potential threat on them. In other words, they use politeness. Politeness is generally regarded as a significant controlling mechanism in human interaction (Huang, 2007). As Longcope (1995) points out, due to the constraining function of politeness in the language we use, interlocutors consciously or subconsciously started to take into account certain variables which determine the form that the language will take while interacting.

There are several theories on linguistic politeness. Among these the face theory proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987) which serves as the most influential theory on politeness.

The thorough treatment of the concept of politeness has been made by Brown and Levinson (1987) in their seminal work entitled *Politeness: Some Universals in Language Usage*. They consider politeness as a universal phenomenon; such a claim is evidenced by their observation of similarities in the linguistic strategies employed by speakers of different languages.

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), the theory of politeness consists of three fundamental notions which include face, face threatening acts and politeness strategies.

The concept of face was first introduced by Goffman (1955) as "the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact. Face is an image of self delineated in terms of approved social attributes" (p. 213). Using Goffman's notion of face as a starting point, Brown and Levinson (1987) refer to face as "the public self-image that every member [of a society] wants to claim for himself" (p.61). They also claim that face comes in two variations which they claim to be universal: positive and negative. While positive face refers to the hearer's desire to be appreciated or approved of (by seeking agreement, solidarity, reciprocity), negative face "represents the basic claim to

territories, personal preserves, rights to non-distraction, i.e., freedom of action and freedom from imposition” (p.61). Interlocutors attend to each other’s negative face by being indirect, apologetic or by giving deference. They further argued that face is invested; it is something that can be lost, and it must be constantly attended to in interaction.

Brown and Levinson (1987) consider that “certain acts intrinsically threaten face because by their nature, they run contrary to face wants of the addressee and/or of the speaker” (p. 65). Some acts threaten negative face while others threaten positive face. Orders, request, suggestions, advice, threats and warnings threaten negative face. The speaker puts pressure on the addressee to perform or not to perform some act. Offers and promises threaten the speaker’s negative face puts pressure on the hearer to accept or reject them. Apologies threaten the speaker’s positive face since they indicate regret doing the act.

Therefore, conversationalists are expected to engage in some form of face-work in relation to which they may behave in two ways: either they may avoid the FTA or they may decide to perform the FTA. These two decisions and other politeness strategies involved in interaction are better illustrated in the figure displayed below.

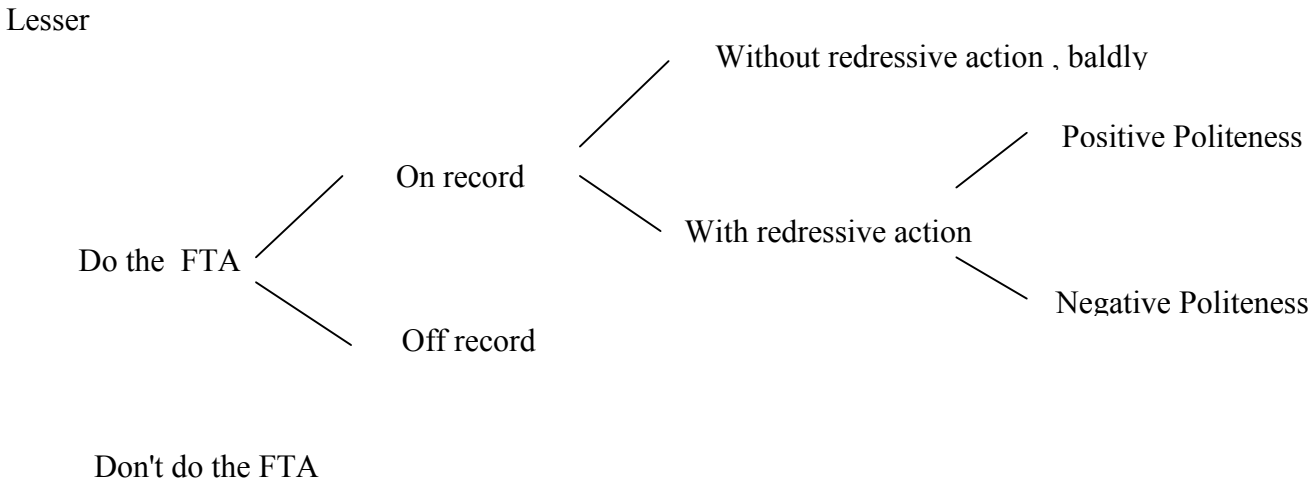


Figure 3: A Schematic Representation of Brown and Levinson’s (1987, p. 60) Politeness Model

The figure illustrated above shows that in performing a particular speech act, interlocutors may choose to do the FTA or avoid it. If they decide to do it, they can either go on record or off record. If they go on record, the interlocutors express their intentions directly. However, if they go off record, they try to convey their communicative intents indirectly through hints, metaphor and irony. When doing the FTA on record, interlocutors may perform the act with or without redressive action. Redressive action refers to the effort made by the participants to soften the force of the speech act. Here, the interlocutors are required to do the act either using positive or negative politeness strategies.

In using positive politeness strategies, the participants appeal to positive face of their interlocutors by desiring that the others approve of them. Strategies in this group stress closeness between speaker and hearer by confirming or establishing a common ground, referring to desirable attributes in the hearer or using in-group identity markers or markers of affection and even showing sympathy. In contrast to this type of strategies, if participants employ a speech act that poses a threat to the other's face as in refusals, they may resort to negative politeness strategies. The strategies in this type help to minimize the imposition of the FTA. Examples of this type of strategies involve indirect formulas, hedging or mitigation, etiquette and showing respect and deference.

Brown and Levinson (1987) argue that there are three main factors that determine the level of politeness the speaker employs in performing a face threatening act. These are: social distance (D) that is the degree of familiarity that exists between the interlocutors. In this sense, as social distance increases, the degree of politeness is expected to increase. For the second social variable, the relative power (P) of the speaker over the hearer; "the extent to which the hearer can impose his own plans and his face at the cost of the speaker's plans and face" (Brown and Levinson, *ibid*, p. 15). It is assumed that the more powerful the hearer, the more polite the speaker is expected to be. Finally, the ranking of imposition (R) implies that the greater the imposition on the hearer, the more polite the speaker is required to be. These factors are of great

significance for the present study since the situations in the questionnaire are formulated with these different social parameters.

Brown and Levinson (ibid) further suggest three factors that need to be taken into account when calculating the weightiness of a face threatening act. They include first, social distance (D) that is how well you know someone; second, relative power and status (P); and third, how a particular imposition is ranked in a specific culture.

Brown and Levinson (ibid) state that apologies are used to communicate regret or reluctance to do a Face Threatening Act. They believe that there are four ways through which an apology speech act is fulfilled; first, admitting the intrusion by which the speaker admits that she is infringing upon the hearer's face using certain expressions, like "I am sure you must be very busy, but..." (p. 188). Secondly, indicating reluctance which could be seen as an attempt on the part of the speaker to demonstrate her unwillingness to impinge on the hearer with the use of expressions like, "I normally would not ask you this, but..." (p. 188). Thirdly, giving overwhelming reasons. In this case, the speaker claims that she has unavoidable reasons for doing the face-threatening act, therefore, indicating that normally she would not impose on the hearer's negative face. Possible expressions are like "I simply cannot manage to..." (p. 189). Finally, beseeching forgiveness through which the speaker seeks the hearer's forgiveness using expressions like "excuse me, but..." (p. 189).

Brown and Levinson claim that the concept of politeness is universal meaning that there might be no cultural differences in the application of politeness strategies. This claim, however, has been challenged by many researchers Gu (1990) states that politeness may indeed be a universal phenomenon, i.e. it is found in every culture yet, what counts as polite behaviour is cultural-specific. Gu (ibid) claims that Chinese perception of negative politeness is completely different from that suggested by Brown and Levinson. In Chinese the speech act of inviting does not comprise a threat to the hearer's negative face even if it is rejected. Matsumoto (1988) argues that the Japanese perception of face is based on emphasizing interpersonal relationships. Both

the Chinese and Japanese value social relationships and place less importance on individual freedom. Nwoye (1989) points out that the notion of 'face' is defined as 'group face' in Igbo culture. The Igbo concept of face stresses the collective self image of the group while downplays that of the individual.

These findings indicate that Chinese, Japanese and Igbo cultures view face as 'other oriented' while Brown and Levinson's conceptualization of face is 'self oriented'. Such theory is, thus, not appropriate to collective societies (Watts 2003) and present only western individualistic interactional behavior (Wierzbicka 1985; Mao 1994).

Regarding the factors that determine the politeness strategies used Mills (2003a) points out that one's social power should not be evaluated in terms of the position one occupies in certain institution, but as something that should be traced through the whole conversation. Mills also suggests that participants are classified into familiar and distant. However, the relationships among the participants are dynamic. She also suggests that age is an important social variable that has not been investigated in Brown and Levinson's theory. In her view, older and younger people view politeness differently. Older people consider the young as less polite when compared to how they used to be.

Fraser and Nolen (1981) claim that linguistic context is important as Watts (2003) points out that if the linguistic expressions which are regarded as polite are taken out of their context and put in different linguistic contexts, they might be considered impolite.

Other problems raised by Brown and Levinson's model include the fact that the list of politeness strategies mainly covers a very limited type of interaction. The examples they give consist of single utterances with clear communicative goals such as borrowing a book or giving advice. These single utterances, however, are just constituents of larger exchanges between two or more interactants. Brown and Levinson seem to ignore other types of interactions such as those in which people enjoy casual conversations which do not involve a predetermined goal.

In spite of the weaknesses of Brown and Levinson's theory, it is still important in classifying cultures into positive or negative politeness societies as well as carrying out research into the perceptions of politeness in different cultures.

Conclusion

Studies on speech act and politeness theories in the field of foreign language learning show that effective communication involves the processing of social knowledge as well as linguistic knowledge. This may bring a change in language teaching methodology away from an emphasis on linguistic form to language use.

Chapter 3: Literature Review on Apologies

Introduction

Apology is a speech act on which considerable literature exists. Many studies have attempted to clarify what an apology is; its different forms and functions and the different strategies employed for the realization of this particular act. These studies have also investigated the effect of social and contextual parameters on the choice as well as frequency of apology strategies. All these issues will be viewed in the following sections.

3.1 The Communicative Act of Apologizing

Most of the studies that are relevant to the speech act of apology have been carried out to explore the preconditions, functions and the formulas of this act (Goffman, 1971; Borkin & Reinhart, 1978; Edmundson & House, 1981; Fraser, 1981; Leech, 1983; Owen, 1983; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984a, 1984b; Trosborg, 1987; Holmes, 1989).

3.1.1 Preconditions of Apology Speech Act

Fraser (1981) suggests a number of preconditions that should be true of the apologizer.

First, that the apologizer believes that some act happened prior to the time of apologizing. Second, that the apologizer believes that the act offended the hearer. Third, that the apologizer must hold herself responsible for the offence, and finally, that the apologizer feels sorry for the offence she has committed. (p.259)

With regard to the factors that may cause an offense, Fraser points out that the apologizer may violate a social norm such as arriving late to a doctor's office or fail to fulfill a personal expectation held by the apologizee such as, when the offended person anticipates a call on his birthday.

There are three preconditions for the act of apology to take place (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984a, p. 206):

The apologizer did a violation or abstained from doing a violation (or is about to do it), a violation is perceived by the apologizer only, by the hearer only, by both the apologizer and the hearer, or by a third party as a breach of a social norm and a violation is perceived by at least one of the parties involved as offending, harming, or affecting the hearer in some way.

Trosborg (1995) claims that the precondition for the apology speech act is as follows:

There are two participants: an apologizer and a recipient of the apology. When a person has performed an act (action or utterance), or failed to do so, which has offended another person, and for which he / she can be held responsible, the offender needs to apologize. That is, the act of apologizing requires an action or an utterance which is intended to set things right. (p. 373)

3.1.2 Functions of apology Speech Act

The functions that apologies fulfill have been viewed in different ways. On the one hand, an apology is a remedial work which aims at re-establishing social harmony after a real or virtual offence has been committed. Goffman (1971) states that an apology constitutes in “ [...] a gesture through which an individual splits himself into two parts, the part that is guilty of an offence and the part that dissociates itself from the delict and affirms a belief in the offended rule” (p. 113). In this view, apologies are seen as “constituting two processes: taking responsibility for an offensive act, and expression of regret for the offence committed” (Fraser, 1981, p. 262).

Edmondson (1981) also claims that the central function of an apology act is to provide remedy for an offense and restore social equilibrium. In addition, Olshtain and Cohen (1983) states that an apology is called for when “ social norms have been violated by a real or potential offence” (p. 20). They claim that apologizing consists into two parts: an apologizer and a recipient. They also claim that the apologizer's perception of the offence is not enough to fulfill the act of apologizing that requires an utterance designed to set things right . On the other hand,

apologies are also viewed as face-saving acts. Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) state that apologies are post-event acts and they signal the fact that a certain type of event has already taken place or the speaker might be aware of the fact that it is about to take place. By apologizing, the speaker recognizes the fact that a violation of a social norm has been committed and admits to the fact that s / he is at least partially involved in its cause. Hence, apologies involve loss of face for the speaker and support for the hearer.

Holmes (1990) argues that apologizing is a speech act addressed to the “offended person’s face needs and designed to rectify the offence that the offender is responsible for” (p. 159). Likewise, Gu (1990) suggests that apologies are “face-caring” (p. 241) offered in response to a breach of moral standards. Trosborg (1995) claims that, in apologies, “there is an element of face-saving involved with regard to a protective orientation towards saving the interlocutor’s face and also with regard to a defensive orientation towards saving one’s own face” (p. 374). Ohbuchi, Kameda, and Agarie (1989) hold that apologies imply that the offender feels guilty, and that he has suffered and already served part of the penalty.

Aijmer (1996) states that an apology is a speech act that is designed to support the addressee’s face wants. Aijmer also suggests that the function of an apology includes showing concern towards the apologizee’s well being.

Moreover, Gooder and Jacobs (2000) point out that

The proper apology acknowledges the fact of wrong doing, accepts ultimate responsibility, express sincere sorrow and regret, and promises not to repeat the offense....some of the features of the proper apology are the admission of trespass, the implied acknowledgement of responsibility, an expression of regret, and a promise of a future in which injury will not recur. (pp.233-241)

Unlike Fraser (1981), and Brown & Levinson (1987) whose views of apologies focus on the benefit of the apologizer, Davies et al. (2007) argue that apologies strengthen the offender’s membership of the community and are likely to enhance his / her “social standing”. Apologies reflect the apologizer’s understanding and acceptance of the rule breached by the offence and“

pay face to the addressee, thus paying back the debt of any infringement (or potentially gaining credit for the future)” (p. 40).

To sum up, an apology is “a speech act addressed to the hearer’s face-needs and intended to remedy an offence for which the apologizer takes responsibility, and thus to restore equilibrium between the apologizer and the hearer” (Holmes, 1989, p. 196).

3.1.3 Semantic Formulas of Apology Speech Act

As far as the formulas of apology are concerned, many studies have investigated the strategies that interactants use to realize such an act as well as the influence of social variables such as power, social distance and ranking of imposition on the way people apologize.

Goffman (1971) conducts a study on apology formula. He distinguishes between positive ritual and negative ritual. He claims that positive rituals occur because of a need for mutual support, while negative ritual occurs when infractions have been done. In the former case, an expression of gratitude should be provided while in the latter case, remedial expressions, accounts, repair or assurances should be offered and thus a ‘remedial interchange’ occurs. In what he called ‘remedial interchange’, Goffman observes that speakers attempt to remedy unpleasant social situations by offering an apology and further observed that apologies occur in many different formulas according to different situations.

Borkin and Reinhart (1978) have examined two expressions that function as ‘remedial interchanges’ in Goffman’s (1971) work. These are *excuse me* and *I am sorry*. Borkin and Reinhart (1978) claim that although these two phrases are functionally similar, they differ in the effects they create and social norms that call for them. *Excuse me* is a formula that “ [remed]ies a past or immediately forthcoming breach of etiquette or other light infraction of social rule on the part of the speaker” . *I am sorry*; however, is “ an expression of dismay or regret at an unpleasantness suffered by the speaker and/or the addressee” (p. 61).

The accuracy of Borkin and Reinhart’s analysis has been supported by Owen (1983). She shows that primary remedial moves which are essential to remedial interchanges differ from other moves that are positioned after them. She indicates that, unlike PRMs, other moves that follow them cannot occur independently; they need to be connected with PRMs so that remedial interchange can be guaranteed. They range from ritual to substantive. The types of of remedial moves available in English are clarified in the chart below.

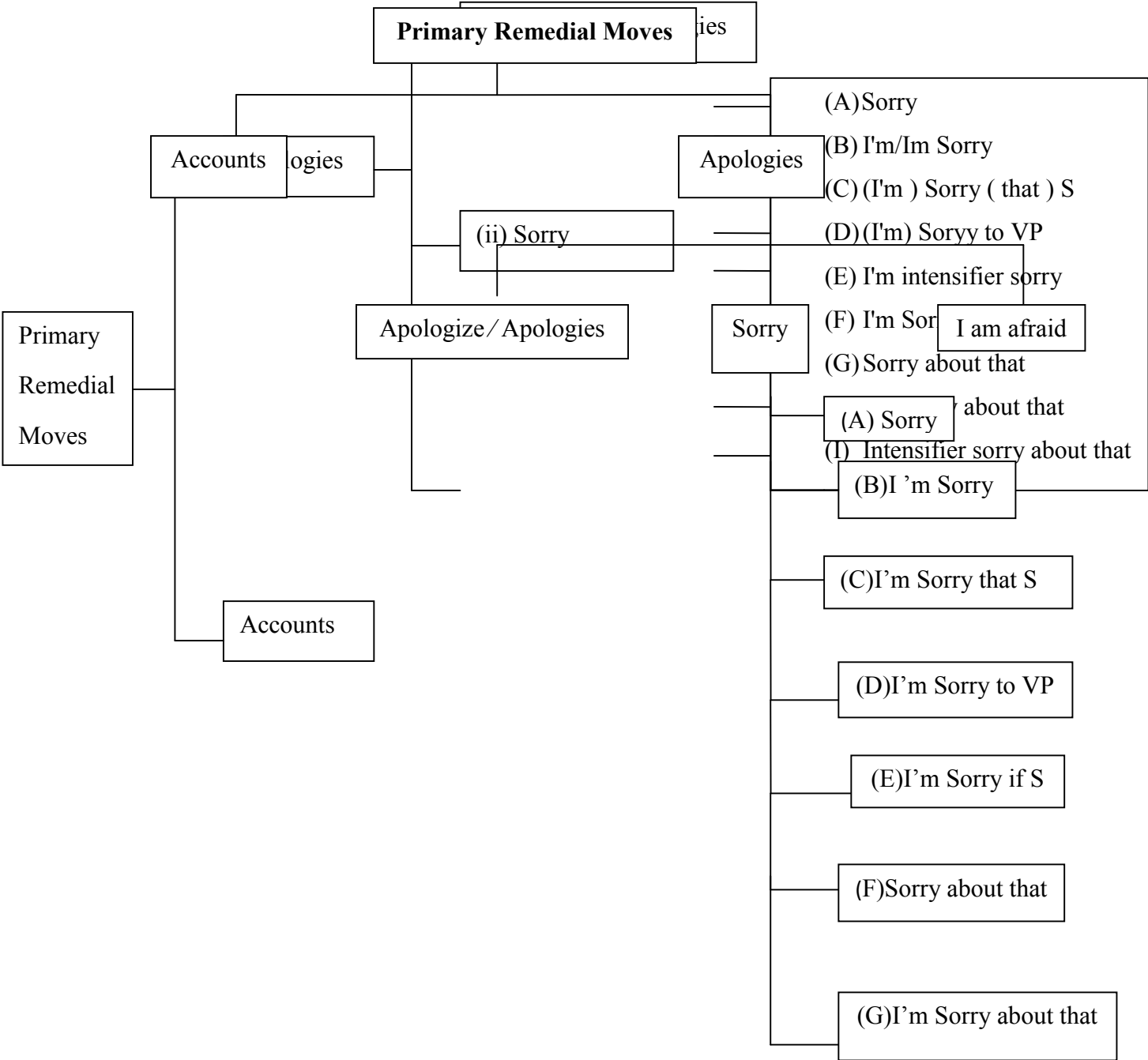


Figure 4: Types of Primary Remedial Moves in English

Owen (1983) argues that these apologetic expressions involve the use of the following:

1. apology, apologies, or apologise
2. sorry
3. i am afraid+sentence pro-form (p. 63).

The first word appears mostly in formal situations when no forms of speech are expected to occur by the addressee. The second word, however, is the most popular way of performing a primary remedial move in English. The syntactic patterns that accompany *sorry* are as follows:

([I'm/ I am]) sorry ([(that) S/to vp/if S/about that]).

When it functions as an apology, the third word occurs in the following structures:

-I ' m afraid (that) S

- I am afraid + sentence pro-form (e.g. so, not, I will, etc).

Owen (1983) introduces the notion of 'imbalance' which is associated with remedial interchanges. According to Owen, 'imbalance' stems from dissimilarity between people. Owen further distinguishes between 'imbalances' that arise from 'negatively-valued acts' and those arising from 'positively-valued acts'. She states that in the former, remedial work is needed whereas in the second thanks would be more appropriate.

Owen's 'imbalance' principle is important to predict strategies which are helpful to the offender. These are:

Ritual Strategies

The offender can mitigate the offence by a number of strategies:

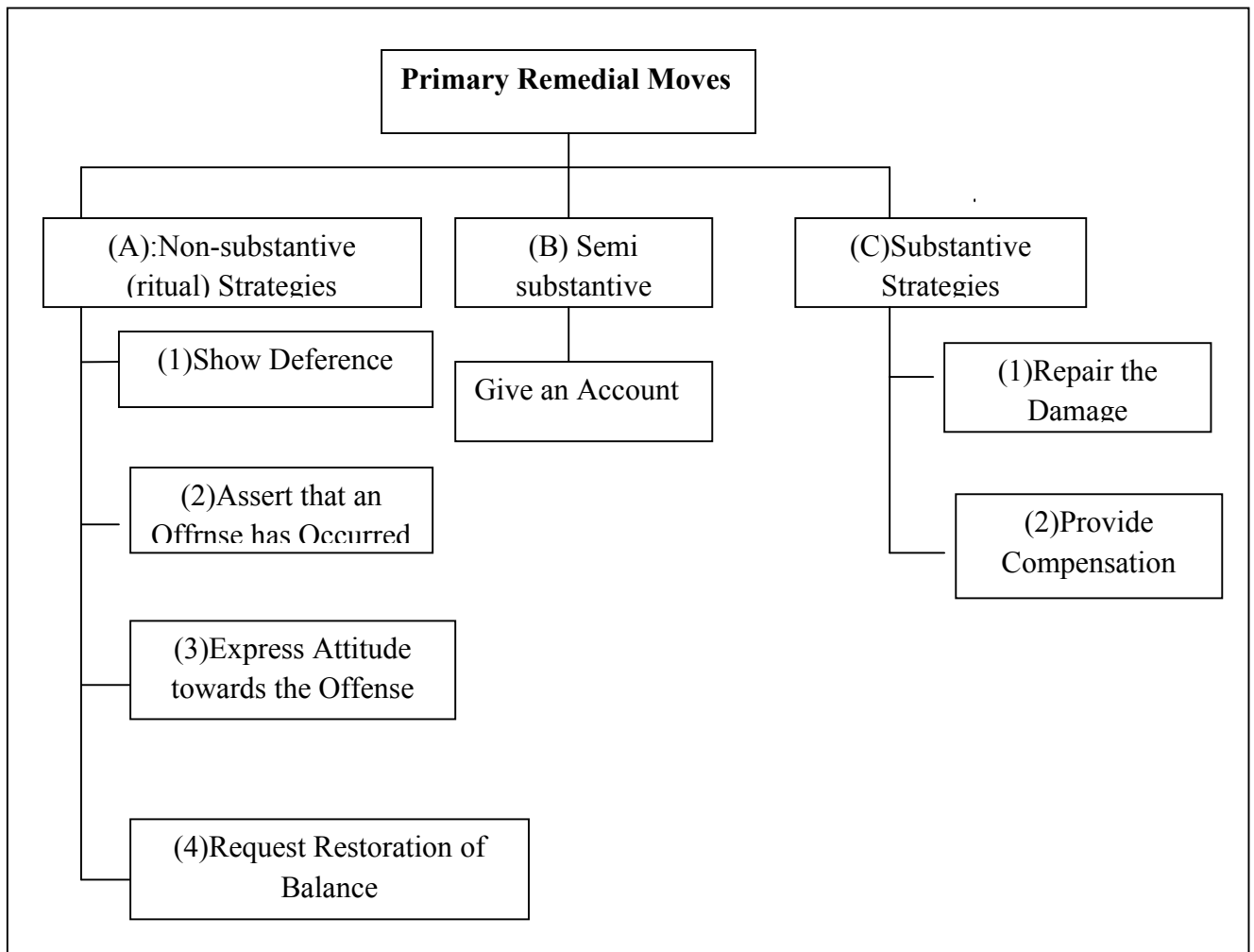


Figure 5: Strategies for Primary Remedial Moves

1. Assert imbalance to show deference: the apologizer admits that the offence creates imbalance and tries to restore social harmony.

2. Assert that an offence has occurred: the apologizer pays much attention to the offence itself.

3. Express attitudes towards offence: the offender expresses regret at committing the offence.

4. Requesting restoration of balance: the offender, here, asks for forgiveness. This strategy is assumed to be less used in cultures whose members refuse to accept face loss, such as Japanese.

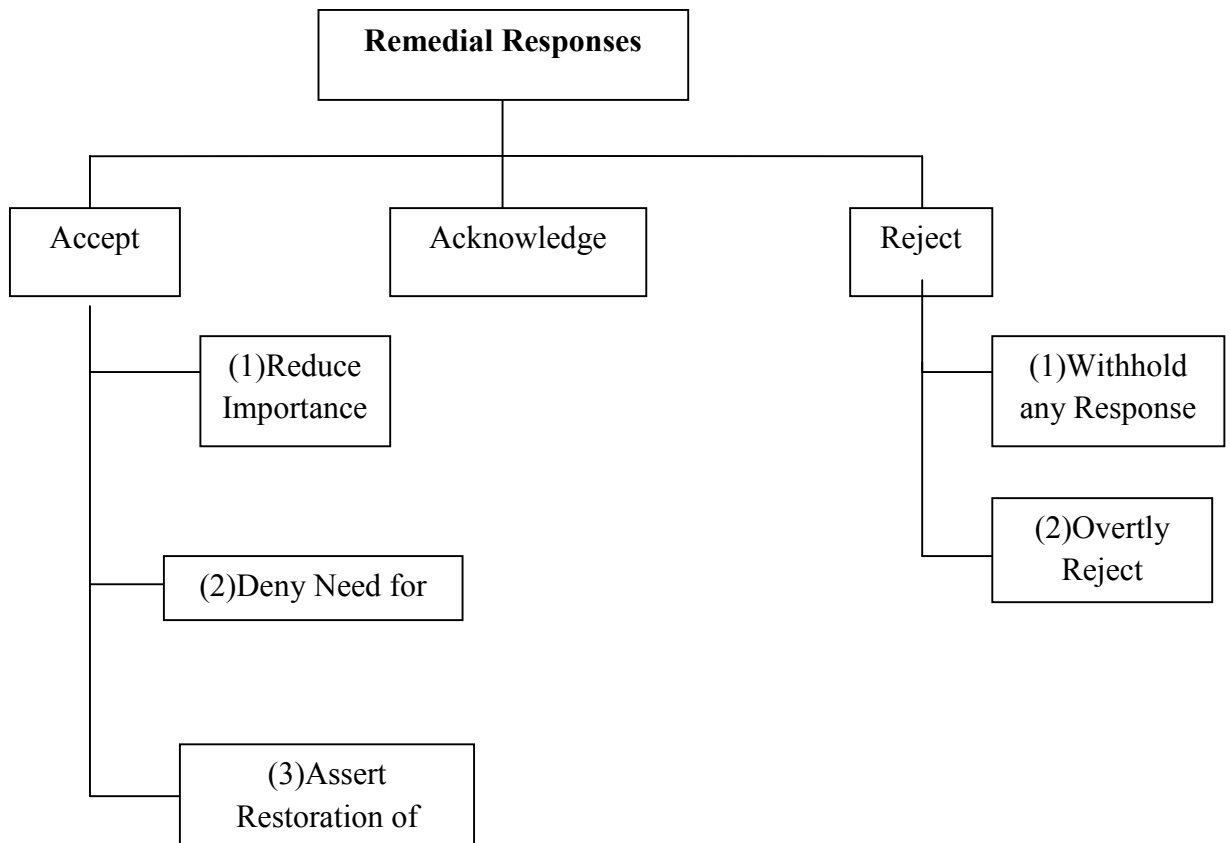


Figure 6: Remedial Response Strategies

Trying to reinstate a degree of balance, the offender provides account or explanation for the act.

Substantive Strategies

The apologizer resorts to these strategies when the ritual strategies are not felt to be sufficient to felt the offence forgiven. These include repair the damage and compensation.

Fraser (1981) introduces a number of strategies that an apologizer may use to fulfill the act of apology.

Strategy 1: Announcing that you are apologizing.

I (hereby) apologize for...

Strategy 2: Stating one s obligation to apologize.

I must apologize for...

Strategy 3: Offering to apologize.

I (hereby) offer my apology for...

Strategy 4: Requesting the hearer to accept an apology.

Please accept my apology for...

Strategy 5: Expressing regret for the offence.

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

Strategy 6: Requesting forgiveness for the offence.

Please excuse me for.....

Pardon me for....

Strategy 7: Acknowledging responsibility for the offending act.

That was my fault

Strategy 8: Promising forbearance from a similar offending act.

I promise you that that will never happen again.

Strategy 9: Offering redress.

Please let me pay for the damage I have done. (pp. 262-263)

Fraser (1981) states that the first four strategies are direct. He also believes that the apologizer does not hold himself responsible for the offence nor does he express regret for the offence despite the fact that these are of the pre-conditions necessary for an apology to be performed successfully. Regarding the remaining five strategies, Fraser states that they are indirect.

Fraser (1981) points out that the choice of apology strategy is determined by a number of factors. These are: the nature of the offence, the severity of the offence, the situation of the interaction and the familiarity of the individuals. The nature of the offence may be social or personal. Fraser's findings support the distinction Borkin and Reinhart (1978) draw between the use of *excuse me* and *I am sorry*. Where a social rule has been broken, *excuse me* is more appropriate, while in the case of personal injury, *I am sorry* is more appropriate. Regarding the second factor, Fraser (1981: 267) recognizes two types: "very serious injury" and "significant injury" (p. 267). Very serious injuries require apologies that are followed by an account. Significant injuries require apologies that are followed by offers of redress. Regarding the third factor, Fraser argues that situations range from the most formal to the most intimate. In more formal situations, expressions like 'Excuse me', 'I m sorry for interrupting you', are appropriate. In more intimate situations, it is more appropriate to use expressions like 'Oops', and 'I am an idiot'. Relative formality is similar to situational familiarity.

In discussing the semantic formulas involved in an apology, Olshtain and Cohen (1983) claims that it is necessary to distinguish between the case where the offender feels she needs to apologize and the case where she does not accept responsibility. When the offender acknowledges responsibility for the offence, he uses five semantic formulas:

- Evasive Strategy
- An acknowledgment of responsibility.
- Providing Explanation or Account
- Direct Expression of Apology
- Offering Remedial Support

When the offender does not accept the need to apologize, Olshtain and Cohen suggest the following formulas

- Keeping silent
- Explicit denial of responsibility
- Implicit denial of responsibility
- Justification
- Blaming someone or something else
- Blaming hearer

Olshtain and Cohen claim that the factors that influence the choice of strategy are: the severity of infraction and the social status of the hearer. They believe that more serious infractions generally yield highly intensified apologies, such as 'I'm terribly sorry' but less serious offenses bring about less intensified apologies, such as 'I'm sorry'. This argument supports Goffman's claim that greater harms require greater remedial action.

Holmes (1990) categorizes the apology strategies into four main strategies.

A. Explicit Expression of Apology

A1 An offer of apology

A2 An expression of regret

A3 A request for forgiveness

B Explanation or Account

C Acknowledgement of responsibility

C1 Accepting the blame

C2 Expressing self-deficiency

C3 Recognizing the hearer as deserving an apology

C4 Expressing a lack of intent

C5 Offering repair

D Promise of forbearance

Apart from the classifications mentioned above, apologies can be intensified in order to increase apologetic force. Some intensifying devices are the use of adverbials such as: ‘very’, ‘terribly’ and ‘awfully’ (Marquez Reiter, 2000). Apologies can also be downgraded to present the offense as less severe or reduce possibility for the offense.

There seems to be different categorizations of apologies. They differ from one scholar to another. The appropriate use of such apology strategies in socio-cultural contexts is difficult for EFL learners. When they fail to communicate the proper apology for the given situation, they may seem unapologetic or even rude (Butler, 2001). In order for an apology to be effective, it must reflect true feelings of sorrow and regret on the offense committed.

Butler (2001) claims that for a foreign language learner, the act of apologizing is very complex and hazardous since an apologizer who fails to communicate a proper apology in a given situation may seem unapologetic, or even worse. In order for an apology to have an effect, it should reflect true feelings. A person cannot effectively apologize to another unless he portrays honest feelings of sorrow and regret for whatever offense he has committed.

3.2 Previous Studies on Apology Speech Act

Many studies have been conducted on apology speech act. They attempted to investigate the ways in which this communicative act was both performed and interpreted by interactants. They even expanded to explore the influence of social and contextual factors including social status, distance and severity of the offense on apology strategies. The different approaches to investigate the speech act of apology can be divided into three categories: single language, inter-language pragmatic and cross-cultural approaches.

3.2.1 Single Language Studies

In 1978, Borkin and Reihart examined the use of the two apologetic expressions: *Excuse me* and *I am sorry*. They hold that *I'm sorry* "is used as an expression of regret at an infraction, whereas *Excuse me* is" an expression that is intended to remedy a past or immediately forthcoming breach of etiquette or other minor offence on the part of the speaker" (p. 57). The researchers claimed that although the two expressions were functionally similar, they differed in their appropriateness rules. This posed a problem for non-native speakers who found themselves unable to use them appropriately.

Borkin and Reihart give an example in which the expression *Excuse me* is used inappropriately by a non-native speaker of English to reject an invitation to go to the movies.

Excuse me. I'd like to go but don't have time.

The researchers claim that native speakers of English will agree that *I'm sorry* is more appropriate than *Excuse me* in this particular context.

Borkin and Reihart (1978) propose some generalizations about the distribution of these two formulas. First, they claim that it is appropriate to use *Excuse me* before an offence occurred

such as when one, who is in hurry, tries to make his way through a crowd of people. However, either *Excuse me* or *I'm sorry* might be used after the infraction takes place. Second, they argue that *Excuse me* is limited to being used as a remedy. *I am sorry*, on the other hand, is not necessarily used as a remedy, rather, *I am sorry* is basically an expression of dismay or regret about a state of affairs viewed or portrayed by the S as unfortunate.

Fraser (1981) investigates general apology strategies of Americans using different methods including role-play, observation and interviewing. He finds that American speakers use formulaic apology patterns with accounts or explanations.

Holmes' s(1989) study focuses on apology strategies employed by adult native speakers of New Zealand English. The differences existed in the apology patterns relate to gender. First, it has been found that women give more apologies than men. Women apologize to other women more than men, and men apologize to women more than men. Besides, women are found to apologize more often for space and talk offenses, such as bumping into someone, on the other hand, are found to pay more attention to time offenses like keeping someone waiting. Finally, women's and men's apologies are found to react differently to contextual factors. For example, women's apologies are most given in situations which are not severe whereas men's apologies are most given in situations with medium offense severity.

A study has been conducted on Akan; a language spoken in Ghana and the Ivory Coast. Data are collected from natural interactions over a period of 13 months (Obeng, 1999). Findings show that relative power among the participants affect the way apologies are used. A person in a high social status hardly apologizes to one in a lower position. Findings also show that apologies consist of combinations of strategies; complex and compound. Complex apologies consist of explicit and implicit strategies. Compound apologies, however, consist of two or more apology strategies.

Another study carried out by Demeter (2006). It focuses on examining the types of categories that Romanian speakers use to apologize in situations that require interaction among friends and how these categories combine to form apology strategies. The situations used are taken from the TV show *friends*. The participants are 158 major students studying at a university in Romania. Some findings are consistent with the findings of other studies on different languages such as Akan, English and German. However, other aspects of apologizing in Romanian are different from some languages such as English, New-Zealand and German.

Investigating the speech act of apology in a specific speech community is helpful for getting information about cross-cultural differences in the realization of this speech act. It can also be of great help for the development of effective methods of assisting language learners to acquire native-like competence.

3.2.2 Inter-language Studies

Inter-language pragmatic studies have examined apology behavior in a variety of languages[e.g., English and Hebrew (Cohen & Olshtain,1993; Cohen, Olshtain, & Rosenstein, 1986), English, Russian, and Hebrew (Olshtain, 1983), English and Danish (Trosborg,1995), English and German (House, 1988), English and Spanish (Garcia, 1989), Australian English, Hebrew, Canadian French, and German (Olshtain, 1989), English and Thai (Bergman & Kasper, 1993).

Most of these researches conducted in the field of inter-language pragmatics are concerned with learners' perceptions of the universality or specificity of the patterns used for apologizing, the effects of the social variables on the selection of the apology strategy, the impact of language proficiency on apology performance.

3.2.2.1 Universality and Specificity of the Speech Act of Apology

Most studies on inter-language apology claim for a universal apology speech act set; however, apology strategy selection varies across cultures (Fraser, 1981; Bergman & Kasper, 1993; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984a; Cohen & Olshtain, 1981; Maeshiba, et al., 1996; Olshtain & Cohen, 1987; Trosborg, 1995).

Cohen and Olshtain (1981) compare apologies made by 12 English native speakers, 12 Hebrew native speakers and 20 Hebrew intermediate learners of English. The aim of the researchers is to assess the cultural and stylistic competence of the Hebrew speakers of English. The findings indicate that the Hebrew speakers of English are less likely to accept responsibility for an offence or make offers of repair compared to those on native speakers of English. They also do not intensify their expressions of regret as much as native speakers. Cohen and Olshtain (1981) suggest that the Hebrew speakers tend to transfer the socio-cultural patterns employed in their first language while performing the apology speech act. They attribute non-native speakers' deviations in the degree of intensity to the poor mastery over the English linguistic system.

In another piece of research, Cohen and Olshtain (1985) conduct a new study designed to measure apology performance of Hebrew Learners of English as a second language. Findings reveal that Hebrew speakers apology responses are very much influenced by their native language. This view is evidenced by their observation of learners repeated use of the intensifier 'very'. Examples are of the sort 'Oh, I am very, very sorry'. Conversely, English native speakers intensify 'very' by using another modifying adverb, like 'really', rather than by repetition. Cohen and Olshtain link learners' failure to perform apology speech act in a second language to several factors. While apologizing in a non-native language situation, learners depend heavily on their perception as to how to act in the same situation in their first language. Learners also lack linguistic knowledge in the target language. Grammatical errors are of two types: overt and non-

overt errors. To explain this, the researchers refer to one of the non-native speaker's response in the situation of bumping into a lady.

"I am very sorry but what can I do? It can't be stopped" (Cohen & Olshtain, 1985, p. 180).

Cohen and Olshtain attribute the use of "stopped" instead of "avoided" to learners' poor mastery of the target language.

Non-overt errors occur when the learner produce an expression that is linguistically correct, but functionally inappropriate. The following example is a response produced by a Hebrew speaker of English to the situation of a speaker who forgets a meeting with a friend:

I am really very sorry. I just forgot. I fell asleep. Understand?

Cohen and Olshtain (1985) claim that the use of the word "understand" is a result of transfer. In Hebrew culture, 'understand' signals cooperation between the speaker and the hearer. Conversely, the use of 'understand' in English sounds arrogant. This example demonstrates that cultures exhibit differences in the semantic formulas used to realize the speech act of apologizing.

Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) investigate apology realization patterns in relation to the contextual factors of social status and social distance. For this purpose, 200 native speakers of English, 200 non-native informants of English, French, Danish, Hebrew, and Russian are asked to respond to an 8-item discourse Completion Test questionnaire calling for apology speech act. The results of this study demonstrate that though the typology of the speech act of apology appeared to be universal, the conceptualization and verbalization of it vary across cultures and languages.

Cohen, Olshtain, and Rosenstein (1986) conduct a study to test the degree to which the speech act of English apology could be taught to a group of advanced adult speakers of Hebrew. They elicit apologies from an 8-item Discourse Completion Test questionnaire completed by 96 English native speakers and 84 advanced Hebrew learners of English. Results show that while native and nonnative speakers behave similarly in their apology strategy selection, the choice of intensifiers used by non-native speakers of English differ greatly from that used by native speakers. For example, emotional interjections are found to be used frequently by native speakers, while non-native speakers tend to avoid using them. This makes their apologies sound formulaic and less sincere (Cohen, Olshtain & Rosenstein, 1986).

Trosborg (1987) compares the realization patterns of apology speech act of English native speakers, Danish native speakers and Danish learners of English at three levels of proficiency in English. The results show that socio-pragmatic strategies of apology are transferred from Danish to English. The frequency of strategy selection varies among native speakers of English and Danish learners. For example, learners acknowledge responsibility less frequently than native speakers of English did.

Garcia (1989) investigates politeness strategies used by 10 native and 10 Spanish non-native speakers of English by way of role-play technique. Garcia compares the apologies the Americans and the non-native speakers of English from Venezuela made to a friend for missing his party. Findings indicate that native and nonnative speakers of English differ in the selection of the linguistic expressions. Native speakers of English use negative politeness strategies reflected in the expressions of deference. Nonnative speakers, however, resort to positive politeness strategies that emphasized familiarity and cooperation. The findings indicate that Venezuelans transfer their socio-cultural rules of language use which lead to communicative breakdowns.

By means of a DCT and assessment questionnaire, Bergman and Kasper (1993) investigate cross-cultural perceptions of offense contexts and apology strategy use of 423 Thai learners of English and 30 native speakers of American English. The results demonstrate that English native speakers differ from nonnative speakers in the choice of the apology strategy according to the contextual factors of the offense situations. Non-native speakers of English utilize three strategies more frequently than native speakers. These include downgrading responsibility, offering repair, and showing concern for the offended party.

Kondo (1997) conducts a study on the acquisition of apologies in English by 45 Japanese students in the United States. Data are collected by means of a DCT and coded using semantic formulas in five broad categories. Results show a preference by Japanese students to use an expression of apology (for example, 'sorry') or show concern for the hearer (for example, 'are you ok?'). The Americans, however, prefer to use explanations. After one year of study abroad in the U.S.A, the Japanese turn to use more explanations in their apologies. Kondo attributes this change to the fact that the students have acquired the linguistic means for realizing that particular strategy, yet have not acquired the socio-pragmatic ability to know where and when it is appropriate to use the semantic formula in English.

Studies on inter-language show that learners of English as a second language use the same apology strategies as native speakers do. However, negative transfer from L1 occur in their apologies. These deviations are caused by these causes: adherence to different principles of politeness, preference for different strategy-orientations, and quantitative differences in strategy use and overall verbal production. Learners may also prefer to stick to their cultures and conversational rules of speaking and not comply with the target norm.

3.2.2.2 Effects of Contextual Factors on the Speech Act of Apology

Many studies in inter-language apology have focused on the effect of contextual factors on apology behavior (Bergman & Kasper, 1993; Blum- Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Cohen & Olshtain, 1981; House, 1988; Olshtain, 1989; Trosborg, 1995). Results have indicated that different contextual factors affect the choice of particular apology strategies. Trosborg (1987) finds that English and Danish native speakers as well as Danish learners of English react to the factors of dominance and social distance in their apology strategy selection.. Olshtain (1989) analyzes seven apology situations presented in the Discourse Completion Questionnaire in four different languages: English, Hebrew, French and German to investigate the similarities and differences of the realization patterns of apologies relative to the same social and pragmatic constraints. The findings indicate that direct apology expressions are used more to strangers than to close friends.

In an investigation of the effect of contextual factors on apology realization patterns, Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984a) find that the severity of the offense is the most significant factor that results in the variation in the apology strategy selection across cultures. Bergman and Kasper's study supports this claim by revealing that seriousness of the offense not only varies in accord with perceptions of obligation to apologize, acceptability of the apology and offender's face loss but also greatly influences the distribution of direct expression of apology.

Contextual factors have also been found to affect the distribution of intensifiers in apologetic expressions. In a study conducted by Cohen and Rosenstein (1986), it has been found that both natives and non-natives tend to intensify their apologies more in situations with higher severity than in situations with lower severity. Olshtain (1989) finds that the higher the perceived severity of offense, the more likely the apologizer is to intensify the apology. She also finds that the lower status the apologizer, the more intensification he or she would choose to use. In

support of this claim, House's (1988) study on apologies made by German nonnative speakers of English and native speakers of English and German.

3.2.3 Cross-Cultural Studies

Most researchers who work on speech acts have recently tended to point out to the way in which these speech acts are realized cross-culturally and the role of the variables that might affect the choice of realization patterns of speech acts.

In 1989, Olshtain investigates how speakers of Hebrew, Australian English, Canadian French and German apologize. Using a DCT, Findings from the study reveal that, under the contextual factors of status, distance and severity of violation, speakers of the four languages use the same Illocutionary Force Indicating Device: *I am sorry* and the expression of responsibility. The study points out that "different languages will realize apologies in similar ways" (p.171).

Lipson (1994) contrasts apology strategies in American English and Italian. 10 Italian students have been asked to watch a series of American sitcoms and rewrite the apology episode in each sitcom. Investigating the differences between apologies in the students' imaginary dialogues and the original script helps Lipson identify the cultural differences of the apologies of these two groups of speakers. Findings demonstrate that Italians prefer Owen's (1983) primary remedial move strategy 4, requesting restoration of balance. Most native speakers of English favor the sub-formula *I am sorry*. This is evidenced by the presence of this expression in 9 of 10 interchanges in the original scripts. Non-native speakers, however, ask for forgiveness using the sub-formula *Excuse me* in 6 of 10 episodes written by Italian students. While the strategy of an expression of regret is employed in English regardless of the severity of the offence, it is more frequent in Italian when the offence is perceived as very severe by the apologizer.

In an attempt to explore the effect of cultural differences on the choice of apology linguistic expressions, Suszczynska (1999) compares how apologies are realized across three languages. These have been English, Hungarian and Polish. She uses a discourse completion test of eight apology situations among 14 American, 20 Hungarian, and 76 Polish students. The results reveal both similarities and differences in the apology realization patterns across the three languages. The speakers of all the languages start the apology with an Illocutionary Force Indicating Device. Like Holmes (1990) and Owen (1983) believe that the expression of regret *I am sorry* is frequent in English with few instances left to *Excuse me* , *Forgive me* However, in Hungarian and Polish data, the expression of regret is viewed as less universal. These findings suggest that the speech act of apology is culture-specific.

Following Olshtain and Cohen (1983) taxonomy of apology speech act, Reiter (2000) analyzes the speech act of apology of British English and Uruguayan Spanish. It has been found that whereas the British prefer to intensify the expression *I am sorry* by making use of adverbs such as ‘really’, ‘so’, ‘terribly’, ‘awfully’ and ‘dreadfully’, Uruguayan speakers apologize without intensifying these expressions. It is believed that intensified apologies are perceived as inappropriate in Spanish. With regard to the situational variables that influence the choice of apology strategy, findings indicate many similarities than differences in the perception of these variables. The degree of severity of situations involved in the role-play is regarded similarly among the Britons and the Spanish. It is also that in both cultures that speakers offer more apologies when the offense is severe. Social distance is viewed as secondary and has no effect on the way apologies are formulated.

Cordella (1992) conducts a study that compares the use of explanations in the apologies produced by native speakers of Australian English and Chilean speakers of Spanish. The results have indicated a divergence in the explanations used by the two groups. Since their explanations

are closely related to family matters, the author claims that the Chilean culture places greater emphasis on family compared to the Australian one.

Another cross-cultural study on apology speech act has been conducted by Frescura (1993). She uses a role play to compare between native Italian and native English speaking groups. She codes the data provided by role plays into two types of semantic formulas: hearer-supportive formulas and self-supportive formulas. Hearer-supportive formulas are used when the apologizer supports the face of the complainer by admitting his or her own fault, by recognizing the hearer's right or by offering compensation. However, the self-supportive formulas are used when the apologizer saves his or her own face by denying guilt or by providing an explanation for the offence. The findings revealed that native speakers of Italian preferred the self-supportive formulas while native speakers of English preferred the hearer-supportive ones.

Sugimoto (1997) compares American and Japanese students' styles of apology. 200 Americans and 181 Japanese college students take part in this study. They are asked to respond to a questionnaire that consisted of open-ended questions on situations that call for an apology. The results reveal that Japanese students use the strategies of statement of remorse, description of damage and reparation more than Americans. Results also indicate a divergence in the cultural values that govern the use of apologies. Japanese students use more elaborate types of remorse statement while they repeat words, Americans used intensifiers. Unlike Americans, Japanese students describe the negative side of the situation.

A study on the apology strategies used by Americans and Jordanian speakers of English has been conducted by Hussein and Hammouri (1998). The findings reveal that the strategies both Americans and Jordanians use are 'the expression of apology', 'offer of repair', 'the acknowledgment of responsibility' and 'the promise of forbearance'. Only Jordanians use strategies like 'praising Allah for what has happened', 'attacking the victim', 'minimizing the degree of offence' and 'interjection'. Other differences which result from the influence of culture

and religious patterns include the tendency of Jordanian speakers to use less direct and more elaborate strategies.

Conclusion

To conclude, Studies on the speech act of apology reveal that there are similarities and differences in the realization patterns of apologies across cultures. In addition, these strategies are also affected by social and situational variables. Non-native speakers tend to transfer their first language socio-pragmatic rules while performing the speech act of apology. Finally, non-native speakers of a certain language show differences in their apologies from those used in their native language. This may be attributed to the poor mastery of linguistic as well as socio-cultural competence in the second language.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology

Introduction

Since the objective of the current study is to investigate Algerian EFL learners' apology strategies relative to the factors of social status, distance and severity of the offense, an empirical design is important to account for any variability in the realization of the speech act of apology. This chapter describes the informants who take part in this study, the data collection method, the procedure and the coding system which is adopted in analyzing the findings.

4.1 Informants

The current study involves 60 Algerian third year undergraduate students of English working towards a BA degree in Applied Language Studies at the University of Frères Mentouri-Constantine 1 aged between nineteen and twenty five. The reason why only third year students are selected to take part in the study is that they have been studying English for three years and thus, believed to have acquired knowledge of how apologies are constructed and interpreted under a number of social constraints. Moreover, the study focuses only on the use of apology strategies under the social factors of social status, social distance and severity of offense. Thus, variables such as age, major of study and English proficiency level are not considered. All the participants are asked to participate in this study on a voluntary basis. As the participants are Algerian university students who study English in Algeria, they are homogeneous in many aspects such as social class, educational background and age. As a result, they share similar linguistic and value systems to the whole population. It can be assumed that the participants of this study represent the population.

4.2 Research Instruments

4.2.1 Overview on the Instruments Utilized in Speech Act Studies

In conducting inter-language studies on speech act behavior, researchers adopted a number of data collecting methods. Since these methods can greatly affect the reliability of the results, it is important to discuss each method.

4.2.1.1 Observation of Authentic Speech

The observation of authentic speech is a method used to collect actual verbal interaction data. In the field of speech acts, the observation of authentic speech is considered as the best way of collecting data that directly represents human behavior (Burns, 2000). Such method involves listening to what people say, asking questions, writing notes and using audio and visual recordings. Wolfson (1983) claims that this method is only reliable one to collect data about the way speech acts function in interaction. In addition to that, Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias (2000) argue that this method is the most effective one when individuals do not like to express themselves verbally. They distinguish between two types of observation: controlled and non-controlled. In the former, the researcher has clear-cut decisions as to what, how, and when to observe, whereas in the latter the researcher has less explicit decisions as to what to do. It is the research questions and design that determine which of the two methods is the more appropriate to serve the purposes of the study.

As to the features of this method, Punch (2005) states that being part of the setting helps the researcher understand the group under study and thus become aware of the “shared cultural meanings ” (p. 152). These are important in comprehending the social behavior of the group. This method is also feasible (May, 2001) since the researcher can watch people interacting in

natural settings and ask them questions about their motives and beliefs. This method also focuses on a limited number of cases or a small group of people.

Finally, this method is explanatory (Hammersly, 1998) because it is based on the interpretation of the meanings and functions of humans' linguistic actions.

The significance of this method has been highlighted by Bryman (1989). He claims that it allows the researcher to gather data from other areas of investigation that are not predicted in advance. He recognizes three types of ethnography: covert, full and indirect participant observation. Covert participant observation happens when the researcher is allowed access to a certain organization and is given the chance to observe with her identity concealed as a researcher. In full participant observation, the researcher has also a work position in the organization, yet he becomes known to others as a researcher. In indirect participant observation, the researcher does not hold a work position in the organization, but takes part in events such as parties and lunches.

The observation method has several limitations. As in the covert participant observation the identity of the researcher is hidden. This impedes the researcher from integrating other methods such as interviews. S/he cannot ask the questions s/he would like to ask and write down notes as quickly as possible. Since the researcher writes these notes later, s/he runs the risk of forgetting them. In such kind of observation, the researcher also intrudes the privacy of the people studied. S/he carries out the research without obtaining prior consent from those people. In full and indirect observation where the researcher is known to the participants, the mere fact that he is present might influence the behavior of the subjects who feel that they are being watched. Another limitation of this method is that it is difficult to specify the causes that led to the results obtained since the variables are not controlled.

4.2.1.2 Role-Play

Another data collecting method that has been widely used in recent years is role play (Kasper & Dahl, 1991). In this method, subjects are asked to imagine themselves in a given situation and then act out what they may say. The role-play method has many advantages. First, it is real and the interactions are contextualized. Second, the role-play interviews provide more strategies than DCTs (Sasaki, 1998). Third, some linguistic features such as exclamation particles, repetitions and omissions which are found in natural data show up in role-play dialogues (Yuan, 2001).

This method, however, is not without disadvantages. First, subjects may not be interested in the topic but feel they have to produce speech about it since they are asked to. Second, Jung (2004) argues that role-plays can result in unnatural behavior; the subjects may exaggerate the interaction in order to make a dramatic effect. Third, role-plays are generally difficult to transcribe and code (Kasper & Dahl, 1991). Finally, Hoza (2001) states that there are differences in the subjects' ability to imagine the task situations which are presented to them. This affects their responses to these tasks.

4.2.1.3 Interviewing

Burns (2000) distinguishes between structured closed-ended interviewing and semi-structured open-ended interviewing. In structured interviews, the interviewees receive the same questions in the same order. This is helpful to the researcher because she can make comparison between specific groups of informants. May (2001) states that the data obtained is representative of the population and are reliable to make generalizations. The fact that the questions are specific and closed-ended implies that the informants will provide specific answers.

The open-ended interviews enable the interviewer to spend longer periods of time with the interviewees, and this entails high response rates (Burns, 2000). Furthermore, answers to questions will be provided from the interviewee point of view and not affected by the researcher's perspective. Gomm (2004) claims that these interviews are naturalistic since they are similar to conversations and chats. The relationship between the interviewer and interviewee is almost built on a friendship basis.

Problems with open-ended interviews relate to the respondents not providing accurate interpretations and conceptions of reality (Hyman et al. 2004). They suggest that the interviewer when equipped with good social skills and careful to phrase questions in an appropriate manner should be able to get respondents answer questions fully and truthfully.

4.2.1.4 Discourse Completion Task (DCT)

DCTs have been employed widely by many researchers (Cohen & Olshtain, 1989; Olshtain & Cohen, 1983; Blum- Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Wouk, 2006; Kasanga & Lwanga – Lumu , 2007) to measure opinions, attitudes and actions of a group of respondents as a step towards making generalizations about the whole population of the community.

The discourse Completion Task is a form of production questionnaire which is essentially “ a series of short written role-plays based on everyday situations which are designed to elicit a specific speech act by requiring informants to complete a turn of dialogue for each item” (Barron, 2003, p. 83). For example, a DCT scenario is as follows:

You copied an essay from a website for your assignment and your teacher found out.
What would you say to your teacher?

DCT was first introduced by Blum-Kulka (1982) and then adapted into the Cross Cultural Speech Act Realization Patterns Project (1984). Wolfson, Marmor and Jones (1989) state that a

DCT is an effective means of gathering a large number of data in a relatively short period. Rose (1992) argues that DCTs are more important than natural data because they provide a controlled context for speech acts. They are also useful in collecting large amounts of data quite quickly as well as help classify the formulas and strategies.

Lewin (2005) points out that questionnaires help the researcher gather structured and unstructured data. Such data can be presented numerically and analyzed using statistical techniques. May (2001) contends that for the results to be generalizable, the sample should be representative of the population; the language of the questionnaire should be simple and clear. Questions that include ambiguous words will be interpreted in different ways and unpredictable and un-analyzable answers are provided.

As regards the types of questionnaires, Oppenheim (2003) recognizes three types: mail questionnaires, self administered questionnaires, and group administered questionnaires. While mail questionnaires are sent to respondents via post, self-administered and group-administered questionnaires are presented to the respondents by the researcher. The difference between self-administered and group-administered questionnaires is that the former is distributed to single respondents; the latter is distributed to groups of respondents. Bryman (1989) is in favor of self-administered questionnaires. He argues that they are cheaper and quicker than interviews particularly when the number of participants is large or when the respondents are geographically scattered. He, however, critiques self-administered questionnaires stating that the respondents might read the whole questionnaire before setting out to answer the first question. This could lead respondents to answer the early questions while being influenced by their knowledge of the latter questions in the questionnaires.

As to its advantages, a DCT enables researchers to gather a large amount of data in a relatively short period of time (Wolfson, Marmor & Jones, 1989). For Rose (1992), DCTs help classify the formulas and strategies that may occur in natural speech.

Beebe and Cummings (1996) conduct a study to compare discourse completion tests with naturalistic data. They compare the responses elicited from DCTs with those performed in telephone conversations, the authors (1996), and as cited in Kasper and Dahl (1991), conclude that a DCT is highly effective as a means of:

1. Gathering a large amount of data quickly.
2. Creating an initial classification of semantic formulas and strategies that will occur in natural speech.
3. Studying the stereotypical perceived requirements for socially appropriate responses.
4. Gaining insight into social and psychological factors that are likely to affect speech act performance and
5. Ascertaining the canonical shape of refusals, apologies and others in the minds of the speakers of that language. (pp. 242-243)

Many researchers such as Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986), Iwai and Rinnert (2001), Rintell and Mitchell (1989) argue that the written responses from the respondents are valid due to participants' intuitions about what they would say corresponding closely to what other participants did say in the same situations. Moreover, data analysis from this method is more consistent and reliable since all participants respond to the same situations in the same written form.

The DCT has a number of disadvantages. It is not natural speech. It is just what participants think they would say, or perhaps what they want the researcher to think they would say. Many studies (Galato, 2003; Hartford & Bardovi-Harlig, 1992; Holmes, 1991) show that DCTs data differ significantly from data collected in comparable natural settings.

Beebe and Cummings (1996, originally presented in 1985) state that DCTs do not adequately represent

1. The actual wording used in real interaction;
2. The range of formulas and strategies used;
3. The length of response or the number of turns it takes to fulfill the function;
4. The depth of emotion that in turn affects the tone, content, and form of linguistic performance;
5. The number of repetitions and elaborations that occur;
6. The actual rate of occurrence of a speech act, e.g. whether or not someone would naturalistically refuse at all in a given situation. (p. 14)

In a comparative study of naturally-occurring rejections of offers with rejections from a open-ended DCT, Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1992) find that respondents use a narrower range of semantic formulas on DCT and that the DCT allows students to be less polite; i.e., to use fewer face-saving strategies. It does not promote the turn-taking and negotiation strategies found in natural conversation.

To conclude, there are many data collecting methods. They have advantages and disadvantages. The method adopted should go hand in hand with the purpose of the study. Methods of production and perception should be employed.

4.2.2 Instrument in this Study

The review of the different research methods indicates that the use of the participant observation method would not be the right choice for this study because of its incapability to give a clear picture of potential explanatory variables, and thus end up with having an uncontrolled context where the social variables cannot be manipulated. The random choice of subjects, moreover, would be likely to render it infeasible to have a homogeneous sample of population, and this would raise questions as to how representative the data were.

To elicit data on the realization patterns of EFL learners' apology speech act. A questionnaire is administered to the respondents to answer the situations in English. DCTs are really useful in the sense that they are easier to code. Moreover, there is no need for transcription as only written responses are usually required. The questionnaire consists of 12_situations

designed to elicit apologies by modifying those situations used in previous apology speech studies (Olshtain & Cohen, 1983; Cohen, Olshtain & Rosenstein, 1986; Bergman and Kasper, 1993). The situations cover offenses of different types-time, space, and possession damage. They are also designed to be categorized by the social status, social distance and severity of offense. All the situations are events that are likely to take place in the university setting. The informants are asked to write down what they would say in each situation. Speech act production, however, is complex. Cohen and Olshtain (1994) suggest using a combination of instruments. DCTs, however, do not provide a better understanding about the respondents perceptions as to whether they should or should not apologize and about the underlying social rules that monitor their production of apologies in each of the twelve apology situations. Thus, interviews are conducted to make up for the shortcomings the DCT presents.

Interviews allow the interviewer to ask back-questions when the response received in the questionnaires seem irrelevant or incomplete Most people prefer to talk verbally rather than fill in a questionnaire, and this results in having a high response rate, which, in turn, leads to having more representative data when compared to that obtained through questionnaires alone. (Burns, 2000, pp.582-583)

Creswell (1994) and Merriam (1991) state that an interview is necessary when invisible data such as behaviors, feeling, thoughts and intensions cannot be observed directly. Consequently, to overcome the limitation of methodology used in the study, methods of perception and production have been employed. Interviewing is used as a method for perception data and DCT is used as a method for production of data. Question items are written based on the purposes of the study and are related to the situations in the DCT. Three topics dealing with apology importance in everyday communication, apology strategies and apology teaching in foreign language learning are discussed. Open-ended questions relating to each topic are asked. For example, 'do you think apology speech act important in communication' in apology significance topic, 'do you translate apology from Arabic language into English? ', ' do you use different apology patterns to match a hearer 's social status and distance?' in apology strategies

topic and 'do you think explicit apology strategy instruction can enhance the use of language and culture strategies? Why?' in apology teaching in language learning topic.

The importance of a multiple-method approach has been stressed by many scholars (Labov, 1972) points out that " it would be better if researchers do not adhere to one research method " (p. 119). Greene et al (2005) states that " the adoption of various research methods implies a stronger validity and credibility in the research being conducted " (p.275). Gomm (2004) claims that the " combination of research methods leads to better understanding of the social world" (p. 219).He points out that the adoption of interviews besides other research methods enables the researcher to discover why . Interviews are the most important means to know, for example, what has been in the mind of the respondent when she completes the questionnaire.

As to the contextual factors covered in the study, they include: social status, social distance between the interlocutors and severity of offense. Social status is assigned to participants by the way of their institutionalized role in society. Three categories were used to classify the data in terms of interlocutor 's social status. (1) + status (high status); apologizing to a person with higher status. (2)= status (equal status); apologizing to a person with equal status. (3) – status (low status); apologizing to a person with lower status.

Social distance is taken to represent the degree of familiarity between the interlocutors Three categories were used to classify the data in terms of social distance: (1)+ Distance; apologizing to strangers, a customer and a waiter. (2) = distance; apologizing to acquaintances, (3) – distance; apologizing to very close friends.

As to severity of offense, two categories are used: (1) + severity (high severity) and (2) – severity (low severity)

Situation	Brief Description	Contextual Factors Concerned		
		Severity of Offense	Social Status	Social Distance
1	A university teacher did not grade students' papers on time.	+	-	=
2	You accidentally took your advisor's book home.	-	+	=
3	You bumped into a student and broke a laptop he was carrying.	+	=	+
4	You knocked over your coffee and made a lady's coat stained.	+	+	+
5	You damaged your best friend's car.	+	=	-
6	You hiccupped when talking to one of your best friends.	-	=	-
7	You were 10-minute late for studying with a classmate.	-	=	=
8	You copied an essay from the internet and the teacher found out.	+	+	=
9	You accidentally stepped on a professor's foot.	-	+	+
10	You forgot to inform a teacher to join a meeting.	+	-	-
11	You want to change your order.	-	-	+
12	You forgot to take your son shopping	-	-	-

Table 1: The Distribution of the Contextual Factors

4.3 Procedure

Although the questionnaire has been carefully designed to elicit apology speech act by modifying the situations used in previous studies, the DCT has been pilot tested. This is to

establish the contextual appropriateness of the situations in eliciting the speech act under study. It is also important to test the clarity of the instructions; whether the instructions are understandable by all the respondents and that no ambiguity as to what the informants should do. No modifications are made. The responses the study yield reveal no evidence of the respondents' confusion or misinterpretation of the questionnaire situations or unfamiliarity with the task of completing them.

Since EFL learners have been asked to fill in the questionnaire. No time limit has been set for the participants to complete the task. In a stress-free environment, 10 participants participate on a voluntary basis in the second stage of data collection as interviewees. Such interviews are pilot-tested to test if the interview elicits useful information. The approach of doing a pilot test for the research instrument is a way to check that a research instrument is going to function effectively (Teijlingen Van, Rennie, Hundley, & Graham, 2001). They justify the responses they have written in the questionnaire. They give their evaluation of the severity of offense and the status and distance differences between interlocutors and how these factors shape their apologetic forms. They also answer questions relevant to their perceptions of various issues relevant to the apology situations in the questionnaire. These include religious and socio-cultural rules that affect the use of specific language forms. The interview schedule has been pilot tested in order to ensure that the questions are effective. First, the interview questions are written then grouped into topics. Then the interview questions are verified for language appropriateness. After constructing interview questions, two students have been asked to do interviews. The ambiguous wordings have been corrected and questions clarified in order to get students to understand the questions. Finally, the questions are used to interview the participants.

4.4 Coding System

A huge amount of literature on the classification systems of apology realization patterns exists (Cohen & Olshtain, 1981; Olshtain, 1983; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984a, 1984b;;

Cohen, Olshtain & Rosenstein, 1986; Trosborg, 1987; House, 1988; Garcia, 1989; Bergman & Kasper, 1993; 1995).

The data analysis in the present study is based on an adoption of the coding scheme used by Olshtain and Cohen (1983) who in turn build their categories on the coding manual from the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984a) and on Trosborg (1987, 1995). It is widely used to study the realization patterns of the speech act of apology in a number of languages through the use of Discourse Completion Questionnaires.

According to Olshtain and Cohen (1983), when a speaker violates the rights or interests of a hearer, two things may happen: One is that the speaker can deny the need for an apology or the responsibility for the violation; the other is that the speaker can accept responsibility for the violation and apologize. In this case, there are many apology strategies the speaker can use with different levels of intensity.

Apology strategies are categorized by their functions into three main headings: strategies of opting out, strategies of apologies and strategies of offering remedial support.

➤ **Strategy of Opting Out**

In the Discourse Completion Task, some situations have remained unanswered; the respondents choose to keep silent. This is despite the fact that the situations are designed to elicit apologies. The respondents may have thought that such situations have not been so severe to call for an apology or because they have denied either that something offensive has occurred or that they are responsible for this offense.

A denial of responsibility can take on various forms from blunt refusals to evasive responses (Trosborg, 1995). The sub-categories of this strategy are as follows:

1. Keeping Silent: when the apologizer thinks that the situation is not severe enough to call for an apology or when s/he cannot find the exact apologetic expressions at the moment, s/he choose to keep silent.

2. Explicit Denial of Responsibility: the apologizer explicitly denies that an offense has occurred at all or that s/he is responsible for.

3. Implicit Denial of Responsibility: the apologizer tries to evade responsibility by ignoring the complaint or by talking about something else.

4. Justification: the apologizer tries to convince the apologizee that the blame should not be put on him/her.

5. Blaming someone or something else: the apologizer puts the blame on somebody or something in order to evade responsibility.

6. Blaming the hearer: the apologizer puts the blame on the hearer especially when s/he lacks an adequate defense for his or her own behavior.

➤ **Strategies of Apologies**

These strategies are used when the apologizer takes on responsibility for an offense. They are either direct in which an explicit apology expression is used. E.g. verbs like: apologize, be sorry, and excuse. Or indirectly by a number of sub-categories: minimizing the offense, acknowledging responsibility, and providing explanations. The four strategies of apologies and their sub-categories are described as follows:

▪ **Evasive Strategy**

According to Trosborg (1995), this strategy is closely related to the strategies in which the apologizer does not take on responsibility. It is different in that the apologizer does not deny responsibility. Instead, s/he tries to minimize the severity of the offense, either by claiming that the offense is not that severe or by querying the preconditions on which the offense is grounded. The sub-categories of this strategy are as follows:

- ❖ **Minimizing:** The apologizer uses this strategy to show that the offense is of minor importance.

It (the laptop) can be fixed. I am sure.

- ❖ **Querying Preconditions:** The apologizer minimizes the seriousness of the infraction by querying the preconditions on which the complaint is grounded.

Who would have thought this would happen?

- ❖ **Blaming someone else:** The offense committed by the apologizer can be excused by an offense committed by a third party.
- ❖ **Expressing Sense of Humor:** by saying something humorous, the apologizer softens the severity of the offense.
- ❖ **Offering Compliment or Praise:** The apologizer minimizes the seriousness of the offense by complementing the hearer.

- **Acknowledging Responsibility**

When the apologizer takes on responsibility, s / he can apologize either explicitly or implicitly.

I damaged your car.

- ❖ **Expression of Lack of Intent**

It was a total accident.

- ❖ **Expression of Self-deficiency**

I am very clumsy

- ❖ **Expression of Embarrassment**

This is so embarrassing.

❖ **Explicit Acceptance of the Blame**

It was my fault.

▪ **Providing Explanation or Account**

The sub-categories of this indirect strategy are as follows:

❖ **Implicit Explanation**

This (hiccupping) happens a lot.

❖ **Explicit Explanation**

I needed to do some shopping.

▪ **Direct Expression of Apology**

An apologizer may choose to express his/her apology directly. It may take the form of an expression of regret, an offer of apology, a request for forgiveness, or a repetition of the direct expression of apology itself.

❖ **Expression of Regret**

Sorry/I am sorry

❖ **Offer of Apology**

I apologize/ accept my apology

❖ **Request for Forgiveness**

Excuse me/ forgive me

➤ **Strategies of Offering Remedial Support**

In some apology situations, the degree of offense may be relatively high. In this case, a verbal expression of apology may seem insufficient. Additional support may be needed, either in the form of expression of concern, promises with regard to future behavior or offer of repair.

- **Expressing Concern for the Hearer**

The hearer may express concern for the hearer's condition to remedy the offense s/he caused.

Were you waiting long?

- **Offering Promise of Forbearance**

When apologizing, the apologizer is expected to behave in a consistent manner and not repeat the act for which he/she has just apologized (Owen, 1983). In this way, apologies seem to relate not only to past but also to future acts.

It will not happen again.

- **Offering Repair or Compensation**

The apologizer may offer to repair what s/he has done. In other cases, the apologizer may offer some kinds of compensatory action to the hearer. The apologizer may offer repair explicitly or implicitly.

- ❖ **Implicit Repair/Compensation**

Is there any way I can help you?

- ❖ **Explicit Repair/Compensation**

I will pay for the damage.

Apart from the main categories, addressers are also considered in the analysis of the apology behavior. These include 'titles', 'first name', 'general noun', and 'endearment and solidarity

forms'. They are used to address speakers' interlocutors. Speakers normally use 'title' to show they are aware of the social status of the hearer. 'General nouns' are generally used by speakers to say they were aware of the neutral social distance of their interlocutors. As to the 'solidarity and endearment forms', they are employed by the speakers to say that they know the hearer well. Words such as 'friend' and 'dear' function as in-group identity markers ; positive politeness markers (Brown & Levinson, 1978). The function of which is to strengthen solidarity with the hearer or redress of face-threatening acts of some kind (McCormick & Richardson, 2006).

Intensification means have also been considered as apology strategies in the present study. They are five. First, 'adverbials' such as 'very', 'really', 'so', 'terribly', 'extremely' and 'deeply'. Second, 'repetition of the same IFID'. Third, the use of 'emotional phrases' that express a lack of intent. Fourth, the use of 'two sub-formulas of IFIDs' and finally, 'swear words'.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the subjects who take part in the present study and the data analysis procedures as well as the coding system adopted in the study are described. The advantages and shortcomings of three elicitation techniques; naturally occurring data, discourse completion tests and interviewing are discussed. As the questionnaires allow the collection of large data from the informants and interviewing is likely to provide more in-depth data regarding the informants' perceptions of the role of the social status, distance and severity of the offense, a combination of these two methods is adopted.

Chapter 5: Results and Discussion

Introduction

This chapter discusses the realization patterns of apology speech act employed by the informants in various social contexts. The first part of the chapter presents a quantitative analysis of data from the Discourse Completion Task (DCT) questionnaire. It consists of calculating the frequencies and percentages with which the participants use the apology strategies. The analysis used in the present study is based on the adoption of the coding scheme used by Olshtain and Cohen (1983) with the addition of two more strategies, ‘intensifier’ and ‘alerter’. It also discusses the new strategies that fall outside this model. The second part discusses the extent to which the choice and frequency of apology strategies are determined by the social and contextual parameters, namely, social power between the interlocutors, social distance and severity of the offense. Finally, a summary of this chapter is presented.

5.1 Apology Strategy Use by EFL learners

First, the semantic formulas used by the participants to realize the speech act of apology across the twelve situations are presented. Besides, the newly employed apology strategies are discussed. Finally, the operation of the social and contextual factors on apology strategy selection and preference order is highlighted.

5.1.1 Overall Patterns of Apology Strategies Used by EFL learners

Findings from the study show that EFL learners resort to a hybrid of strategies. In addition to the categorization system of apology strategies used by Cohen and Olshtain (1983) upon which this work is based, other new strategies are used by the informants.

Table 2 shows the occurrence number and percentage frequency of the eight main apology strategies, and figure 6 presents the occurrence frequency of these strategies. They clearly illustrate that EFL learners use similar apology patterns as native speakers of English do. This is consistent with Cohen and Olshtain's (1981) finding that EFL learners have access to the same apology strategies as native speakers of English.

Strategies	N	%
Opt Out	26	2.2
Evasive Strategy	10	0.8
Acknowledge Responsibility	280	23.8
Provide Explanation	112	9.5
Direct Apology	554	47.1
Express Concern	30	2.5
Promise of Forbearance	12	1
Offer Repair	152	12.9
Total	1176	100

Table 2: Overall Occurrence Number and Percentage Frequency of Apology Strategies

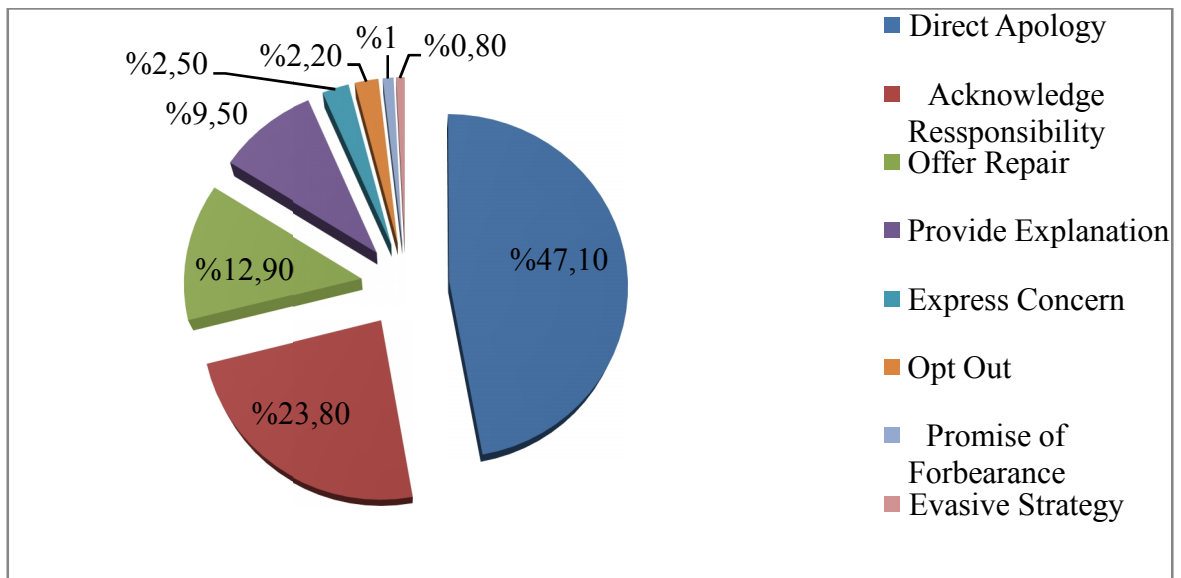


Figure 7: Percentage Frequency of Apology Strategies

Table 3 lists the preference order for apology strategy choice and the occurrence number and percentage frequency of each strategy used by EFL learners. This table and figure 6, in which the overall percentage frequency of the eight apology strategies used by EFL learners is displayed, clearly reveal that, consistent with previous studies (Bergman & Kasper, 1993; Cohen & Olshtain, 1981; Holmes, 1990; Taguchi, 1991), EFL learners prefer giving direct expressions of apology and taking on responsibility more than other strategies. As table 3 shows, a direct expression of apology is the most frequently occurring strategy used by EFL learners (47.1%). This suggests that EFL students feel the need to be explicit; they may not want to risk the hearer not interpreting their response as an apology. An acknowledgement of responsibility is the second highest rank in the frequency of apology strategies (23.8%). These two strategies are followed by an offer of repair (12.9 %). The strategy of providing explanation which comes fourth accounts for 9.5% of the informants responses to the twelve situations. The speakers of this study might feel that they should not give an account after apologizing so that it would not seem to be an attempt at minimizing their offenses. The speakers do not resort to it only in specific contexts. The strategies of opting out, evading responsibility, promise of forbearance

and concern for the hearer are hardly found in the data obtained. None of these strategies account for more than 5%.

Expressing an explicit apology, making a responsibility statement, offering repair and giving accounts are the four essential components of apology as shown in table 3 below.

Apology Strategy	N	%
1.Direct Expression of Apology	554	47.1
2.Acknowledge Responsibility	280	23.8
3.Offer Repair	152	12.9
4.Provide Explanation	112	9.5
5.Express Concern	30	2.5
6.Opt Out	26	2.2
7.Promise of Forbearance	12	1
8.Evasive Strategy	10	0.8

Table 3: Overall Apology Strategy Preference Order

5.1.1.1 Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices (IFIDs)

Table 4 shows the distribution of the sub-categories of the strategy of direct expression of an apology based on the classification system of Olstain and Cohen (1983) adopted in this study. It reveals that EFL learners use the three different manifestations of the direct expression of apology. ‘The expression of regret’ is the most frequent one (78%) then ‘a request of forgiveness’ (18.7%). ‘The offer of an apology’ is used less frequently (2.8%).

Sub-categories	N	%
Expression of Regret	434	78
A Request for Forgiveness	104	18.7
An Offer of Apology	16	2.8
Total	554	100

Table 4: The Distribution of the Sub-categories of the Direct Expression of Apology

Figure 7 represents the percentage frequency of the sub-categories of the strategy of the direct expression of an apology.

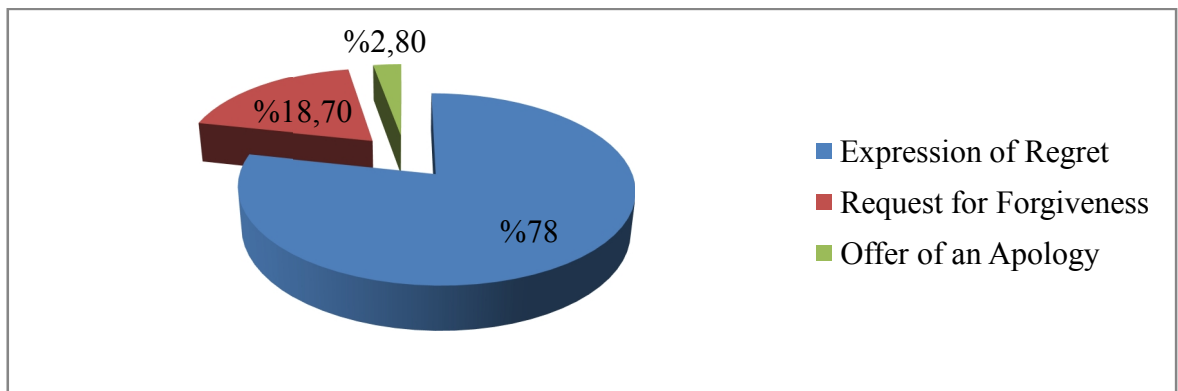


Figure 8: Percentage Frequency of the Sub-categories of the Direct Expression of Apology

A closer examination of the findings reveals that IFIDs are used across all the situations. Learners' use of IFIDs ranges from a high percentage of 78 % in situation 9 (Stepping on a professor's foot) to only 29% in situation 4 (Staining a lady's coat with coffee).

The six situations which receive a high percentage of IFIDs by Algerian EFL learners are situation 9 (Stepping on a professor's foot), situation 6 (Hiccapping while talking to a best friend), situation 11 (Changing an order at a restaurant), situation 10 (Forgetting to inform a teacher to join a meeting), situation 8 (Copying an essay from a website) and situation 7 (Arriving 10-minute late at a classmate's house). The lowest usage of IFIDs occurs in situation 4 (Staining a lady's coat with coffee), situation 3 (Bumping into a student and breaking a laptop he

was carrying), situation 12(Forgetting to take a son out shopping), and situation 2(Taking the advisor's book home).

Table 5 shows the percentage of each sub-category of the strategy of direct expression of an apology across the twelve situations based on the categorization system of Cohen and Olshtain (1983) adopted in this study.

Situations	Direct Expression of Apology		
	Expression of Regret	Request for Forgiveness	Offer of Apology
1	76%	24%	0%
2	78%	13%	8%
3	57%	36%	5%
4	100%	0%	0%
5	87%	12%	0%
6	47%	52%	0%
7	86%	13%	0%
8	72%	20%	8%
9	82%	17%	0%
10	62%	25%	11%
11	100%	0%	0%
12	95%	4%	0%

Table 5: Percentage Frequency of the Sub-categories of Direct Expression of Apology

The table above shows that of all the sub-categories of the strategy of direct expression of apology, the expression of regret is the most frequent one. In situations 4 (Staining a lady's

coat), and 11 (Changing an order at a restaurant), all the informants' direct expressions of apology are expressions of regret in which the form 'I m sorry' is used.

In order to express direct apologies, the informants use high proportions of the expression of regret; 95%, 86% and 78% respectively in situations 12 (Forgetting to take a son shopping), 7 (Arriving 10-minutes late at a classmate' s house), 2 (Taking a teacher's book home)

I am sorry. I forgot all about that. I will take you out tomorrow (Situation 12).

Sorry for being late (Situation 7).

I am so sorry. I took your book home. I will bring it back tomorrow (Situation 2).

The second most frequently used sub –formulas is the request for forgiveness. It is extensively used in situation 6 (Hiccupping while talking to a friend) (52%) and situation 3 (Damaging a student' s laptop).

Please, excuse me friend (Situation 6).

Please, forgive me. I will buy you a new one (Situation 3).

The sub-formula of an offer of repair is of low frequency. Situations 2, 3, 8, and 10 trigger incidences of this strategy.

Please, forgive me. I forgot all about it (Situation 10).

With regard the structure of IFIDs in EFL Learners Apologies, table 6 lists the occurrence number of the different syntactic structures of the sub-categories of the strategy of direct expression of apology.

Sub-Formula	Syntactic Structure	Potential Realization	Frequency
Expression of Regret	1. Sorry	1. Sorry	168
	2. i' m/i am sorry	2. i' m sorry	254
	3. i' m sorry about+ (pronoun)	3. i' m sorry about that	6
	4. i' m sorry to+ VP	4. i' m sorry to keep you waiting	00
	5. i' m sorry+ that + s	5. i' m sorry (that) I break your	6
	6. i' m sorry if+s	laptop /	00
Request for Forgiveness	1. (please)excuse me	1. Excuse me	46
	2. (please) forgive me	2. Forgive me	26
	3. (i beg your) pardon	3. I beg your pardon	32
	4. (S) + forgive me	4. I hope you can forgive me.	00
An Offer Of Apology	1. I + apologize	1. I apologize for the fact that I have not had the time to finish grading your papers.	12 00
	2. I owe + pronoun+ Apology	2. i owe you an apology	00
	3. I present + (pronoun)+ apologies	3. I present my sincere apologies.	00
	4. (adjective)+ apologies	4. Sincere apologies	04

Table 6: Relative Occurrence Number of the Syntactic Structures of IFIDs

Figure 8 shows the percentage frequency of the syntactic structures of the expression of regret.

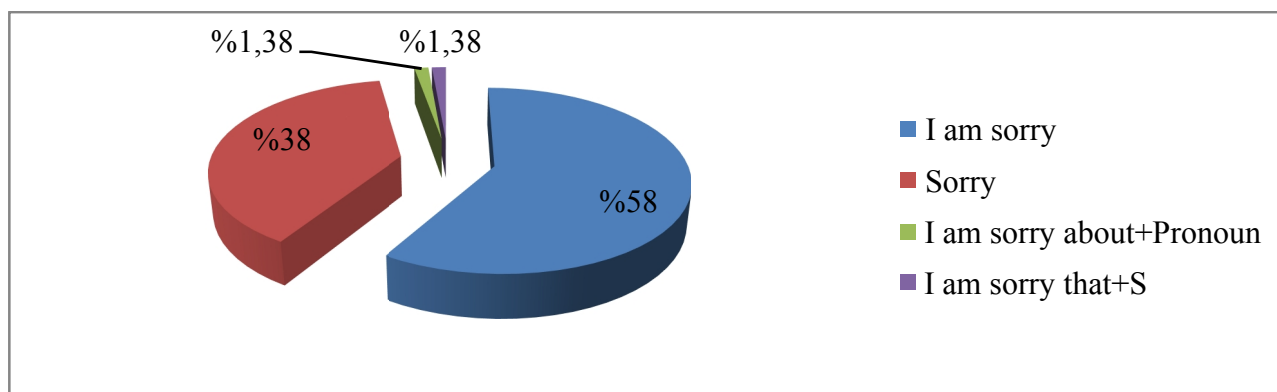


Figure 9: Percentage Frequency of the Syntactic Structures of the Expression of Regret

Figure 8 shows that the most frequent syntactic structures EFL learners use are the forms ‘I am sorry’ (58%) and ‘sorry’ (38%). These two forms are used across the twelve situations. ‘I am sorry’ is extensively used in situations 5(Damaging a best friend’s car), 7 (Arriving 10 minutes late at a classmate’s house) and 10 (Forgetting to inform a teacher of a meeting).

I am sorry. It was my fault.

I am sorry. I had to do some shopping before coming here.

I am sorry I forgot all about it. I was really busy.

Owen (1983) claims that there are cases when ‘sorry’ may not be used to establish a genuine apology, specifically when ‘sorry’ is followed by the distant pronoun *that* to convey that the offense is in the past and that the offense is beyond the control of the offender. It has not been resorted to by EFL learners. Only 1% of the syntactic structures that express regrets are of the form ‘I am sorry about that’. This form is used in situations 1 (Not grading learners’ papers on time) and 3 (Bumping into a student and breaking a laptop).

I am sorry about that (Situation1).

I am sorry about that (Situation3).

Learners' limited use of this form indicates a lack of knowledge of certain linguistic forms and their communicative functions.

'I am sorry + (that)' clause introduces bad news implicitly indicating that the situation is out of personal control. Reiter (2000) claims that the use of 'sorry' in this particular context is equivalent in purpose to 'I am afraid + clause' or to some adverbs such as *unfortunately* or *regrettably*. A limited number of occurrences of such special type of apology figured in situation 2 (Forgetting an advisor's book home).

I am sorry (that) I took your book yesterday.

The use of the proximal pronoun 'this', however, seems to communicate sincere and explicit apologies and used with continuing offenses.

'I am really sorry about this' has not figured in any of the twelve situations. This shows that learners are not aware of how to use this form to express this function.

One other form of the expression of regret which has not figured out in the informants responses is 'I am + sorry to+ VP' as in *I am very sorry to keep you waiting* (Situation 7).

From this it can be implied that EFL learners have access to only a limited number of the syntactic structures used for the expression of a direct apology.

'A request for forgiveness' (18.7%) has not been used very frequently as the expression of regret 'I am sorry'. To express direct apologies, the informants use 'a request for forgiveness' most frequently in situations 6 (Hiccapping while talking to a best friend), 3 (Breaking a student's laptop) and 10 (Forgetting to inform a teacher of a meeting).

Figure 9 shows the percentage frequency of each of the syntactic structures of the sub-strategy of a request of forgiveness.

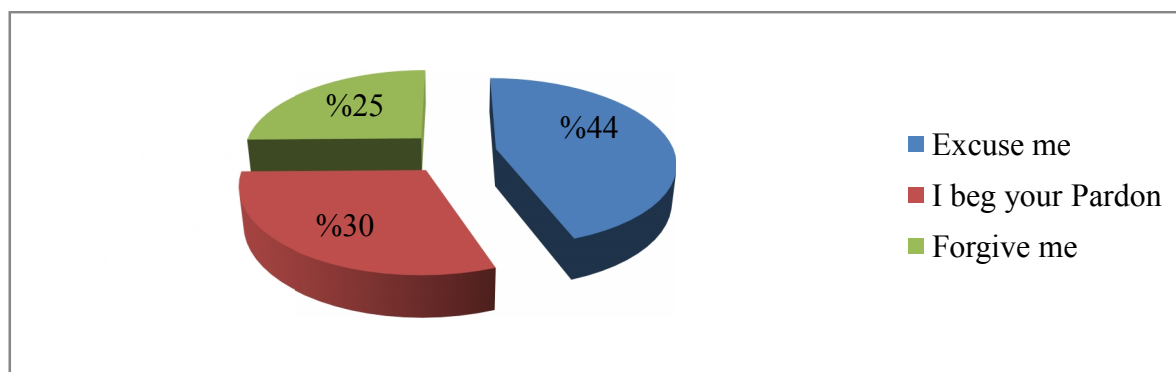


Figure 10: Percentage Frequency of the syntactic Structures of Request for Forgiveness

Figure 9 shows that three forms have been used by EFL learners. The most frequently used form is 'Please+ excuse me' (44%). It is used in situation 1 (not grading students' papers on time) and situation 6 (hiccupping while talking to a best friend).

Please excuse me. I can't give you your assignments now because I have not finished grading them (Situation 1).

Please excuse me (situation 6).

The second most frequently used form is 'I beg your pardon' (30%). It is used mainly in situations 2 (forgetting a teacher's book home) and 6 (hiccupping while talking to a best friend).

Sir, I beg your pardon I forgot your book home. I will bring it tomorrow morning (Situation 2).

Most occurrences of this form are 'pardon' or 'pardon me'.

Pardon (Situation 6).

Pardon me for this my friend (Situation 6).

'Please+ forgive me' is used least (25%) by EFL learners. It figures most in situations 3 (bumping into a student and breaking a laptop s/he was carrying) and 6 (hiccapping while talking to a best friend).

Please Forgive me. I have not seen you coming (Situation 3).

Forgive me please. I do not know how it happened (Situation 3).

'S+ Forgive me' as in 'I hope you can forgive me' is not resorted to by EFL learners.

In opposition to Borkin and Reinhart's (1978) claim that 'excuse me' is limited to be used as a remedy while 'I am sorry' can be used more than a remedy. In situation 9 where someone steps on a professor's foot, both 'I am sorry' and 'excuse me' can be used appropriately as an apology because the speaker can either choose to remedy the situation by uttering 'excuse me' or choose to express his regret for the offense by uttering 'I m sorry'. 82% of the informants' direct apologies are expressions of regret in which a form of sorry is used while only 17% of these direct apologies are requests for forgiveness.

In situation 3 where someone breaks a student's laptop, what is needed is an expression of regret much more than a simple remedy. 36% of the informants' direct expressions of apology are requests of forgiveness in which the forms 'excuse me', 'forgive me' and 'pardon me' are used.

EFL learners have used the two expressions equally in situation 8 (hiccapping while talking to a friend). Successfully, EFL learners used the expression 'I am sorry' (57%) more frequently than 'excuse me' (36%) in situation 3 (breaking a student's laptop) and 5 (Damaging a friend's car) (87%) and (12%) and 8 (Copying an essay) (72%) and (20%). In these situations, what is needed is much more an expression of regret for something unpleasant than a simple remedy. However, 'excuse me' has been used by EFL learners. These results about the use of the

two formulas are not consistent with Borkin and Reinhart's claim of the generalizations about their distribution. EFL learners have not yet learned the generalizations on these two formulas in particular social situations.

'Offer of an Apology' has not been used as frequently as the other two formulas (2.8%).

Figure 10 shows the distribution of the forms used to offer an apology.

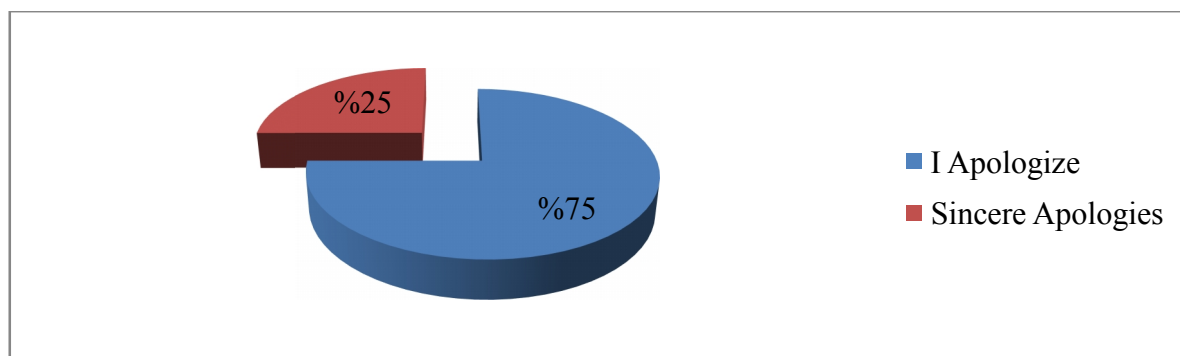


Figure11: Percentage Frequency of the Syntactic Structures of Offer of an Apology

Figure 10 shows that EFL learners have resorted to only two forms to offer an apology. The most frequent one is 'I apologize' (75%). It is extensively used in situations 8 (Copying an essay from a web site and the teacher found out) and 10 (Forgetting to inform a teacher of a meeting so he missed it).

I apologize sir. I was ill and could not do it myself (Situation 8).

I really apologize. I forgot all about it (Situation 10).

I know it s my fault. *I really apologize* (Situation 10).

In situations 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11 and 12, EFL learners have not resorted to this expression. It seems that EFL learners perceive this linguistic formula as more intense and should be used in more formal situations. This is why EFL learners' direct expressions of apology in situation 8 where a student copied an essay from a web site and the teacher found out. It is also used in

situation 10 where a head of a department apologizes for not informing a teacher of a meeting. Learners perceive the context or situation as a formal one and calls for an apology.

The other third form which is used by EFL learners is '[adjective]+ apologies'. They have not resort to it most often (25%). It has been used in situations 2 (Taking an advisor's book home) and 10 (Forgetting to inform a teacher of a meeting).

I took your book home yesterday sir. My sincere apologies.

'I owe+ pronoun+ apology' as in I owe you an apology, 'I present+ pronoun+ apology/apologies' as in I present my apologies are absent in the respondents' apologies.

5.1.1.2 Acknowledge Responsibility

The second most frequently used strategy is taking on responsibility. This strategy is often resorted to when the offender recognizes responsibility for the insult. The sub-categories of acknowledging responsibility are all hearer-supportive and self-demeaning. They are ordered with respect to their frequency (from most frequent to least frequent).

Table 7 shows the percentage frequency of the sub-categories of the strategy of an acknowledgement of responsibility.

Sub-strategies	N	%
Implicit Acknowledgement	00	0
Explicit Acknowledgement	184	65
Lack of Intent	26	9
Self-deficiency	26	9
Embarrassment	2	0.7
Acceptance of the Blame	42	15
Total	280	100

Table7: Occurrence Number and Percentage Frequency of the Sub-categories of Acknowledgement of Responsibility

Figure 11 below represents the percentage frequency of the sub-categories of the strategy of an acknowledgement of responsibility.

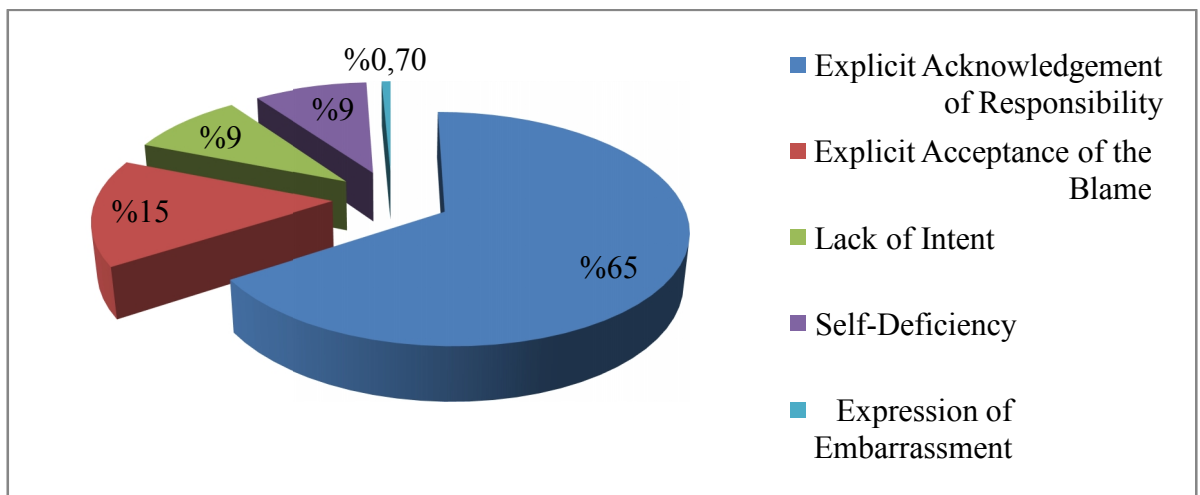


Figure 12: Percentage Frequency of the Sub-categories of Acknowledgement of Responsibility

Table 7 and figure 11 show that the most frequent sub-formula used to acknowledge responsibility is 'the explicit acknowledgement of responsibility' (65%) then 'an expression of

explicit acceptance of the blame' (15%). The two sub-formulas of 'an expression of lack of intent' and 'self-deficiency' are equally used by EFL learners (9%). 'The expression of embarrassment' is hardly resorted to by the informants. It accounts for only 0.7% of all the sub-strategies used to acknowledge responsibility.

Table 8 shows the distribution of these sub-formulas across the twelve situations.

Situation	Acknowledgement of Responsibility											
	Implicit		Explicit		Lack of Intent		Self-deficiency		Expression of Embarrassment		Acceptance of Blame	
1	0	0%	26	9%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
2	0	0%	42	15%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	4	9%
3	0	0%	34	12%	6	23%	0	0%	0	0%	2	4%
4	0	0%	0	0%	14	53%	10	38%	2	100%	6	14%
5	0	0%	0	0%	6	23%	16	61%	0	0%	8	19%
6	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
7	0	0%	34	12%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
8	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	8	19%
9	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
10	0	0%	30	10%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	6	14%
11	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	8	19%
12	0	0%	18	6%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%

Table 8: The Distribution of the Sub-formulas of Acknowledgement of Responsibility

5.1.1.2.1 Explicit Acknowledgement of Responsibility

The table above shows that ‘the explicit acknowledgement of responsibility’ is the most widely used formula by EFL learners to acknowledge responsibility (65%).

Three situations have triggered the highest use of this category. These are situation 2 (Taking an advisor’s book home), 3 (Breaking a student’s laptop), 7 (Arriving 10-minutes late at a classmate’s house and 1 (Not grading students’ assignments on time).

I am really sorry. I am late (Situation 7).

I am really sorry. I took your book home yesterday (Situation 2)

It seems that none of the informants resorts to this category in situations 4 (Staining a lady’s coat with coffee), 5 (Damaging a best friend’s car), 6 (Hiccupping while talking to a best friend), 8 (Copying an essay from a website), 9 (Stepping on a professor’s foot) and 11 (Changing an order at a restaurant). The types of offenses in these situations do not involve an explicit acknowledgement of responsibility.

5.1.1.2.2 Explicit Acceptance of the Blame

The second most frequently used sub category to acknowledge responsibility (15%). Using this sub-formula, the apologizer explicitly admits fault. The speaker in these situations explicitly accepts that s/he was at fault. This helps to stress the speaker’s positive face in that the speaker avoids any kind of disagreement.

Although this strategy might threaten the apologizer’s positive face, it could help appease the offended as the apologizer avoids being in disagreement with the offended

The situations which have received high incidence of this strategy are situation 5 (Damaging a best friend's car), 8 (Copying an essay from a web site), 11 (Changing an order at a restaurant), 10 (Forgetting to inform a teacher of a meeting) and 4 (Staining a lady's coat with coffee).

I am sorry. It is my fault (Situation 5).

I am sorry. I made a big mistake (Situation 8).

5.1.1.2.3 Expression of lack of Intent

The expression of lack of intent has been utilized to show that the offense is unintentional and in so doing decreases the severity of the offense. 9% of the responses where these learners acknowledge responsibility are expressions of unintentionality.

This sub-formula is relatively profusely used in situation 4 (Knocking over one's coffee and staining a lady's coat) (53%) and 3 (Breaking a student's laptop) (23%) and 5 (Damaging a best friend's car). This is due to the nature of the offense which requires the use of such a strategy to mitigate the offense.

I am very sorry. It was a total accident. Are you okay? (Situation5).

I am sorry. I don't know how it happened (Situation4).

I am so sorry. I did not do it on purpose. I just lost control (Situation5).

EFL learners have not used this strategy in situation 1 (not grading students' term papers) because of the social status of the interlocutors. The apologizer is of high social status than the apologizee and the type of the offense which does not require him / her to express that the offense was unintentional.

5.1.1.2.4 Expression of Self-deficiency

The Expression of self – deficiency is highly used in situation 5 (Damaging a best friend's car) (61%) and 4 (Staining a lady's coat) (38%). This sub-strategy has a direct link to the speaker's loss of face which results from presenting the speech act of apology (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989; Brown & Levinson, 1978). The speaker admits his/her inadequacy.

This sub-strategy is often accompanied by 'swearing' as a way to intensify apology and substantiate the apologizer's pure intent to restore social equilibrium.

By God, I didn't pay attention to the street light (Situation 7).

5.1.1.2.5 Expression of Embarrassment

This formula is hardly found in EFL learners' apologies (0.7%).

The fact that the expression of embarrassment is used in one situation which is situation 4 (staining a lady's coat) and disappeared in all other situations show that it is a situation specific sub-formula..

This is terribly embarrassing (Situation4).

Other forms that learners used included:

I am really shy from you (Situation4).

I do not know where to turn my face. Please forgive me (Situation4).

5.1.1.3 Offer of Repair

Of the two sub-categories of offer repair strategy, only explicit offer of repair is used by EFL learners.

Situation	Offer Repair/Compensation			
	Implicit		Explicit	
	N	%	N	%
1	0	0%	26	17%
2	0	0%	26	17%
3	0	0%	30	19%
4	0	0%	16	10%
5	0	0%	14	9%
6	0	0%	0	0%
7	0	0%	0	0%
8	0	0%	0	0%
9	0	0%	0	0%
10	0	0%	0	0%
11	0	0%	0	0%
12	0	0%	40	26%

Table 9: The Distribution of the Sub-categories of Offer of Repair

Situations 12 (Forgetting to take a son shopping), 3 (Breaking a student's laptop), 1(not grading students' papers on time) and 2 (Taking a teacher's book home) have triggered the highest percentages of offer of repair responses.

I am so sorry I broke your laptop. I do not know how it happened. I will bring you a new one tomorrow (Situation 3).

I am sorry I have not finished grading your papers yet. I will give them to you tomorrow (Situation 1).

I am sorry I haven't brought your book with me. I will give it to you tomorrow (Situation 2).

I am really sorry. I will clean it if you do not mind (Situation 4).

Consistent with Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) findings, this strategy is situation-specific and resorted to when a physical damage is involved. It is found that subjects employ this strategy in situation 3 (Breaking a friend's laptop) where the physical transgression results in the damage of the hearer's possession. The speakers consider that offering repair by paying for a new laptop is the best way to redress the offense.

Although In situations 1 (not grading students' papers on time) and 2 (Forgetting a teacher 's book home) there seems to be no physical damage involved, EFL learners use the strategy of offering repair. The damage involved in these situations is perceived by the informants to be emotional. The offense in situation 1 is perceived as severe. This induces the informants to offer repair. It seems that a relationship exists between the severity of the offense and the likelihood to offer repair.

5.1.1.4 Provide Explanation

The fourth most frequently used strategy is providing explanation or account (9.5%).

Situation	Account/Explanation			
	Implicit		Explicit	
1	0	0%	16	14%
2	0	0%	0	0%
3	0	0%	0	0%
4	0	0%	0	0%
5	0	0%	0	0%
6	0	0%	0	0%
7	0	0%	26	23%
8	0	0%	26	23%
9	0	0%	16	14%
10	0	0%	10	8%
11	0	0%	0	0%
12	0	0%	18	16%

Table 10: The Distribution of the Sub-categories of Accounts

This strategy is employed by subjects across situations 1,7,8,9, 10, 12 with different percentages. Speakers use ‘explicit reasons’ that might minimize the blame assigned to them. While ‘implicit accounts’ are not given in any of the twelve situations, explicit accounts are profusely given in situation 7(Arriving 10 minutes late at a classmate’s house) and 8 (Copying an essay from a website and teacher found out).

I am sorry. The traffic was terrible (Situation 7).

I am so sorry. I know that it was a big mistake I did but I took my mother to the hospital and stayed with her all night. I really did not have time to prepare my essay (Situation8).

I am sorry but I was ill yesterday. I could not prepare the presentation well (Situation8).

It is important to note that accounts are not used where physical damage is involved (Situations 3 and 5). It can be implied that EFL learners' low use of accounts in these situations signals they do not aim to shift responsibility and attach it to another party.

5.1.1.5 Express Concern

The fifth strategy used by EFL learners is expressing concern for the hearer (2.5%). In order to remedy an offense, the apologizer may express concern for the hearer's condition.

Situations	Occurrences	
	N	%
1	0	0
2	0	0
3	0	0
4	12	40
5	16	53
6	0	0
7	2	6
8	0	0
9	0	0
10	0	0
11	0	0
12	0	0

Table 11: Occurrence Number of Expression of Concern

This strategy is of low incidence in the data obtained. It figures only in situations 4(staining a lady’s coat), 5 (damaging a best friend’s car) and 7(arriving 10 minutes late at a classmate’s house). This clearly indicates that it is a situation-specific strategy that is resorted to only when a space offense is involved.

Oh, I am so sorry. It is my fault. Are you okay? (Situation5).

I am sorry. Were you waiting long? (Situation7).

5.1.1.6 Opt Out

Of the six sub-categories of the opting out strategy, three are used. They include keeping silent (46%), explicit denial of responsibility (30%) and blaming hearer (23%).

Table 12 shows the distribution of the sub-categories of the strategy of opting out.

Sub-strategies	N	%
Keeping Silent	12	46
Explicit denial	8	30
Implicit denial	00	00
Justification	00	00
Blaming someone else	00	00
Blaming Hearer	6	23
Total	26	100

Table 12: The Distribution of the Sub-categories of Opting out

Figure 12 presents the percentage frequency of the sub-categories of the strategy of opting out.

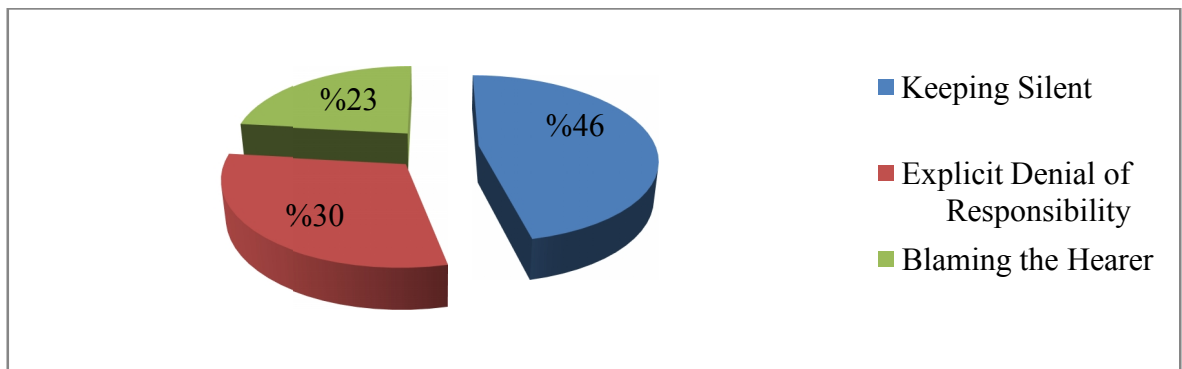


Figure 13: Percentage Frequency of the Sub-categories of Opting out

Although all the situations in the DCT questionnaire are designed to elicit apologies, some informants choose to keep silent probably because they think that the offense is not severe enough to call for an apology or because they deny that they can be held responsible. Situation 6 (hiccupping while talking to a friend) receives all the keeping silent responses.

In situation 6, the offense is perceived as less severe by the informants that it should not call for an apology.

The second most frequently used sub-formula is the explicit denial of responsibility. The apologizer explicitly denies his/her involvement in the offense.

Situation 11 (changing an order at a restaurant) has triggered most responses of explicit denial of responsibility.

That is not what I asked for. You may have misheard me.

The sub-formula of blaming hearer is used by the informants with a low frequency (23%).

Blaming the hearer is only resorted to in situation 11 (changing an order at a restaurant).

I think you made a mistake.

You misheard me.

The formulas of justifying hearer, implicit denial of responsibility and blaming someone or something else are not used by the informants.

5.1.1.7 Promise of Forbearance

When apologizing, the apologizer may be expected to behave in a consistent fashion and not immediately repeat the act for which s/he has just apologized (Owen, 1983). In this way, apologies seem to relate not only to past but also to future acts. This strategy, like many others, is resorted to in order to save the apologizer's positive face and redress the offended party's negative face.

Promise of forbearance has not been employed across all the situations. Only one situation has triggered the most frequent use of a promise of forbearance; situation 8 (promising a teacher not to copy essays from websites again).

I will not do that again. I promise (Situation 8).

The use of a promise of forbearance might be linked to the assumption that they will continue to have sessions with the teacher.

5.1.1.8 Evasive Strategy

According to Trosborg (1995), this strategy is related to the strategies in which the apologizer fails to take on responsibility. The difference lies in the fact that the apologizer does not deny responsibility. Instead s/he seeks to downgrade his/her responsibility or minimize the severity of the offense.

Of the five subcategories of this strategy, only two are used: minimizing and humour.

Figure 13 presents the percentage frequency of the two sub-formulas.

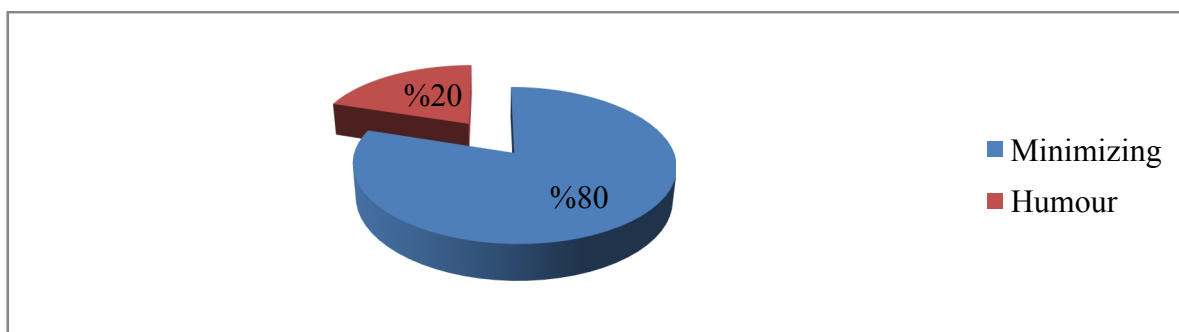


Figure 14: Percentage Frequency of the Sub-formulas of the Evasive Strategy

The most frequent one is minimizing (80%). Using this sub-formula, the apologizer seeks to minimize the degree of offense by arguing that the offense is of minor importance. It is used in only three situations. They are situation 3 (breaking a student's laptop) and 7 (arriving 10 minutes late at a classmate's house) and 10 (forgetting to inform a teacher of a meeting to attend).

The laptop can be fixed (Situation 3).

It's just ten minutes not a big deal (Situation 7).

It (the meeting) was not very important (Situation 10).

The other sub-formula used by EFL learners is expressing sense of humour (20%). The apologizer seeks to soften the severity of the offense by saying something funny. Humour is only used in situation 4 (staining a lady's coat with coffee)

I am very sorry. I think i am still asleep. Are you okay? (Situation 4).

The other sub-formulas including 'querying preconditions', 'blaming someone else' and 'offering compliment or praise' are not used by any of the respondents.

5.1.1.9 Alerter

EFL learners have used ‘titles’, ‘first names’, ‘general nouns’, ‘endearment and solidarity forms’ to address their interlocutors. Speakers normally use ‘title’ to show they are aware of the social status of the hearer. EFL learners have utilized ‘teacher’, ‘professor’ and the form ‘sir’. ‘General nouns’ have been used by EFL learners to say they are aware of the neutral social distance of their interlocutors. The form ‘student’ is employed. As to the ‘solidarity and endearment forms’, they are used by EFL learners to say that they know the hearer well. ‘Friend’ and ‘dear’ are utilized functioning as in-group identity markers, positive politeness markers (Brown & Levinson, 1978). The function of which is to strengthen solidarity with the hearer or redress of face-threatening acts of some kind (McCormick & Richardson, 2006).

Table 13 shows the distribution of Alerters Used by EFL Learners.

Alerter	N	%
Title	112	59
Solidarity and Endearment	58	30
General Noun	18	9
Total	188	100

Table 13: The Distribution of Alerters

Figure 14 represents the percentage frequency of alerters utilized by EFL learners.

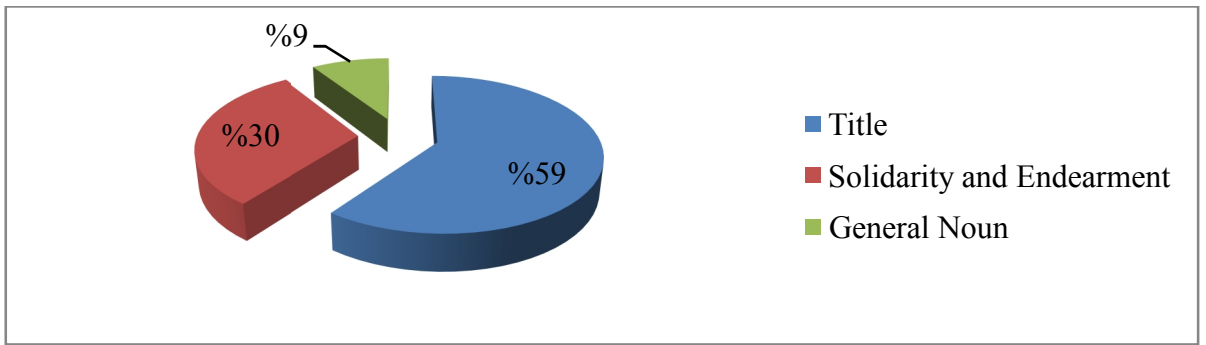


Figure 15: Percentage Frequency of Alerters

Alerters are nearly used across all the situations except for situations 3, 7, 10 and 11.

Table 14 shows the distribution of alerters across the twelve situations.

Situation	Alerters	
	N	%
1	18	9%
2	22	11%
3	0	0%
4	24	12%
5	10	5%
6	16	8%
7	0	0%
8	32	17%
9	34	18%
10	0	0%
11	0	0%
12	32	17%

Table 14: the Distribution of Alerters across the situations

EFL learners have employed the highest proportion of these alerters in situation 9 (stepping on a professor's foot), and 8 (copying an essay from a website and the teacher found out). EFL learners have used 'titles' when addressing hearers in these situations. Three types of titles are used: 'teacher', 'professor' and 'sir'.

I am sorry, teacher. It is my fault. I won't do it again (Situation 8).

'Solidarity and endearment forms' are used by the speakers while apologizing to close friends. In situation 5 (breaking a friend's car), EFL learners use the solidarity marker 'friend' and endearment form 'dear'. This solidarity marker functions as a type of 'in-group identity marker', one of the positive politeness markers (Brown & Levinson, 1978).

I am sorry, friend. I broke it. I don't know how it happened. I will pay for the damage (Situation 5).

Oh, dear, I am so sorry. It is my fault.

'General nouns' are used between interactants whose social distance is neutral. Such nouns are employed in situation 1 (being late for grading students' assignments). The lecturer calls the hearers 'students'.

Sorry, students. I shall give you your assignments tomorrow (situation 1).

5.1.1.10 Intensification Means

The intensification of apology responses is achieved via a number of means. These are 'adverbials', 'repetition of the same IFID', 'the use of emotional phrases', 'the use of two sub-formulas of IFIDs' and 'swear words'.

Table 15 shows the distribution of the intensification means in the EFL learners' responses.

Intensifier	N	%
Adverbials	120	44
Emotional Phrases	60	22
Two Sub-formulas of IFID	56	20
Repetition of the Same IFID	18	6
Swear Words	14	5
Total	268	100

Table 15: Occurrence Number and Percentage Frequency of the Intensification Means

Figure15 shows the percentage frequency of the intensification means used by EFL learners.

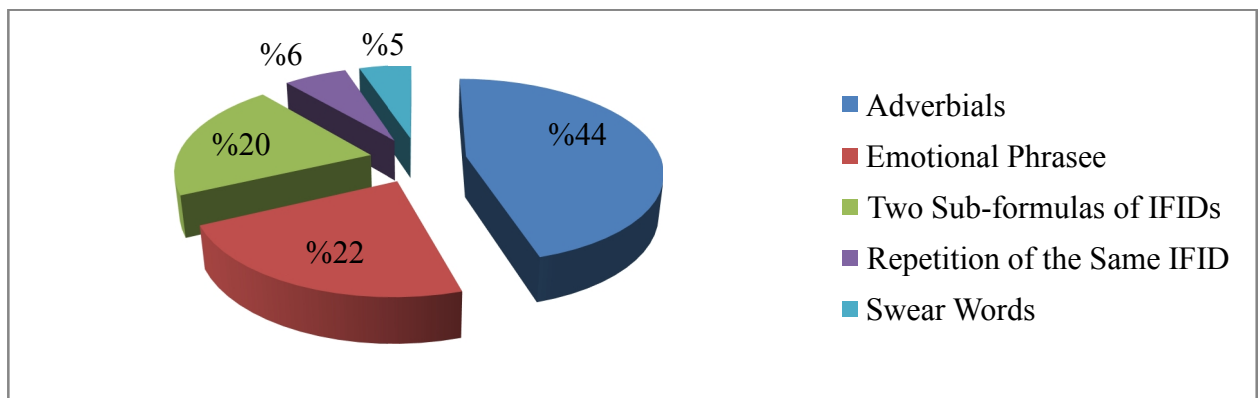


Figure 16: Percentage Frequency of Intensification Means

5.1.1.10.1 Adverbials

Table 15 shows that the most frequently used means for the intensification of apologies is ‘adverbials’. These include adverbs such as ‘very’, ‘so’, ‘really’, ‘extremely’, ‘deeply’ and ‘terribly’.

Table 16 shows the distribution of adverbials across the situation.

Situations	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	S11	S12
Occurrences	12	18	12	22	10	00	6	12	12	16	00	00

Table 16: Overall Occurrence Number of Adverbials

Table 16 indicates that nearly all the situations (except situation 6, 11 and 12) are intensified through the use of ‘adverbials’. The highest incidence of intensifiers is found in situations 4 (knocking over one’s coffee and staining a lady’s coat), 2 (forgetting a professor’s book home), 10 (forgetting to inform a teacher about a meeting) .It is noticeable that the informants tend to intensify their apologies more when the apologizer is of a lower social status than the apologizee , as is the case in situations 2, 10.

I am really sorry. I will give it to you tomorrow (Situation 2)

Intensifiers are also used when the offense is perceived as severe by the informants, as is the case in situations 4, 3.

I am very sorry. I did not mean that (Situation 4).

I am so sorry. I will buy you a new one (Situation 3).

EFL learners have not resorted to any of the adverbials in situation 8 (hiccupping while talking to a best friend). It can be implied that the informants have not perceived the offense as serious and thus does not call for an apology.

The adverbials used by EFL learners are ‘so’, ‘very’, ‘really’, ‘extremely’, ‘deeply’ and ‘terribly’.

Frequencies of these adverbials are shown in table below.

Situation	Adverbials					
	So	Very	Really	Extremely	Deeply	Terribly
1	12	0	0	0	0	0
2	14	0	0	2	2	0
3	12	0	0	0	0	0
4	18	0	4	0	0	0
5	8	2	0	0	0	0
6	0	0	0	0	0	0
7	4	0	2	0	0	0
8	6	4	0	0	0	2
9	12	0	0	0	0	0
10	10	2	4	0	0	0
11	0	0	0	0	0	0
12	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	96	8	10	2	2	2

Table 17: Percentage Frequency of Adverbials across the Situations

Figure 16 represents the Percentage frequency of the adverbials used by EFL learners.

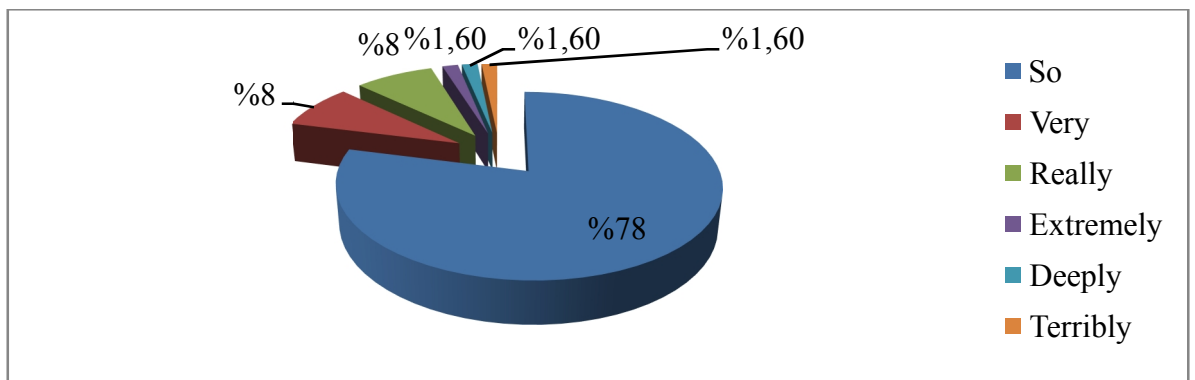


Figure 17: Percentage Frequency of Adverbials

Table 17 and figure 16 above indicate that the informants have a preference for the adverbial 'so' which is used across all the situations (except situations 6, 11 and 12) with a high percentage. It is profusely employed in situation 4 (staining a lady's coat with coffee) and situation 2 (forgetting a teacher's book home).

I am **so** sorry. I did not mean that.

I am **so** sorry sir. It was my fault.

The adverbials 'very' and 'really' are used equally by EFL learners. It is used in situation 8 (copying an essay from the Internet and the teacher found out)

I am **very** sorry sir. I will not do that again.

The adverbials 'extremely', 'deeply' and 'terribly' are used least. They have figured out in the informants responses to situation 2 (forgetting a teacher's book home). It is also the case with 'terribly' that is used in situation 8 (copying an essay from a web site and teacher found out).

I am **deeply** sorry sir. I took your book yesterday. I will bring it tomorrow.

I am **terribly** sorry. It was my fault. I will not do that again.

5.1.1.10.2 Emotional Phrases

Another strategy used by the informants to intensify their IFIDs is the use of emotional/exclamatory words/phrases to express a lack of intent (22%). Table 18 shows the distribution of the emotional phrases used to intensify apologies.

Situation	Emotional Phrases	
	N	%
1	00	00
2	00	00
3	6	00
4	24	40
5	18	30
6	00	00
7	00	00
8	00	00
9	6	10
10	6	10
11	00	00
12	00	00
Total	60	100

Table18: The Distribution of Emotional Phrases

Table 18 shows that ‘emotional phrases’ are highly used in situation 4 (staining a lady’s coat with coffee).

Oh my God, I am so sorry, I did not mean that.

Ooooh, I am so sorry.

They are also employed in situation 5 (breaking a friend’ s car)

Oooops, I am so sorry. What did I do?

Oh my goodness, this is bad, I am really sorry.

EFL learners have used the expression 'I do not believe my eyes' to show surprise and also communicate the impression that they did not mean the offense or did not expect it either:

Oh, I do not believe my eyes, this is so bad. I am so sorry (Situation 5).

5.1.1.10.3 Two Sub-formula of IFIDs

The third means used by EFL learners to intensify apologies is the two sub-formulas.

Situation	Two Sub-formulas of IFIDs	
	N	%
1	4	7
2	8	14
3	10	17
4	26	46
5	2	3
6	00	00
7	00	00
8	6	10
9	00	00
10	00	00
11	00	00
12	00	00
Total	56	100

Table 19: The Distribution of Two Sub-formulas of IFIDs

The table above shows that situation 4 (staining a lady' s coat with coffee) has triggered the highest uses of this sub-strategy.

I am sorry; please forgive me (Situation 4).

I am sorry. I did not mean that. Please, forgive me (Situation3).

5.1.1.10.4 Repetition of the Same IFID

The fourth form used to intensify apologies is the repetition of the same IFID (6%). Table 20 shows the percentage frequency of this sub-strategy across the twelve situations.

Situation	Repetition of the Same IFID	
	N	%
1	2	11
2	4	22
3	00	00
4	6	33
5	4	22
6	00	00
7	00	00
8	2	11
9	00	00
10	00	00
11	00	00
12	00	00
Total	18	100

Table 20: The Distribution of Repetition of the Same IFID

Table 20 shows that this means of intensification is most used in situation 4 (staining a lady ' s coat with coffee), 2 (forgetting an advisor's book home) and 5 (breaking a friend's car).

I am sorry. I did not do it on purpose. Sorry again (Situation 4).

I am sorry sir. I took your book home. Sorry again (Situation 2).

5.1.1.10.5 Swear Words

Religious swear expressions are realized via mentioning the word of Allah (God). It is significant because of its power to confirm truth.

Situation	Swear Words	
	N	%
1	00	00
2	00	00
3	6	42
4	00	00
5	2	14
6	00	00
7	00	00
8	6	42
9	00	00
10	00	00
11	00	00
12	00	00
Total	14	100

Table 21: The Distribution of Swear Words

Table 21 shows that 'swear words' are resorted to only in situations 3, 8 and 5.

God knows I was ill and could not prepare it. I am so sorry (Situation8).

I am sorry. I did not mean that. I swear (Situation 3).

It is worth mentioning that learners use this formula (swearing) with many strategies, except with IFIDs.

Oh, I took my mother to the hospital and stayed with her all night. I swear. Please forgive me. I won't do that again, I promise (Situation8).

It seems that the offenses in situations 3, 5 and 8 where the swear words are used are highly severe. EFL learners may have resorted to these swear words to express their commitment and serious intent to get the hurt remedied.

5.1.2 Newly Employed Apology Strategies

The findings of the study have revealed new apology strategies that are resorted to by EFL learners.

Strategy	N	%
A Call to Hold Anger	40	71
Determinism	10	17
Arrogance	6	10
Total	56	100

Table 22: Occurrence Number and Percentage Frequency of the New Apology Strategies

Figure 17 represents the frequency with which each of these new strategies was used by EFL learners.

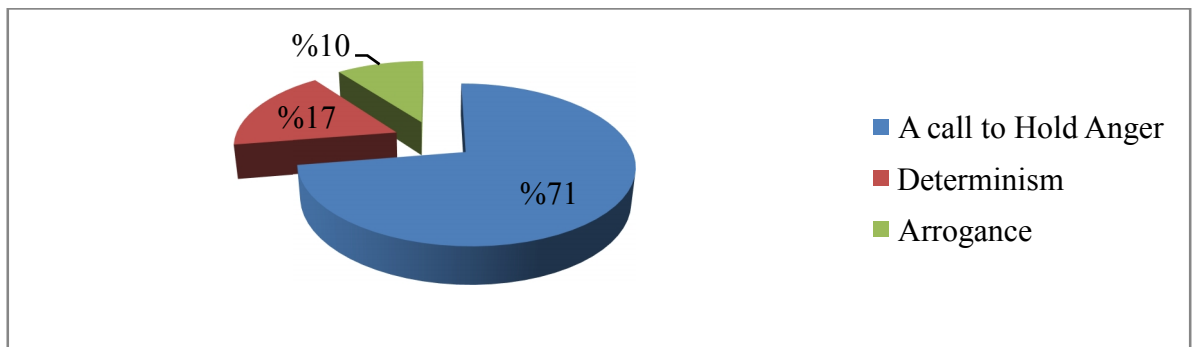


Figure 18: Percentage Frequency of the New Apology Strategies

Table 22 and figure 17 clearly show that EFL learners have used three apology strategies; ‘a call to hold one’s anger’, ‘determinism’ and ‘arrogance’.

5.1.2.1 A Call to Hold Anger

This strategy is the most frequent one (71%). It calls for the offended to hold anger. Situation 12 (forgetting to take a son shopping) has triggered the highest percentage (30%) of the uses of this strategy. 25% of the requests to hold one’s anger are used in situation 3(breaking a student’s laptop). In situation 5(damaging a best friend’s car), 20% of the requests to hold one’s anger are used. This strategy is mostly used in these situations because the physical damage involved is likely to make the offended angry.

It is important to note that this strategy is often followed by an offer of repair.

I am so sorry I broke your laptop but do not be angry. I will buy you another one (Situation3).

I am really sorry. It is my fault. Please do not get angry. I will pay for the damage (Situation 5).

5.1.2.2 Determinism

The second most frequently used strategy is determinism (17%). This strategy is used only in situations 5 (damaging a best friend’s car) (60%) and 3 (breaking a student’s laptop)

(40%) where physical damage is involved. This apology strategy is resorted to by EFL learners to provide excuses for the offenses they commit. This is because, as Muslims, people believe that events will take place the way Allah intends them to go as he is the one who has full mastery. The offended party is not to be blamed each time as every offense s/he is part of is out of this individual's control. This belief that God controls things, however, does not free the offender from responsibility.

It was all out my control. It would have happened to any one (Situation 5).

I am sorry but I believe it would have happened any way (Situation 3).

5.1.2.3 Arrogance

This strategy is resorted to by EFL learners when they act directly without any consideration for the hearer's face.

The only situation that has triggered occurrences of this strategy is situation 12 (Changing an order at a restaurant).

Change this order. I don't want it.

5.2 Contextual Factors and Apology Strategy Use

Sociolinguistic variables such as social status and social distance have been reported to function in a variety of languages; however, the relative importance the languages give to each variable differs. It may be interesting to understand how Algerian EFL learners apologize in English under different sociolinguistic variables.

After an overview of apology strategy use by EFL learners, the influence of contextual factors, including social status, social distance and severity of offense on their apology strategy preference and intensity are elaborated respectively in this section.

5.2. 1 Social Status

Table 23 lists the occurrence number and percentage frequency of apology strategy used by EFL learners based on their interlocutors' social status.

Status Strategy	High		Equal		Low		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Opt Out	0	0	12	46.1	14	53.8	26	100
Evasive Strategy	2	20	6	60	2	20	10	100
Acknowledge Responsibility	86	30.7	106	37.8	88	31.4	280	100
Account	42	37.5	26	23	44	39	112	100
Direct Apology	180	32	188	33.9	186	33.5	554	100
Concern for Hearer	12	40	18	60	0	0	30	100
Promise of Forbearance	12	100	0	0	0	0	12	100
Offer of Repair	42	27	44	28	66	43	152	100
Alerter	112	59	26	13	50	26	188	100
Intensifier	152	56	76	28	40	14	268	100

Table 23: Occurrence Number and Percentage Frequency of Apology strategies in Relation to Social Status

Figure 18 shows the percentage frequency of the apology strategies used by EFL learners in relation to the social status variable.

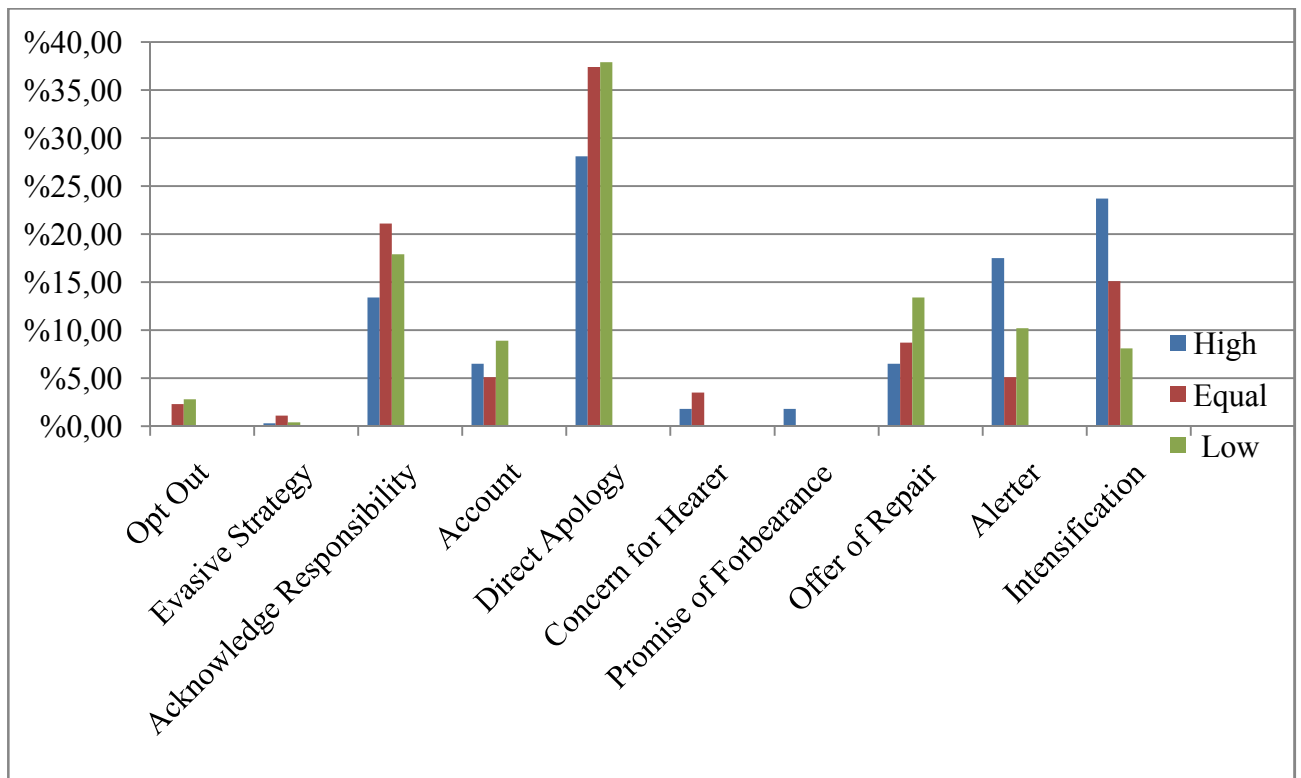


Figure 19: Percentage Frequency of Apology Strategies in Relation to Social Status

Table 24 lists the apology strategy preference order by EFL learners in relation to social status.

High Status	N	%	Equal Status	N	%	Low Status	N	%
1 DirectApology	180	28.1	1DirectApology	188	37.4	1Direct Apology	186	37.9
2 Intensifier	152	23.7	2 Acknowledge Responsibility	106	21.1	2 Acknowledge Responsibility	88	17.9
3 Alerter	112	17.5	3 Intensifier	76	15.1	3 Offer Repair	66	13.4
4 Acknowledge Responsibility	86	13.4	4 Offer Repair	44	8.7	4 Alerter	50	10.2
5 Account	42	6.5	5 Account	26	5.1	5 Account	44	8.9
6 Offer Repair	42	6.5	6 Alerter	26	5.1	6 Intensifier	40	8.1
7 Concern for Hearer	12	1.8	7 Concern for Hearer	18	3.5	7 Opt Out	14	2.8
8 Promise of Forbearance	12	1.8	8 Opt Out	12	2.3	8Evasive Strategy	2	0.4
Evasive Strategy	2	0.3	9Evasive Strategy	6	1.1	9 Concern for Hearer	0	0
Opt Out	00	00	Promise of Forbearance	00	00	10 Promise of Forbearance	0	0
Total	640	100	Total	502	100	Total	490	100

Table 24: Apology Strategy Preference Order in Relation to Social Status

5.2.1.1 Opting Out

Table 23 shows that the strategy of opting out is used most to low (53.8%) and equal (46.1%) status interlocutors. It is not used to high status interlocutors. In situation 11 (changing

an order at a restaurant), 57% of the opting out utterances are expressions of explicit denials of responsibility and 42% of these utterances are used to put the blame on the hearer.

I did not order this. Just change it

I think you misheard me.

The strategy is adopted in interaction with equal status interlocutors as in situation 6 (hiccupping while talking to a friend). All the respondents have kept silent. It seems that they do not think that they do something wrong. These findings contradict those of Bonikowska's (1988) observation that the highest number of opting out responses occurs in + power situations.

5.2.1.2 Strategies of Apology

The evasive strategy is used by EFL learners most to equal (60%) status interlocutors and least to high (20%) and low (20%) status interlocutors.

In interaction with equal and low status interlocutors, EFL learners try to downgrade the severity of the offense by minimizing its importance. This is clear in situations 3 (breaking a student's laptop) and 10 (forgetting to inform one of the teachers of a meeting).

I am sorry. It can be fixed.

I am sorry. It was not important

In interaction with high status interlocutors, EFL learners express sense of humour as in situation 4 (staining a lady's coat with coffee).

I am sorry. I think I am still asleep.

As far as the strategy of 'acknowledgement of responsibility', EFL learners are found to acknowledge responsibility most to equals (37.8%) but less low (31.4%) and high (30.7%) status interlocutors.

When apologizing to equal status interlocutors, EFL learners resort to the explicit 'acknowledgement of responsibility' sub-strategy (64%). This sub-strategy is equally used in situation 3 (breaking a student's laptop) and 7 (arriving ten-minute late at a classmate house).

I am sorry I broke your laptop.

I am sorry I am late.

The second most used sub-strategy in apologizing to equal status hearers is the expression of self deficiency (15%). This sub-formula is used in situation 5 (damaging a best friend's car).

I am sorry. I did not pay attention to the street light.

The third sub- strategy is the expression of lack of intent (11%). It is used in situation 3 (breaking a student's laptop) and 5 (damaging a best friend's car).

I am sorry. I did not mean it.

I am sorry. It was an accident

The least frequently used strategy is the explicit acceptance of the blame (10%). It is used in situation 5 (damaging a best friend's car).

I am sorry. It is my fault.

As to the strategy of accounts, they are given equally to low (39%) and high (37%) status interlocutors but least to equal status interlocutors (23%).

EFL learners use accounts in situation 12 (forgetting to take a son shopping) and situation 1 (not grading students' papers on time).

I am sorry son. I was busy.

I am sorry students. I had an urgent work to do.

EFL learners use 'accounts' least to equals. They use it most in situation 7 (arriving 10-minute late at a classmate's house).

I am sorry I am late. There was a heavy traffic.

With regard the 'direct expression of apology', the findings indicate that minimal amount of difference among the three social status groups exists. Direct apology strategies are given to equal (33.9%) and low (33.5) status interlocutors. They are even given to high status interlocutors (32%). It can be implied that the use of the direct expression of apology by EFL learners is not associated with social status. Of the three sub-formulas of the direct expression of apology strategy, EFL learners resort to the expression of regret (78%). 'The expression of regret' is used most to low status interlocutors (35%) and high status (33.6%). It is, however, used least to equal status interlocutors (31%).

This sub-formula is extensively used in situation 7 (arriving ten-minute late at a classmate's house) and 5 (damaging a best friend's car).

I am sorry. The traffic was terrible

I am sorry. It is my fault. I will pay for the damage

This sub-strategy is overused in situation 12 (forgetting to take a child shopping) and 1 (not grading students' assignments on time). EFL learners, in the role of a university lecturer

think they should apologize for not grading students' papers on time. This may demonstrate their care for their students.

It is used extensively in situation 9 (stepping on a professor's foot), 2 (forgetting an advisor's book home) and 8 (copying an essay from a website and the teacher found that out).

I am sorry sir. I am in a hurry.

I am so sorry sir. I took your book home yesterday. I will bring it back tomorrow.

I am very sorry teacher. It is my fault. I will not do that again.

The second most frequent strategy to express a direct apology is 'the request for forgiveness'. When EFL learners apologize to equal status hearers, it is resorted to accounting for 48% of all the requests for forgiveness used to the three types of status interlocutors. They use it mostly in situation 6 (hiccupping while talking to a friend) and 3 (bumping into a student and breaking a laptop)

Pardon me friend.

Please forgive me. It is my fault.

26% of the requests for forgiveness are used to low status interlocutors. EFL learners request forgiveness in situations 10 (forgetting to inform a teacher of a meeting) and 1 (not grading students' assignments on time).

Please forgive me. I forgot all about it

Pardon me. I will bring them next time.

'Offer of apology' is not used frequently. 50% of the offer of apology occurrences are found in apologizing to high status interlocutors as in situation 2 (forgetting a teacher's book home) and 8 (copying an essay from a web site and the teacher found out)

I apologize sir. I took your book home. I will bring it back tomorrow.

My apologies, teacher. It is my fault but I will not do that again.

37.5% of the offer of apology sub-strategy occurrences are given in apologies to low status interlocutors as in situation 10 (forgetting to inform a teacher of a meeting).

I apologize I forgot all about it.

12.5% of these occurrences found in equal status interlocutors as it is the case in situation 3 (bumping into a student and breaking a laptop)

I apologize to you. It is my fault.

5.2.1.3 Strategies of Remedial Support

Findings show that the strategy of expressing concern is resorted to by EFL learners to equal (60%) and high (40%) status interlocutors.

I am sorry I did not mean that. Are you okay? (Situation 4)

I am really sorry. Are you okay? (Situation5).

As to the strategy of a promise of forbearance, it is found that EFL learners use it less frequently. This strategy figure only when speakers apologize to high status interlocutors (100%) as in situation 8 (copying an essay from a website).

I am very sorry. I won't do that again. I promise.

As far as the strategy of offering repair or compensation is concerned, it is found to be used most to low status interlocutors (43%) as in situation 12 (forgetting to take a son shopping) and situation 1 (not returning students' papers on time).

I am sorry son. I will take you tomorrow.

I am sorry students. I will bring them tomorrow.

Offer of repair is used equally to equals (28%) and high (27%) status interlocutors. Offer of repair is used in situation 3 (breaking a student's laptop).

I am sorry. I will buy you a new one.

It is also used in situation 2 (taking an advisor's book home)

I am so sorry. I will bring it to you tomorrow.

5.2.1.4 Intensification Means

The informants tend to intensify their IFIDs through the use of adverbials ('very', 'really', 'so', 'extremely', and 'terribly') (44%), emotional phrases ('oh' and 'oh my God') (22%), the use of two sub-formulas of the expression of apology) (20%), the repetition of the same IFID (6%) and swear words (5%). Intensifiers are used most in apologizing to high status interlocutors (56%) but least to equals (28%) and low (14%) status interlocutors. It seems that the intensification of apology strategies is closely associated with social status. It seems clear that speakers of high social status prefer not to use intensifiers as much as the other two groups. They tend to use a direct expression of apology without an up-grader such as 'very', 'really' or 'so' when talking to a person of a low social status.

Sorry, I have not graded your papers yet. I had a meeting yesterday.

Of all the intensification means used to apologize to high status interlocutors, 'adverbials' are the most frequently means (42%). 'Adverbials' are used extensively in situation 4(staining a lady's coat with coffee) and situation 2 (taking an advisor's book home). The situation here is highly severe.

I am so sorry lady. It is my fault. Are you okay? (Situation 4).

I am very sorry, teacher, I took your book home yesterday. I promise I will bring it to you tomorrow (Situation 2).

The second intensification means most frequently used by the participants is the use of two sub-formulas of IFIDs (26%).These are used in situation 4 (staining a lady's coat with coffee).

I am sorry lady. I did not mean that. Please forgive me.

The third means used to intensify apologies is 'the use of emotional phrases' (19%). It is employed by EFL learners in situation 4 (staining a lady's coat with coffee).

Oh my God! I am so sorry. I did not mean that.

The fourth intensification means used by EFL learners is the 'repetition of the same IFID' (7%). This strategy is mainly used in situation 4

I am sorry lady. It is my fault. I am sorry again.

The least frequently used strategy is the 'swear words'. These are used in situation 8 (Copying an essay from a web site)

I am sorry. I was ill. I swear

Intensification means are used in interaction with equal status hearers. 'Adverbials' are used most frequently (36%). This is the case in situation 5 (damaging a best friend's car).

I am really sorry. It is my fault

'Emotional phrases' account for (31%). These were used in situation 5.

Oooh! What happened? I am sorry.

The use of 'two sub-formulas of IFIDs' approximates (15%). This is the case in situation 3 (Breaking a student's laptop).

I am sorry. It is my fault. Please, forgive me.

'Swear words' and the 'repetition of the same IFID' are the least frequently used. They are employed in situations 3 and 5 respectively.

I am sorry. It was an accident. I swear

I am sorry. It was my friend. Sorry again.

Learners resort to 'intensification means' when apologizing to low status interlocutors. 'Adverbials' are the most frequently used means (70%) as in situation 10 (forgetting to inform a teacher of a meeting).

I am so sorry I forgot all about it.

Emotional phrases are used by EFL learners (15%). This is the case in situation 10.

Oh my God. I am sorry.

The use of 'two sub-formulas of IFIDs' and the 'repetition of the same IFID' account for only 10% and 5% respectively. These are used in situation 1.

5.2.1.5 Alerters

Alerters which are forms functioning as a type of ‘ in-group identity markers ’; positive politeness markers (Brown & Levinson, 1978). The function of which is to strengthen solidarity with the hearer or redress of face-threatening acts of some kind (McCormick & Richardson, 2006). EFL learners use alerters most in interaction with high status interlocutors (59%). They use them less in apologizing to low (26%) status interlocutors and least to equal (13%) status interlocutors. Three forms are employed: ‘title’ (59%), ‘general noun’ (9%), and ‘solidarity and endearment form’ (30%).

In interaction with high status interlocutors, 100% of the alerters EFL learners use are ‘titles’. They use three types of titles: ‘teacher’, ‘sir’ and ‘professor’, as shown in the examples below.

Teacher, I am really sorry. I will not do it again. (situation 8).

I am sorry, **professor**. I am in a hurry (situation 9).

I am sorry **sir**. I took your book home yesterday. I will bring it tomorrow (Situation 2).

Occupational titles are used as second-person pronouns. These terms are thus used to show their polite intention when they are aware of the social status of the hearer.

In interaction with low status interlocutors, 64% of learners’ alerters are ‘solidarity and endearment expressions’. ‘Solidarity and endearment words’ are used when the speakers know the hearers well these were used in situation 12 (Forgetting to take a son shopping).

Sorry, **son**. I was busy.

I am sorry **my dear**. I forgot all about it.

36% of the alerters used in low status interaction are 'general nouns'. The speakers use a 'general noun' when they are aware that the social distance is neutral as in situation 1 (a university lecturer was late for grading students' assignments), the speaker calls the hearer students.

Sorry, **students**, I was too busy. I will bring them tomorrow.

In interaction with equal status interlocutors, EFL learners use 'solidarity and endearment words' (61%) in situation 6 (hiccupping while talking to a best friend).

I am sorry **dear**.

38% of the alerters are used in situation 5 (Damaging a best friend' s car)

I am sorry **dear**. It was my accident.

The highest percentage of apologies is given to equal and low status interlocutors. This finding is in line with Holme' s generalization that apologies are most common among status equals who do not feel too concerned about the potential of loss or having to admit inefficiency.

5.2.2 Social Distance

Table 25 lists the occurrence number and percentage frequency of apology strategies used by EFL learners in relation to social distance.

Distance Strategies	High		Equal		Low		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
	Opt Out	14	53	0	0	12	46	26
Evasive Strategy	6	60	2	20	2	20	10	100
Acknowledge Responsibility	82	29	114	40	84	30	280	100
Account	16	14	68	60	28	25	112	100
Direct Apology	160	28.8	206	37	188	33.9	554	100
Concern for Hearer	12	40	2	6	16	53	30	100
Promise of Forbearance	0	0	12	100	0	0	12	100
Offer Repair	46	30	52	34	54	35.5	152	100
Alerter	58	30	72	38	58	30	188	100
Intensifier	130	48.5	80	29.8	58	21.6	268	100

Table 25: Occurrence Number and Percentage Frequency of Apology Strategies in Relation to Social Distance

Figure 19 represents the frequency percentage of the apology strategies used by EFL learners in relation to social distance.

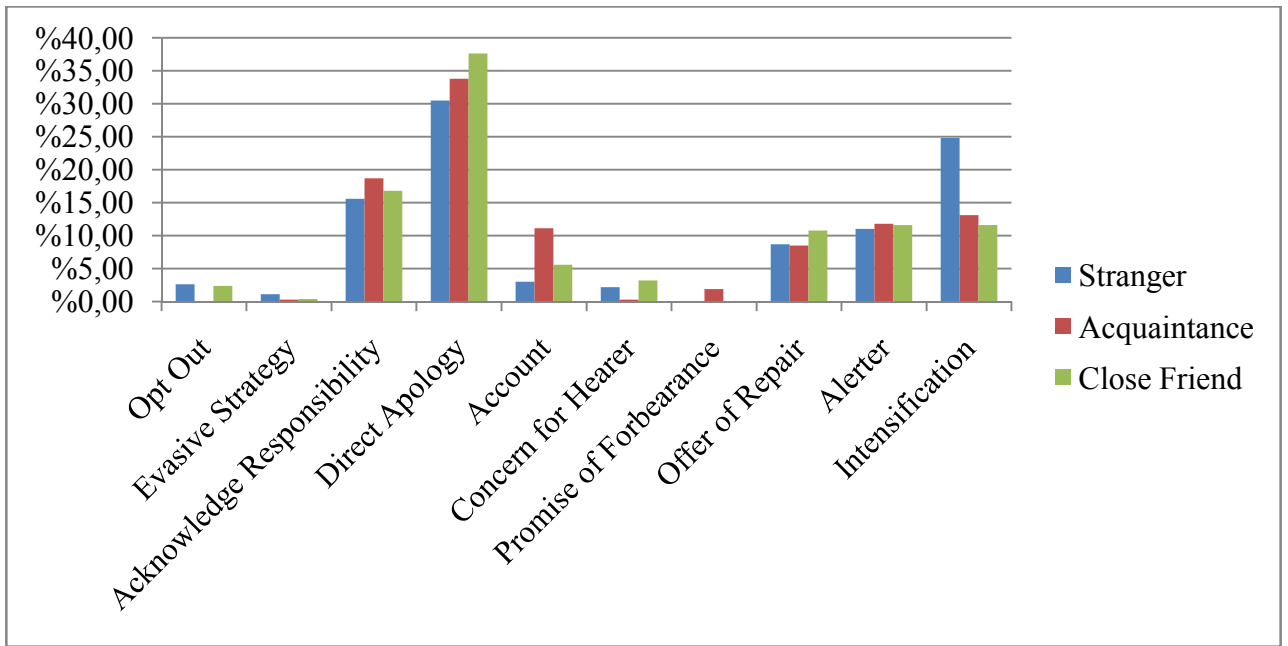


Figure 20: Percentage Frequency of Apology Strategies in Relation to Social Distance

Table 26 shows the overall apology strategy preference order of EFL learners in relation to social distance.

High Distance	N	%	Equal Distance	N	%	Low Distance	N	%
1Direct Apology	160	30.5	1Direct Apology	206	33.8	1Direct Apology	188	37.6
2Intensifier	130	24.8	2Acknowledge Responsibility	114	18.7	2Acknowledge Responsibility	84	16.8
3Acknowledge Responsibility	82	15.6	3Intensifier	80	13.1	3Alerter	58	11.6
4Alerter	58	11	4Alerter	72	11.8	4Intensifier	58	11.6
5Offer Repair	46	8.7	5Account	68	11.1	5Offer Repair	54	10.8
6Account	16	3	6Offer Repair	52	8.5	6Account	28	5.6
7Opt out	14	2.6	7Promise of Forbearance	12	1.9	7Concern for Hearer	16	3.2
8Concern for Hearer	12	2.2	8Concern for Hearer	2	0.3	8Opt out	12	2.4
9Evasive Strategy	6	1.1	9Evasive Strategy	2	0.3	9Evasive Strategy	2	0.4
10Promise of Forbearance	0	0	10Opt out	0	0	10Promise of Forbearance	0	0
Total	524	100	Total	608	100	Total	500	100

Table 26: Apology Strategy Preference Order in Relation to Social Distance

Table 25 and figure 19 reveal that the highest proportion of apologies (37%) are given to acquaintances in comparison with strangers (32%) and close friends (30%). The participants regard unambiguous relationships between strangers and close friends as not as great an incentive for producing apologies as a relationship between acquaintances.

5.2.2.1 Opting Out

As far as the opting out strategy, it is found to be used most frequently in interaction with strangers (53%) and least to close friends (46%). The finding conforms to Bonikowska's (1988) observation that the highest number of opting out responses occurs in high distance situations.

I did not ask for that. Will you change it (Situation 11).

5.2.2.2 Strategies of Apology

The variable of social distance plays a decisive role in the use of strategies of apologies. The evasive strategy is used significantly most to strangers (60%) and least to acquaintances (20%) and close friends (20%).

I am sorry. It can be fixed (Situation 3).

I am sorry but it s just 10 minutes. (Situation7).

I am really sorry but it was not really important (Situation 10).

The other three strategies of apologies are used most to acquaintances. As to the strategy of 'acknowledgement of responsibility', it is found that it is used most frequently to acquaintances (40%). This strategy is also employed by EFL learners in interaction with close friends (30%) and strangers (29%).

Of the entire sub – categories of the strategy of an acknowledgement of responsibility, two are used by EFL learners; 'the explicit acknowledgement of responsibility' (89%) and 'an explicit acceptance of the blame' (10%).

I am sorry sir, I took your book home yesterday (Situation 2).

I am sorry teacher. It is my fault (Situation 8).

When apologizing to close friends, EFL learners use an explicit acknowledgement of responsibility (57%) as in situation 10 (forgetting to inform one of the teachers of a meeting).

I am sorry I did not inform you of the meeting.

They also resort to 'an expression of self-deficiency' (19%) and 'an acceptance in the blame' (16%). These are extensively used in situation 5 (damaging a best friend's car)

I am sorry. I did not see the street light.

I am sorry. It is my fault.

'The expression of a lack of intent' is hardly used (7%) by EFL learners. It figures in situation 5.

I am sorry. It was an accident.

In apologizing to strangers, EFL learners resort to 'an explicit acknowledgement of responsibility' (41%) as in situation 3 (damaging a student's laptop).

I am sorry I broke your laptop.

EFL learners employ the strategy of 'an expression of a lack of intent' (24%), 'an acceptance of the blame' (19%) and 'an expression of self-deficiency' (12%).

I am sorry, I did not mean that. (Situation 4)

I am sorry. It is my fault (Situation 11)

I am sorry. I did not see you (Situation 4).

'The expression of embarrassment' is not used by EFL learners frequently (2%).

I am sorry. This is really embarrassing (Situation 4).

As to the use of accounts, Explanations or accounts are given significantly most to acquaintances (60%). This finding confirms Wolfson's (1989) bulge hypothesis. It states that less apology expressions are used in interaction between very low and very high distance participants, whereas the most apology strategies are used in medium distance relationships. In other words, exchanges between people who are neither strangers nor close friends need expressions of solidarity to support them. Thus, these relationships require an explanation to nurture the relationship.

In interaction with close friends, accounts are used (25%) and to strangers (14%).

I am sorry. My car broke down (Situation 7).

I am sorry. I was busy (Situation 12)

I am sorry, professor. I am in a hurry (Situation 9).

It seems that EFL learners do not use this strategy to strangers because of the reduced chance of ever seeing each other again. They do not use it to close friends because they think it would not be necessary to do this. As Holmes (1990) states that because "intimacy evidently permits shortcuts and substitutions" (p. 187). We do not often hear elaborate or promising expressions among those in close relationships. Instead, they might use another strategy to acknowledge their responsibility of the offense.

Expressions of direct apology are exchanged among acquaintances (37%). These direct expressions of apology are less frequently used in interaction with close friends (33%) strangers (28%). This finding confirms Wolfson's (1989) bulge hypothesis, according to which less

apology strategies are used in interaction between very low and very high distance participants, whereas the most apology strategies are used in medium distance relationships.

The expression of regret is the most frequently occurring sub-formula to express a direct apology to acquaintances (78%). It is mainly used in situation 7 (Arriving 10-minute late at a classmate house).

I am sorry.

The sub-formula of a request for forgiveness is used by EFL learners in interaction with people they know (17%). It is used in situation 8 (Copying an article from a website and a teacher found out).

Please sir, forgive me.

An offer of apology is used least (3%) by EFL learners. It figures out in situation 2 (Taking an advisor's book home).

I apologize, sir but I took your book home yesterday.

5.2.2.3 Strategies of Remedial Support

As far as strategies of offering remedial support are concerned, the strategy of expressing concern is used much more to close friends (53%) than to strangers (40%) and acquaintances (6%).

I am sorry, friend. Are you okay? (Situation 5)

I am really sorry. It is my fault. Are you alright? (Situation 4).

I am sorry. Have you been waiting long? (Situation7).

Offering repair is used to close friends (35%) and acquaintances (34%) but least to strangers (30%). This result can be accounted for in that they would have the chance to see each other again. In other words, the closer the relationship is, the more likely the speaker is to produce an offer of repair in order to maintain the relationships. This strategy is employed in situation 12 (Forgetting to take one's son shopping), 2 (Taking an advisor's book home) and 3 (Breaking a student's laptop). This can be seen in the examples below.

I am sorry dear. I will take you out tomorrow (Situation 12).

I am sorry sir. I will give it to you tomorrow (Situation 2)

I am sorry. I will pay for the damage (Situation 3).

As to the strategy of providing promise of forbearance, it is only used to acquaintances as in situation 8 (Copying an essay from a website). This finding may be related to the social status of the hearer. EFL learners may be afraid of academic penalty by the teacher. This strategy is not resorted to close friends because EFL learners might think it would not be necessary to offer a promise to close friends. As Holmes (1990) states that because "intimacy evidently permits shortcuts and substitutions" (p. 187), we do not often hear elaborate or promising expressions among those in close relationships. Instead, they resort to other apology strategies.

I am sorry, sir. I will not do that again. I promise.

5.2.2.4 Intensification Means

EFL learners use them extensively (48%) in interaction with strangers. They use them less to acquaintances (29%) and close friends (21%).

In interaction with strangers, EFL learners employ adverbials (35%) in comparison with emotional phrases (27%) and two sub-formulas of IFIDs (27%). They use swear words (4%) and the repetition of the same IFID (4%).

I am so sorry lady. Are you okay? (Situation 4)

I am sorry lady. Please forgive me (Situation 4)

Oooh, I am sorry.

In apologizing to acquaintances, EFL learners use adverbials (60%) extensively in situation 2 (Taking an advisor's book home).

I am really sorry sir I took your book home yesterday.

EFL learners resort to the strategy of two sub-formulas of IFIDs (22%) and the repetition of the same IFID (10%).

I am sorry sir. I took your book home. Please, forgive me (Situation 2)

I am sorry sir. It was an accident. I am sorry again.

Swear words are hardly found (7%). These expressions figure only in situation 8 (Copying an article from a website).

I am sorry sir. I was ill. I swear.

5.2.2.5 Alerter

EFL learners use the highest percentage of alerters to acquaintances (38%). They use them equally in interaction with strangers (30%) and close friends (30%). The emergent and relatively uncertain nature of relationship between acquaintances is reflected in the care people

take to signal solidarity and avoid confrontation (Wolfson,1988). EFL learners may have thought that their relationships with close friends or strangers are unambiguous and does not call for the use of an alerter as their relationship with their acquaintances. Thus, maintaining solidarity by the use of a proper alerter such as professional title is an important aim for them. In situation 8, where the student apologizes to the teacher, the use of the alerter implies the speaker's representation of politeness.

In apologizing to acquaintances, EFL learners resort to 'titles' (75%) and 'general nouns' (25%).

I am sorry, **sir**, it is my fault (Situation 8)

I am sorry, **students**; i have not finished grading your papers yet.

In apologizing to strangers, EFL learners resorted to titles (100%) only.

I am sorry, **professor**. I am in a hurry (Situation 9).

In apologizing to close friends, EFL learners resort to expressions of solidarity and endearment (100%) only.

I am sorry, **dear**. I will take you shopping next time (Situation 12).

5.2.3 Severity of Offense

Table 27 lists the occurrence number and percentage frequency of each apology strategy used by EFL learners in relation to severity of the offense.

Severity	Severe		Less Severe		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Opt Out	0	0	26	100	26	100
Evasive Strategy	8	80	2	20	10	100
Acknowledge Responsibility	174	62	106	37.8	280	100
Account	52	46.4	60	53.5	112	100
Direct Apology	266	48	288	51.9	554	100
Concern for Hearer	28	93	2	6.6	30	100
Promise of Forbearance	12	100	0	0	12	100
Offer Repair	86	56.5	66	43.4	152	100
Alerter	84	44.6	104	55	188	100
Intensifier	214	79.8	54	20	268	100

Table 27: Occurrence Number and Percentage Frequency of Apology Strategies in Relation to Severity of Offense

Figure 20 represents the percentage frequency of the apology strategies employed by EFL learners in relation to severity of offense.

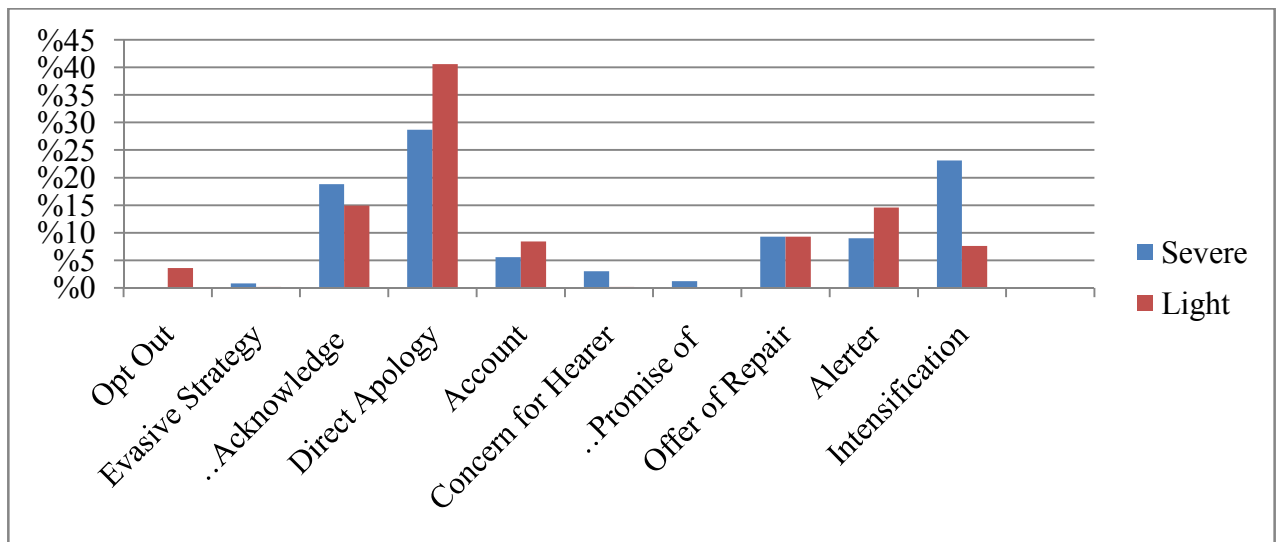


Figure 21: Percentage Frequency of Apology Strategies in Relation to Severity of Offense

Table 28 shows apology strategy preference order in relation to severity of offense.

High Severity	N	%	Low Severity	N	%
1Direct Apology	266	28.7	1Direct Apology	288	40.6
2Intensifier	214	23.1	2AcknowledgeResponsibility	106	14.9
3Acknowledge Responsibility	174	18.8	3Alerter	104	14.6
4Offer Repair	86	9.3	4Offer Repair	66	9.3
5Alerter	84	9	5Account	60	8.4
6Account	52	5.6	6Intensifier	54	7.6
7Concern for Hearer	28	3	7Opt Out	26	3.6
8Promise of Forbearance	12	1.2	8Evasive Strategy	2	0.2
9Evasive Strategy	8	0.8	9Concern for Hearer	2	0.2
10Opt out	0	0	10Promise of Forbearance	0	0
Total	924	100	Total	708	100

Table 28: Apology Strategy Preference Order in Relation to Severity of Offense

The table shows that the respondents' use of apology strategies in more severe situations (56%) outweighs those used in less severe situations (43%).

5.2.3.1 Opting out

First, the use of opting out strategy by EFL learners is very sensitive to the severity of offense. This strategy is found to be used only in low severity situations. This finding supports Bonikowska's claim that one of the reasons why a speaker chooses to opt out is that s/he does not perceive the situation as an offense and thus there is no need to say anything (1988).

In situation 11 (Changing an order at a restaurant), some learners minimize the offense whereas others put the blame on the hearer.

I did not order that.

You made a mistake.

In situation 6 (Hiccapping while talking to a friend), EFL learners opted out by keeping silent.

5.2.3.2 Strategies of Apology

Second, as far as the strategies of apologies are concerned, it is found that the evasive strategy is used significantly more in more severe situations (80%) and less in low severity situations (20%).

I am sorry. It can be fixed (Situation 3)

I am sorry but it is just 10 minutes not a big deal (Situation 7).

The strategy of acknowledgement of responsibility is used most in more severe situations (62%) than in less severe situations (37%).

In severe situations, the sub-strategy of an explicit acknowledgement of responsibility is used most frequently (51%), whereas the strategies of an explicit acceptance of the blame (17%) and an expression of self-deficiency (14%) are used less frequently. The strategy of an expression of embarrassment is hardly used (1%) by the participants in the severe situations to acknowledge responsibility.

I am sorry I broke your laptop (Situation 3).

I am sorry sir. It is my fault (Situation 8).

I am sorry I damaged your car (Situation 5).

This is really embarrassing (Situation 4).

In less severe situations, EFL learners resort to two sub-formulas to acknowledge responsibility. These include an explicit acknowledgement of responsibility (88%), and an explicit acceptance of the blame (11%).

I am sorry I took your book home yesterday (Situation 2).

I am sorry. It is my fault (Situation 11).

Accounts or explanations are given by EFL learners in less severity situations (53%) than in high severity situations (46%).

I am sorry. The traffic was terrible (Situation 7).

I am sorry sir. I was ill yesterday (Situation 8).

In situation 3 (Breaking a friend's laptop), however, the situation is severe but none of the learners gave accounts. It seems that learners are afraid their accounts are interpreted as an evasion from responsibility.

Interestingly, EFL learners use the direct expression of apology strategy more in less severe situations (51.9%) than in the severe situations (48%). Since "face is something that is emotionally invested, and that can be lost, maintained, or enhanced, and must constantly be attended to in interaction" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 61) in case of non-severe offenses, the speakers do not worry about losing face so they are prompt to offer apologies.

In less severe situations, EFL learners use the expression of regret (81%) extensively but resort to the request of forgiveness (16%) and the offer of apology (1%) less frequently.

I am sorry (Situation 7).

I am sorry (Situation 6).

EFL learners use a high proportion of the expression of regret (74%) in the severe situations. They employ requests of forgiveness (21%) and an offer of apology (4%).

I am sorry friend (Situation 5).

Please, forgive me (Situation 3).

5.2.3.3 Strategies of Remedial Support

As far as the strategies of offering remedial support are concerned, it is found that expressing concern is most used in high severity situations (93%) than in low severity situations (6%).

I am really sorry. Are you okay? (Situation 5)

Sorry. Have you been waiting long? (Situation 7)

The strategy of a promise of forbearance is only used in high severity situations.

I am so sorry sir. I will not do that again (Situation 8).

Offering repair or compensation is used by EFL learners more in high severity situations (56%) and less in low severity situations (43%).

I am so sorry. I will pay for the damage (Situation 3)

I am sorry son. I will take you out tomorrow (Situation 12).

5.2.3.4 Intensification Means

Findings show that EFL learners employ them more frequently in high severity situations (79%) than in low severity situations (20%).

In more severe situations, EFL learners use 'adverbials' (39%), 'emotional phrases' (25%), 'two sub-formulas of IFIDs' (22%) and 'swear words' (6%).

I am extremely sorry (Situation 4).

Oh my God, I have not seen you (Situation 4).

I am sorry. I did not mean that. Please, forgive me (Situation 4).

It seems clear that there exists a relationship between the severity of offense and apology intensity. Severe offenses are likely to trigger more intensified apologies.

In low severity situations, EFL learners resort to 'adverbials' (66%). This is the case in situation 2 (Taking an advisor's book home) and situation 9 (stepping on a professor's foot). Intensifiers are used by EFL learners where they are not needed.

I am really sorry sir. I did not mean to step on your foot (Situation 9).

In this context, the offense is not severe and the social distance is high. The use of the extra polite form may simply be due to learners' inadequate pragmatic knowledge in English.

EFL learners use the sub-strategy of 'two sub-formulas of IFIDs' (14%), 'emotional expressions' (11%) and the 'repetition of the same IFID' (7%).

I am sorry sir. Please, forgive me (Situation 2)

Oh my God, I am sorry professor (Situation 9).

5.2.3.5 Alerter

Alerters are used most in less severe situations (55%) compared to more severe situations (44%).

In low severity situations, EFL learners use 'titles' (53%) and 'expressions of endearment and solidarity' (46%).

I am sorry **professor** (Situation 9).

I am sorry **dear** (Situation 12).

In high severity situations, EFL learners resort mostly to 'titles' (56%). They, however, use 'general nouns' (21%) and 'expressions of solidarity' (11%) less.

I am sorry **teacher** (Situation 8).

EFL learners frequently use the address form 'sir'. This may be due to the fact that in Algeria, most university students address university lecturers as 'teachers'.

I am sorry **students** (Situation 2).

I am sorry **friend** (Situation 5).

Conclusion

EFL learners use of apology strategies has been investigated in different socio-linguistic context; specifically, social status, social distance and severity of offense. Results from the Discourse Completion Questionnaires reveal that when apologizing, EFL learners prefer giving direct expressions of apology and take responsibility more than other strategies. The two sub-formulas most frequently used included the expression of regret 'I am sorry' and the 'explicit acknowledgement of responsibility'.

Results further show that EFL learners employ other new apology strategies that are not found in the original model of Cohen and Olshtain (1983). These strategies include 'asking the offended not to get angry', 'determinism' and 'arrogance'.

As to apology strategy selection in relation to contextual factors, Learners give intensified apologies to high status interlocutors only when the offense was perceived as severe. This can be accounted for by the fact that learners may be afraid of an academic penalty. EFL learners, being of high status interlocutors give apologies to equal and low status interlocutors. As to the factor of social distance, EFL learners give simple apology expressions to acquaintances but complex, long and sophisticated ones to strangers. These polite apologies are also given to close friends when the situation is severe. With regard the severity of offense, the respondents apologize more frequently in high severity situations than in low severity situations.

Chapter 6: Qualitative Data Analysis

Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the interview data analysis. It reports in detail how EFL learners reflected on aspects of significance of apology, apology strategies and apology speech act teaching in foreign language classrooms. The results of the questionnaire data analysis provide information on the apology strategies employed by EFL learners and the effects of the socio-linguistic variables of status, distance and severity of the offense on the choice and frequency of these strategies. The findings of the interview analysis attempt to find out more information on people's perceptions of whether or not it is appropriate to apologize in a particular situation, their linguistic preferences for realizing this act and their evaluation of the social and contextual variables in the selection of these strategies.

To exemplify the EFL learners' apology strategies and their views towards the importance of apology and explicit apology teaching, excerpts from the interview session transcripts related to the focused aspects are quoted. The transcription notation is as follows:

' ... ' : Interviewees direct speech translated into English.

[] : Silence, pause, or rather non-verbal expressions.

rrr : used while participants think of what to say.

... : unnecessary information

6.1 Significance of Apology

The participants' views about the significance of apology are studied in relation to apology as a social act and the importance of this act.

6.1.1 Apology as a Social Speech Act

All the interviewees agree that apology speech act serves a function in communication. This act may consist of just one word, as in 'sorry' or a combination of words as in 'I am sorry I forgot your book home. I will bring it tomorrow'. The interview findings support Holmes' s (1990) notion of apologies as social acts conveying effective meaning. EFL learners have said that this speech act aims at maintaining a good relationship with people. They employ it to express regret for the offense and offer repair.

"...I apologize when I offend a person. I think people in England apologize for the same purpose. Apology is a speech act that contains one word rrr...or sentences...I give you an example. If I were late, I would say sorry or I am sorry. The traffic is terrible. So, apologies are given to express dismay or give explanations for wrongdoings..." (S1).

" Yes, [] I think apologies are social speech acts, rrr...they are used to communicate regret for offenses " (S4).

" Apologies are given in Arabic or English to show we really do not want to evade responsibilityWe offer repair for the damage we caused. If I broke a friend s car, I would pay for the damage. This is to keep our relationship" (S6).

6.1.2 Importance of Apology

All the interviewees have said that apology as a speech act is important in communication. It helps maintaining harmony between a speaker and a hearer and minimizing the seriousness of the offense.

“Yes, I think apology is important, rrr I will understand if someone gives an explanation of her wrongdoing. This shows she care about maintaining our relationship” (S3).

“Yes, apology is important. Paying for damage one caused lessens the severity of the violation” (S7).

“...it is necessary to apologize when you offend a person. This will help maintaining the relationship” (S8).

The participants' views support Brown and Levinson's (1987) claim that apologies are important in that they imply the speaker's guilt and thus are face-threatening.

Some other interviewees have said that apologizing proves that one has good manners.

“Yes, apology is important. [] when I do something wrong, it is necessary express regret. I should also take on responsibility. We were taught this. ...It all has a relation with good manners” (S2).

“Yes. Apologizing is important. It shows that a person has good manners” (S6).

EFL learners' view that offering an apology is a way to show good manners could be related to cultural specificities rooted in the Algerian society. They value people who take on responsibility for their deeds. These people are regarded as ones who deserve respect.

6. 2Apology Strategies

To find out more information about apology strategies employed by EFL learners, four topics have been specified while interviewing them. These include: Translating Arabic apologies into English, using different apology patterns to match a hearer's social status, using different apology patterns to match a hearer's social distance, and using different apology patterns as to whether the offense is severe or not.

6.2.1 Translating Apology from Arabic into English

Three of the eight EFL learners interviewed have said they do not translate apology from Arabic into English when they apologize in English. They have said they use simple explicit expressions of apology such as 'sorry'.

"No. I don't translate apology from Arabic into English when I apologize in English. I think...the words I use to apologize are simple and I frequently hear them in class" (S1).

"No. I don't translate apology from Arabic into English. Errr...I generally say sorry. It is an easy form. I always use it. I hear it in television" (S5).

"No, I do not translate apology from Arabic. Words like sorry and excuse me are very simple..." (S6).

These learners' tendency not to translate their apologies from Arabic into English may be accounted for by the fact that the forms they use to apologize are simple and uncomplicated such as 'sorry' and 'excuse me'. Learners may have heard these forms from their textbooks or media. As Trosborg (1987) calls it, they have over-learned the routine form. Therefore, they apologize using 'I am sorry' or 'sorry' as a routine form without translation from Arabic into English. They

might, also think that using 'I am sorry' is sufficient. However, it is very important to note that EFL textbooks should include more various expressions to be used in real life situations.

Five students have said that they translate apology from Arabic into English when they apologize in English.

"Yes. [] I sometimes translate from Arabic into English when I give an apology in English. I think of what to say first then I translate the words into English. I generally do that"
(S4)

"I translate from Arabic into English most of the time. [] I think of what to say in this situation in Arabic then I translate the whole message into English. This is important to sound sincere. Well, I know some simple expressions in English I use them directly whenever I apologize Errr...just like excuse me" (S5).

"Yes,sometimes I translate from Arabic into English when I offer an apology in English. I think it is important to translate from the mother tongue first. Other people will do the same thing when they are put in a similar situation" (S6).

Translation is the transferring of the source language into the target language where the messages of the target language have to be the same as those of the source language (Bell, 1991). Dannet et.al. (1986) says " language cannot be translated word-for-word, because forms of any two languages may differ" (p. 148), "it is almost impossible that any form of each language will communicate exactly the same messages" (Bell, 1991, p. 6). Thus, it seems to be a problem for EFL learners to use the English language forms to refer to the same things as the Algerian Arabic language forms do.

6. 2.2 Using Different Apology Patterns to Match a Hearer's Social Status

Students' views on using different apology patterns to match a hearer's social status are indicated as being considered in relation to higher, equal or lower status.

Being of equal or lower social status, EFL learners have said they would use 'titles' and 'honorific forms' to call their hearers 'Professor', 'sir' and 'teacher' in a formal way. They also use explicit expressions of apology with intensifiers and accounts. These show that learners do care about showing respect to people of higher status.

"...yes. People who are of a high social status generally receive formal apologies" (S3).

"When I apologize to my teacher, I use formal expressions. I use 'titles', give explanations and even promise not to repeat the mistake again" (S6).

What is interesting is the fact that EFL learners have said that apologies given to high status interlocutors are intensified when the offense is severe.

"Well, in the situation where a student copied an essay from the internet and the teacher found out, I would give an intense apology. I would use adverbs like so and very ...you know the offense is severe...the teacher may even punish me..." (S4).

The findings from the interview data supports the findings from the questionnaire data that EFL learners really tend to intensify their apologies offered to high status interlocutors only when the offense is serious

I am so sorry sir. It is my fault. I will not do that again.

When the situation is not severe, Students said they would not use as many intensifiers as they would use if the situation were severe.

“Well, I think I would only express regret to a professor if I step on his foot. You know I think that even if he is of a higher social status, the offense is not severe” (S5).

I am sorry. I am in a hurry

It seems that EFL learners intensify their apologies in situation 8 just because it is a severe one and they try to avoid the academic penalty inflicted by the professor and not because of their recognition of the high social status of the apologizee. Such argument is evidenced by the respondents' tendency not to intensify apologies in situation 9 although they are of lower status than the apologizee. They perceive the offense as less severe.

When asked about whether one of a high social status as a teacher (situation 2) should apologize to lower-status interlocutors, all of them agreed that a teacher should apologize.

“if s / he promised to bring them and did not do for whatever reason, s / he should apologize ” (S2).

“well, I would expect the teacher to apologize and even more explain why he did not correct the assignments on time. You know, students have deadlines the same as anyone else. It is just a matter of respect for the students” (S7).

When the participants apologize to equal and low status hearers, they prefer using simple forms of apology. The following examples are taken from the questionnaire data.

In situation 7 where a student arrives at a classmate' s house ten-minute late (equal status).

Sorry I am late.

In situation 11 where one want change an order at a restaurant (low status).

I am sorry students. Would you change the order for me?

In situation 1 where a teacher is late grading students' papers on time, utterances included;

Sorry, I have not finished yet. I return them by tomorrow.

In the above examples, EFL learners use simple forms of apology as 'sorry'. In addition, they prefer using 'general nouns' like 'students'.

6.2.3 Using Different Apology Patterns to Match a Hearer's Social Distance

EFL learners views about using different apology patterns to match hearer's social distance is indicated as being considered in relation to high, equal or low social distance.

Seven of the eight students have agreed that different relationship types have an effect on the apologies they produce.

"Yes.i apologize to strangers in a formal way. I do not know them well.[] when I apologize to friends, my apology becomes less formal . Rrr. Sometimes, I think I do not feel I have to apologize to my friends" (S1).

"When I apologize to a close friend, I use simple forms or even no forms at all. ...but I offer polite, and formal apologies to people I do not know..." (S4).

"I most often apologize to acquaintances. I do not feel worried about it.... My explanation of a wrong deed may nurture the relationship. When I apologize to a close friend, I do not feel the need to give an account...it is not necessary. He knows I did not mean to upset him..." (S5).

“Whenever I make a mistake, I apologize.rrr, there is a difference...yes. I use simple forms to apologize to a close friend or an acquaintance but, I use formal apology patterns with strangers. Well, I do not apologize often to strangers. I think I will not see them again” (S6).

EFL learners prefer giving more apologies to acquaintances. This finding confirms Wolfson ’ s (1989) bulge hypothesis. It states that less apology expressions are used in interaction between very low and very high distance participants, whereas the most apology strategies are used in medium distance relationships. It seems that EFL learners do not use strategies very often to strangers because of the reduced chance of ever seeing each other again. They do not use it to close friends because they thought it would not be necessary to do this. As Holmes (1990) states that because “intimacy evidently permits shortcuts and substitutions” (p. 187), we do not often hear elaborate or promising expressions among those in close relationships. Direct expressions of apology are less frequently used in interaction with close friends strangers .This finding confirms Wolfson’s (1988) bulge hypothesis, according to which less apology strategies are used in interaction between very low and very high distance participants, whereas the most apology strategies are used in medium distance relationships.

I am sorry. It is my fault. Are you okay? (Situation 4) (Apology offered to a stranger)

Oh friend, the traffic was very terrible these days (Situation 7) (Apology offered to an acquaintance)

The interview findings are in line with the questionnaire data that EFL apologies to strangers are more formal than those given to acquaintances.

The results from the questionnaire data and interview data support Brown and Levinson’s (1987) view that an increase in social distance requires the presence of respect through apologies and the decrease in social distance has a tendency not to entail the production of apologies. However, it is worth noting that though different social relations affect the way of choosing

patterns of apology, it is clear that other factors are often what determine the way someone apologizes. A very severe offense may need a formal apology even between close friends. This is the case in situation 5 (Damaging a friend 's car).

6.2.4 Using Different Patterns according to the Severity of Situations

EFL learners' views about using different apology patterns according to the severity of the situations are indicated as being considered in relation to severe or less severe situations.

All the participants have said that they vary their apology patterns depending on the severity of the situation. The more severe the situation is, the more possible an explicit expression of apology will be accompanied by other indirect strategies such as the acknowledgement of responsibility and a promise of forbearance.

“Yes. The forms I use in severe situations are different from those I use in less severe situations. I would acknowledge responsibility and even offer repair for the damage I caused...”
(S3)

“...I just use sorry for a light offense but use intensifiers with explicit expressions of apology in more severe situations ..yes I do that” (S6).

“I give accounts and offer repair in severe situations. Well, I think it is not necessary to use more strategies for less severe offenses ” (S7).

“Sure, my apologies in severe situations are complex, and long. I express regret, express my responsibility and offer repair. In less severe situations, I just give a short simple form ” (S8).

It is clear that the interview data is in line with the questionnaire data. EFL learners use simple strategies for less severe situations. On the contrary, they prefer giving more complex and

a range of apology patterns for severe offenses. This is illustrated in the following examples which are taken from the questionnaire data.

A Severe offense

In situation 5 where someone damages a best friend's car.

I am sorry. It is my fault. I will buy you a new camera.

A Less Severe Offense

In situation 6 where someone hiccups while talking to a best friend

Sorry, friend.

In situation 7 where someone arrives 10-minute late at a classmate's house.

Sorry. The traffic is terrible.

Findings from the interview and questionnaire data clearly indicate that the severity of the offense is a very important factor that guides the speaker's choice of apology strategy.

6.3 Apology Teaching

6.3.1 Explicit Apology Instruction

From the interview data, all the participants believe that using explicit apology teaching in a language classroom enables learners to select appropriate apology strategies in different contexts.

“ yes. rrr I think that explicit teaching of apology strategies helps me understand more about the culture of native speakers of English. These aspects of culture will affect my choice of specific language forms” (S1).

“...Yes. Apology forms and the acts that call for them differ from one culture to another. I think that explicit teaching of apology helps me understand more about apology in English” (S4).

“Cultures are different. The forms I use in Arabic to express an apology may greatly differ from those native speakers use in the same situation.....It would be great if I were taught what forms native speakers use in a particular situation to apologize” (S5).

The findings of the interview data confirm the importance of Pragmatic competence teaching. All the participants believe that their use of language and culture strategies will improve through explicit teaching of apology strategies. Kasper (2000) claims that most aspects of pragmatics are quite amenable to teaching in the foreign language classroom, but not all approaches to teaching pragmatics are equally effective. Thus, exploring and developing appropriate approaches to teaching pragmatics need to be studied in order to help learners acquire and develop their pragmatic knowledge.

6.3.2 Comparing the Similarities and Differences of Algerian Arabic and English Apology

From the interview data, all the informants agreed that comparing the similarities and differences of Algerian Arabic and English apology can raise their ability in communication in English.

“comparing apologies in Arabic and English helps me have more insights about the differences and similarities of apology patterns in both languages...so I can apologize appropriately ” (S2).

“ ...I think that successful communication can be achieved if I know how apology strategies differ from Arabic into English. I can use appropriate apology patterns under specific contexts” (S3).

“if I am taught how apologies are constructed and what circumstances govern them in both languages, I think I can use appropriate linguistic forms and even sound more native-like”(S5).

These findings confirm the claim for teaching pragmatics in a foreign language classroom. Marquez -Reiter (2000) suggests that “students’ attention will have to be drawn to the role of social distance, social power, and severity of offense in apologizing not only in the target language but in their own. They also have to be given as many opportunities as possible to practice their communicative competence in the language classroom”. (p. 182). This suggestion is parallel to Kasper (1997 a) who states that the challenge for foreign language teaching is whether students will have learning opportunities in a way that they can benefit in the development of pragmatic competence in the target language . Learners, thus, need to be given opportunities to examine and develop apologizing in the target language and compare and contrast them to their own L1 strategies.

Conclusion

This chapter presents the results of interview data analysis. The interview data reflects the participants’ views on significance of apology, apology strategies and apology teaching in

foreign language classrooms. The findings confirmed the results obtained from the questionnaire analysis.

All the interviewees have said that apology speech act serves a function in communication. It is viewed as a social act that is important in maintaining harmony and redressing offenses. Few participants interviewed have said they do not translate apology from Arabic into English when they apologize in English. They have said that they use simple explicit expressions of apology such as 'sorry' and 'excuse me' which they used frequently in the English class. For the three socio-linguistic variables; social status, social distance and severity of offense, the findings from the interview data support the findings from the questionnaire data. When apologizing, the participants are only sensitive to the hearer's social status when the offense is serious. They Acknowledge responsibility and promise not to repeat the wrong deed because of their fear of academic penalty. In such case, they tend to use 'explicit expressions of apology', 'titles', 'honorific forms'. They use simple, less formal expressions when apologizing to equal or low status interlocutors. In addition, they state that the degree of familiarity with the hearer affects the choice of the patterns they employ. They use formal and polite apologies to address strangers. They, however, use less complex and shorter apologies when addressing acquaintances. However, results show that even close friends are given more complex and formal apologies when the situation is severe.

Finally, participants use different apology patterns in relation to severity of offense. More severe situations trigger intensified, complex apologies of explicit expressions of apology and other indirect strategies such as acknowledgement of responsibility or account.

With regard apology teaching in foreign language classroom, EFL students agree that explicit teaching of apology strategies enable them to use appropriate strategies in different contexts. They also agree that comparing the similarities and differences of Algerian Arabic and English apologies could improve their communication skills in the target language

Chapter 7: Pedagogical Implications and Suggestions for Future Research

Introduction

As noted in chapter 1, the present study aims to investigate the strategies EFL learners use to perform the speech act of apology and point out the effect of the socio-linguistic variables of the social status and distance among the interlocutors and severity perceptions on the choice, frequency and intensity of apology strategies. This chapter provides a brief summary of the major findings of the investigation of the apology strategies employed by third year LMD students of English. It also presents the results of interview data analysis. The interview data reflects the students' views in details about the significance of apology and apology teaching in language learning as well as the strategies learners' use to apologize in different social and contextual settings. It is followed by some pedagogical implications of this study and a brief statement of suggestions for further studies.

7.1 Summary of the Findings

In this section, EFL learners' apology strategies, newly employed linguistic formulas and the effects of the variables of social status, distance and severity of offense are discussed.

The current study has been an attempt to outline the semantic formulas used in apologizing by Algerian third year LMD students of English at the university of Frères Mentouri-Constantine 1. Results reveal that EFL learners use similar apology patterns as native speakers of English. This is consistent with Cohen and Olshtain's (1981) finding that EFL learners have access to the same apology strategies as native speakers of English. They prefer giving direct expressions of apology and taking on responsibility more than the other apology strategies. This suggests that EFL students feel the need to be explicit; they may not want to risk the hearer not interpreting their response as an apology. The expression of regret 'I am sorry' is

the most frequent one then 'a request of forgiveness'. 'The offer of an apology' is used less frequently. EFL learners use the form 'I am sorry' intensively. Learners' access to other syntactic structures for the expression of direct apology is limited. EFL learners use the forms 'I am sorry about that' and 'I am sorry that+ S' less frequently while they have not resorted to the forms 'I am sorry to + VP' and 'I am sorry if + S' at all. EFL learners show incompetence in differentiating between the use of 'I am sorry' to express regret and 'excuse me' to remedy a situation. 'An offer of apology' seems to be perceived as a more intense linguistic form and should be restricted to formal situations. The two most prevailing sub-formulas of the strategy of an acknowledgement of responsibility are the explicit acknowledgement of responsibility and the explicit acceptance of blame. These two strategies are followed by an offer of repair. The strategy of providing explanation comes fourth. The speakers of this study might feel that they should not give an account after apologizing so that it would not seem to be an attempt at minimizing their offenses. The speakers do not resort to it only in specific contexts. The strategies of opting out, evading responsibility, promise of forbearance and concern for the hearer are hardly found in the data obtained. Expressing an explicit apology, making a responsibility statement, offering repair and giving accounts are the four essential components of apology.

Two other strategies are considered in the present study. They are alerters and intensification means. As to the use of alerters, EFL learners use 'titles', 'first names', 'general nouns', 'endearment and solidarity forms' to address their interlocutors. Speakers use 'titles' more frequently to show they are aware of the social status of the hearer. EFL learners utilize 'teacher', 'professor' and the form 'sir'. 'Solidarity and endearment forms', are used by EFL learners to say that they know the hearer well. 'Friend' and 'dear' are utilized functioning as a 'in-group identity markers', or positive politeness markers (Brown & Levinson, 1978). The function of which is to strengthen solidarity with the hearer or redress of face-threatening acts of some kind (McCormick & Richardson, 2006). General nouns are used least by EFL learners to

say they are aware of the neutral social distance of their interlocutors. The form 'student' is employed. As to the intensification means, EFL learners employ a variety of intensifiers such as 'adverbials', 'emotional phrases', 'two sub-formulas of IFIDs', 'the repetition of the same IFID' and 'swear words'. Results show that the most frequently used means for the intensification of apologies is 'adverbials'. These adverbials are extensively used in high severity situations. EFL learners prefer using 'so' and 'very'. 'Really' is used least. 'Extremely', 'deeply' and 'terribly' are hardly found in the data. 'Emotional phrases' are used to express lack of intent. These include interjections such as 'Oops', 'Oooh', 'oh my Goodness'...etc. 'Swear words' in which the name of Allah is mentioned are powerful tools that confirm the truth of the statement are clear manifestations of learners' transfer of socio- pragmatic aspects of the Algerian culture. Examples include I swear, By God almighty.

EFL learners adopt new strategies that are not considered in Cohen and Olshtain's (1983) model. These include a call to hold anger, determinism and arrogance.

Results show that the most frequently used strategy is the call to hold anger. This strategy is mostly used in situations where physical damage involved is likely to make the offended angry. This strategy is often followed by an offer of repair.

The second most frequently used strategy is determinism. EFL learners resort to it to provide excuses for the offenses they have committed. This is because, as Muslims, people believe that events will take place the way Allah intends them to go as he is the one who has full mastery. The offended party is not to be blamed each time as every offense s/he is part of is out of this individual's control. This belief that God controls things, however, does not free the offender from responsibility.

Arrogance is the least frequently used strategy. EFL learners employ it when they act directly without any consideration for the hearer's face. Results show that learners resorting to this strategy do not seem to consider themselves responsible for any wrongdoing. Instead of

opting out as native speakers of English tend to do (as illustrated in Cohen and Olshtain 's (1983) model), EFL learners behave in an arrogant way.

Apology strategies used by Algerian EFL learners of English are investigated with regard to three socio-linguistic factors: social status, social distance and severity of offense.

Results show that the strategy of opting out is used most to low and equal status interlocutors. It is not used to high status interlocutors. Explicit denials of responsibility and blaming the hearer are the most frequently used sub-categories. The evasive strategy is used by EFL learners most to equal status interlocutors and least to high and low status interlocutors. EFL learners try to downgrade the severity of the offense by minimizing its importance. As far as the strategy of acknowledgement of responsibility, EFL learners are found to acknowledge responsibility most to equals but less low and high status interlocutors. As to the strategy of accounts, they are given equally to low and high status interlocutors but least to equal status interlocutors. With regard the direct expression of apology, the findings indicate that minimal amount of difference among the three social status groups exists. Findings show that the strategy of expressing concern is resorted to by EFL learners to equal and high status interlocutors. As to the strategy of a promise of forbearance, it figures only when speakers apologize to high status interlocutors. As far as the strategy of offering repair or compensation is concerned, it is found to be used most to low status interlocutors.

Intensifiers are used most in apologizing to high status interlocutors but least to equals and low status interlocutors. It seems that the intensification of apology strategies is used in high severity situations. Where the addressee is of high social and the situation is not severe, less intensifiers seem to be at work. It seems clear that speakers of high social status prefer giving apologies to low status apologies. EFL learners used alerters most in interaction with high status interlocutors (titles such as 'professor', 'teacher' and 'sir'). In interaction with low status interlocutors, solidarity and endearment expressions are used. Solidarity and endearment words

are used when the speakers know the hearers well. The alerters used in equal status interactions are general nouns. The speakers use a general noun when they are aware that the social distance is neutral.

As a final point, EFL learners are likely to apologize to a hearer of higher social status using polite, intensified and formal forms when situation is perceived as severe. EFL speakers tend to apologize to equal and low status hearers. This suggests that EFL learners' apologies do not seem to be sensitive to social status.

Findings show that apologies are mostly given to acquaintances. The participants regard unambiguous relationships between strangers and close acquaintances as not as great an incentive for producing apologies as a relationship between acquaintances.

As far as the opting out strategy, findings show that it is used most frequently in interaction with strangers and least to close friends. The finding conforms to Bonikowska's (1988) observation that the highest number of opting out responses occurs in high distance situations.

The evasive strategy is used significantly most to strangers and least to acquaintances and close friends. The other three strategies of apologies are used most to acquaintances. As to the strategy of acknowledgement of responsibility, it is found that it is used most frequently to acquaintances this strategy is also employed by EFL learners in interaction with close friends and strangers.

As to the use of accounts, Explanations or accounts are given significantly most to acquaintances. This finding confirms Wolfson's (1988) bulge hypothesis. It states that less apology expressions are used in interaction between very low and very high distance participants, whereas the most apology strategies are used in medium distance relationships. In other words, exchanges between people who are neither strangers nor close friends need

expressions of solidarity to support them. Thus, these relationships require an explanation to nurture the relationship. It seems that EFL learners do not use this strategy to strangers because of the reduced chance of ever seeing each other again. They do not use it to close friends because they think it would not be necessary to do this. As Holmes (1990) states that because "intimacy evidently permits shortcuts and substitutions" (p.187), we do not often hear elaborate or promising expressions among those in close relationships. Instead, they might use another strategy to acknowledge their responsibility of the offense. Expressions of direct apology are exchanged among acquaintances. These direct expressions of apology are less frequently used in interaction with close friends strangers .This finding confirms Wolfson's (1988) bulge hypothesis, according to which less apology strategies are used in interaction between very low and very high distance participants, whereas the most apology strategies are used in medium distance relationships.

The strategy of expressing concern is used much more to close friends than to strangers and acquaintances. Offering repair is used to close friends and acquaintances but least to strangers .This result can be accounted for in that they would have the chance to see each other again. In other words, the closer the relationship is, the more likely the speaker is to produce an offer of repair in order to maintain the relationships. As to the strategy of providing promise of forbearance, It is only used to acquaintances. This finding may be related to the social status of the hearer. EFL learners may be afraid of academic penalty by the teacher. This strategy is not resorted to close friends because EFL learners might think it would not be necessary to offer a promise to close friends. As Holmes (1990) states that because "intimacy evidently permits shortcuts and substitutions" (p. 187), we do not often hear elaborate or promising expressions among those in close relationships. Instead, they resort to other apology strategies.

With regard to the use of alerters , EFL learners use the highest percentage of alerters to acquaintances .They use them equally in interaction with strangers and close friends .The

emergent and relatively uncertain nature of relationship between acquaintances is reflected in the care people take to signal solidarity and avoid confrontation (Wolfson,1988). EFL learners may have thought that their relationships with close friends or strangers are unambiguous and does not call for the use of an alerter as their relationship with their acquaintances. Thus, maintaining solidarity by the use of a proper alerter such as professional title is an important aim for them.

As far as the strategy of intensification is concerned, EFL learners use them extensively in interaction with strangers. They use them less to acquaintances and close friends.

Results show that the respondents' use of apology strategies in more severe situations outweighs those used in less severe situations.

First, the use of opting out strategy by EFL learners is very sensitive to the severity of offense. This strategy is found to be used only in low severity situations. This finding supports Bonikowska's claim that one of the reasons why a speaker chooses to opt out is that s/he does not perceive the situation as an offense and thus there is no need to say anything (1988).

Second, as far as the strategies of apologies are concerned, it is found that the evasive strategy is used significantly more in more severe situations and less in low severity situations. The strategy of acknowledgement of responsibility is used most in more severe situations than in less severe situations. Accounts or explanations are given by EFL learners in less severity situations than in high severity situations. Interestingly, EFL learners use the direct expression of apology strategy more in less severe situations than in the severe situations. Since "face is something that is emotionally invested, and that can be lost, maintained, or enhanced, and must constantly be attended to in interaction" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 61). In case of non-severe offenses, the speakers do not worry about losing face so they are prompt to offer apologies.

As far as the strategies of offering remedial support are concerned, it is found that expressing concern, giving a promise of forbearance, and offering repair or compensation are used most in high severity than in low severity situations.

As to the use of alerters, they are used most in less severe situations compared to more severe situations. In low severity situations, EFL learners use titles and expressions of endearment and solidarity. In high severity situations, EFL learners resort mostly to titles. They, however, use general nouns and expressions of solidarity less.

As to the use of intensifiers, findings show that the strategy of intensification correlates positively with severity of offense. EFL learners employ them more frequently in high severity situations than in low severity situations

The results of the questionnaire data analysis provide information on aspects of significance of apology, apology strategies employed by EFL learners and the effects of the socio-linguistic variables of status, distance and severity of the offense on the choice and frequency of these strategies, and apology speech act teaching in foreign language classrooms.

The participants' views about the significance of apology have been studied in relation to apology as a social act and the importance of this act.

All the interviewees agree that apology speech act serves a function in communication. The interview findings support Holmes's (1990) notion of apologies as social acts conveying effective meaning. EFL learners say that this speech act aims at maintaining a good relationship with people. They employ it to express regret for the offense and offer repair.

All the interviewees say that apology as a speech act is important in communication. It helps maintaining harmony between a speaker and a hearer and minimizing the seriousness of the offense.

The participants' views support Brown and Levinson's (1987) claim that apologies are important in that they imply the speaker's guilt and thus are face-threatening.

Some other interviewees say that apologizing proves that one has good manners.

EFL learners' view that offering an apology is a way to show good manners could be related to cultural specificities rooted in the Algerian society. They value people who take on responsibility for their deeds. These people are regarded as ones who deserve respect.

Four topics have been specified while interviewing them. These include: Translating Arabic apologies into English, using different apology patterns to match a hearer's social status, using different apology patterns to match a hearer's social distance, and using different apology patterns as to whether the offense is severe or not.

Three of the eight EFL learners interviewed say they do not translate apology from Arabic into English when they apologize in English. They say they use simple explicit expressions of apology such as 'sorry'.

These learners tendency not to translate their apologies from Arabic into English may be accounted for by the fact that the forms they use to apologize are simple and uncomplicated such as 'sorry' and 'excuse me'. Learners may have heard these forms from their textbooks or media. As Trosborg (1987) calls it, they have over-learned the routine form. Therefore, they apologize using 'I am sorry' or 'sorry' as a routine form without translation from Arabic into English. They might, also think that using 'I am sorry' is sufficient. However, it is very important to note that EFL textbooks should include more various expressions to be used in real life situations.

Five students say that they translate apology from Arabic into English when they apologize in English.

Translation is the transferring of the source language into the target language where the messages of the target language have to be the same as those of the source language (Bell, 1991). Dannet et al. (1986) says "language cannot be translated word-for-word, because forms of any two languages may differ" (p. 148). "it is almost impossible that any form of each language will communicate exactly the same messages" (Bell, 1991, p. 6). Thus, it seems to be a problem for EFL learners to use the English language forms to refer to the same things as the Algerian Arabic language forms do.

Students' views about using different apology patterns to match a hearer' s social status are indicated as being considered in relation to higher, equal or lower status.

Being of equal or lower social status, EFL learners say they would use 'titles' and 'honorific forms' to call their hearers 'Professor', 'sir ' and 'teacher' in a formal way. They also use explicit expressions of apology with intensifiers and accounts. These show that learners do care about showing respect to people of higher status.

What is interesting is the fact that EFL learners say that apologies given to high status interlocutors are intensified when the offense is severe.

The findings from the interview data supports the findings from the questionnaire data that EFL learners really tend to intensify their apologies offered to high status interlocutors only when the offense is serious.

When the situation is not severe, Students say they would not use as many intensifiers as they would use if the situation were severe.

It seems that EFL learners intensify their apologies in situation 8 just because it is a severe one and they try to avoid the academic penalty inflicted by the professor and not because of their recognition of the high social status of the apologizee. Such argument is evidenced by

the respondents' tendency not to intensify apologies in situation 9 although they are of lower status than the apologizee. They perceive the offense as less severe.

When asked about whether one of a high social status as a teacher (situation 2) should apologize to lower-status interlocutors, all of them agree that a teacher should apologize.

EFL learners' views about using different apology patterns to match hearer's social distance are indicated as being considered in relation to high, equal or low social distance.

EFL learners prefer giving more apologies to acquaintances. This finding confirms Wolfson's (1988) bulge hypothesis. It states that less apology expressions are used in interaction between very low and very high distance participants, whereas the most apology strategies are used in medium distance relationships. It seems that EFL learners do not use strategies very often to strangers because of the reduced chance of ever seeing each other again. They do not use it to close friends because they think it would not be necessary to do this. As Holmes (1990) states that because "intimacy evidently permits shortcuts and substitutions" (p. 187), we do not often hear elaborate or promising expressions among those in close relationships. direct expressions of apology are less frequently used in interaction with close friends strangers. This finding confirms Wolfson's (1988) bulge hypothesis, according to which less apology strategies are used in interaction between very low and very high distance participants, whereas the most apology strategies are used in medium distance relationships.

The interview findings are in line with the questionnaire data that EFL apologies to strangers are more formal than those given to acquaintances.

EFL learners' views about using different apology patterns according to the severity of the situations are indicated as being considered in relation to severe or less severe situations.

All the participants say that they vary their apology patterns depending on the severity of the situation. The more severe the situation is, the more possible an explicit expression of apology will be accompanied by other indirect strategies such as the acknowledgement of responsibility and a promise of forbearance.

EFL learners use simple strategies for less severe situations. On the contrary, they prefer giving more complex and a range of apology patterns for severe offenses.

Results show that all the participants believe that using explicit apology teaching in a language classroom enables learners to select appropriate apology strategies in different contexts.

Kasper (2000) claims that most aspects of pragmatics are quite amenable to teaching in the foreign language classroom, but not all approaches to teaching pragmatics are equally effective. Thus, exploring and developing appropriate approaches to teaching pragmatics need to be studied in order to help learners acquire and develop their pragmatic knowledge.

Findings indicate that all the informants agree that comparing the similarities and differences of Algerian Arabic and English apology can raise their ability in communication in English.

Marquez Reiter (2000) suggests that "students' attention will have to be drawn to the role of social distance, social power, and severity of offense in apologizing not only in the target language but in their own. They also have to be given as many opportunities as possible to practice their communicative competence in the language classroom" (p. 182). This suggestion is parallel to Kasper (1997 a) who states that the challenge for foreign language teaching is whether students will have learning opportunities in a way that they can benefit in the development of pragmatic competence in the target language . Learners, thus, need to be given opportunities to

examine and develop apologizing in the target language and compare and contrast them to their own L1 strategies.

7.2 Pedagogical Implications

Since apology speech act causes problems for English, as a foreign language, learners, pedagogical implications are discussed in terms of raising sociolinguistic and pragmatic awareness of EFL learners to better understand the socio-pragmatic aspects of apology speech act in English, and to assist teachers in enhancing pragmatic teaching in language classroom and developing teaching materials.

The first implication is to pay more attention to improve learners L2 Sociolinguistic knowledge of the target language. EFL learners can improve their sociolinguistic and pragmatic knowledge through observing the native speakers use of speech acts in everyday communication.

The second implication is that EFL teachers must also raise their students' awareness about the differences between speakers' native language and the target language regarding pragmatic knowledge. As seen in the interview data, the participants believe that their abilities in using language and culture strategies will improve through explicit apology teaching especially by contrasting apologies in Arabic and English. Hence, comparing the similarities and differences in apologies of L1 and L2 may be one pedagogical way to raise learners' linguistic and pragmatic awareness in EFL learning. As a way of improving language learners' pragmatic awareness, Eslami-Rasekh (2005) suggests two main teaching techniques frequently used to raise the pragmatic awareness of students. One is teacher presentation and discussion of research findings on different aspects of pragmatics. With this technique, teachers need to provide detailed information on the participants, their status, the situations and the speech events that are occurring in order to show the importance of contextual variables in the use of different language

forms. The information provided will help learners build awareness of the pragmatic features in both L1 and L2. Another method is a student discovery procedure in which students acquire information through observations, questionnaires, and/or interviews as recommended by Kasper (1997b). With this technique, students are invited to become researchers themselves and observe and record naturally occurring speech acts. The aim is to help learners focus on language use and cultural meanings. And make them become enthusiastic and reflective observers of language use in both L1 and L2. Learners can obtain information through out-of-class observation, in other words by collecting data from native speakers of English or using sections from DVDs or television as sources. The information gathered by students will be reported in class, compared with those of other students and may be commented on and explained by the teacher.

The third limitation is regarding EFL teaching materials. It is recommended that language teaching materials should be designed to reflect the native English speakers' way of speaking and thinking in real life situations. Furthermore, exercises in textbooks should be based on samples of authentic materials or especially written conversations which show the conversational routines and strategies used in the realization of an apology act. Van De Bogart (2006) claims that acting out a specific role-play is closer to the real world of conversational English than just repeating phrases from a textbook.

7.3 Suggestions for Further Research

Using a DCT in this study, EFL learners are allowed time to think of what they would say. According to Einstein and Bodman (1986), this makes the informants' responses more native-like because the lack of the time constraint may be accompanied by freedom from other cognition factors in actual communicative situations such as the interpretation of others messages and the need to preplan responses. Therefore, in order to determine how EFL learners function in natural face-to-face interaction, the replication of study in an oral mode, a role play for example, should be conducted and either the data gathered from DCT or from role plays

should be compared with the data gathered through the observation of natural language events to arrive at a more accurate analysis of the apologizing behavior of native EFL learners.

In addition, further work should include the analysis of the responses to apologies to gain a better understanding of the speech act of apology. It might also be interesting to examine the hearer's reaction whether s/he accepts the apology or not. This view was stressed by Olshtain (1989). He claimed that an understanding of the speech act of apology cannot be limited to production features only, without investigating the per-locutionary act of the speech act from the hearer's point of view.

Variables like gender and age could be suggested to be investigated in future research.

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Appendices

English Apology Instrument

The researcher is conducting a study entitled *Apology Strategies of Algerian EFL University Students*; you are kindly requested to respond to the situations of this questionnaire which vary in terms of the relative status, the degree of familiarity between the interlocutors and the seriousness of the offense.

Situation 1: You worked as a university lecturer. You made an appointment with students to get their assignments back, but you did not finish grading them. What would you have said to the students?

.....

Situation 2: You had a meeting with your advisor. After the meeting, you accidentally took his book home with you. You did not realize this until you were home. The next day, he asked you if you saw his book, but you forgot to bring it with you. What would you have said to your advisor?

.....

Situation 3: You bumped into a student and caused him to spill the laptop he had in his hand all over the floor. It broke. What would you have said to him?

.....

Situation 4: You were drinking coffee in a coffee shop. Suddenly, you knocked over your coffee and burned a lady beside you. Her white coat was stained. What would you have said to her?

.....

Situation 5: Your best friend got his driving license. He invited you to try out his car and give him some tips. While you were concentrated giving him these tips, you hit a street light. What would you have said to him?

.....

Situation 6: You were talking to one of your best friends. Suddenly, you started hiccupping very loud. You almost could not talk. What would you have said to him?

.....

Situation 7: Your classmate is a good student. When you talked about the coming examination, she invited you to her house to study together. You, however, were ten minutes late. What would you have said to her?

.....

Situation 8: You copied an essay from a website for your assignment and your teacher found that out. What would you have said to your teacher?

.....

Situation 9: Rushing to get to examination room on time, you stepped on a professor's foot. What would you have said to her?

.....

Situation 10: You worked as the head of a department in a university. You forgot to inform one of the teachers to join a meeting so he missed it. The teacher talked to you about it. What would you have said to him?

.....

Situation 11: At a restaurant, you carelessly ordered something you did not really want to eat. You asked for changing the order. What would you have said?

.....

Situation 12

You called from work to find out how things were at home. Your child reminded you that you forgot to take him shopping as you promised. What would you have said to him?

.....

Thank you for your cooperation

Interview Student Information Sheet

After writing your responses for the twelve situations described in the Discourse Completion Questionnaire; you are kindly invited to answer some questions relevant to your perceptions of the socio-cultural rules that affect your use of specific apology forms in the DCTs. The interview, conducted by the researcher, will be held at the university during a time mutually agreed upon between you and the researcher. The interviews will be, with your permission, tape-recorded. They will be structured with open-ended questions about three topics which include *apology importance* in everyday communication, *apology strategies* and *apology teaching*.

As to the topic of apology significance, questions include:

- Is apology a social act? What meanings it conveys?
- Do you think apology speech act important in communication? If yes, why?

With regard apology strategies, questions include:

- Do you translate apology from Arabic language into English when you apologize in English?
- Do you use different apology patterns to match a hearer 's social status?
- Do you use different patterns to match a hearer 's social distance?
- Do you use different patterns according to the severity of the offense?

As far as the topic of apology teaching is concerned, questions include:

- Do you think explicit apology strategy instruction can enhance the use of appropriate apology strategies?
- Do you think that comparing the similarities and differences of Algerian Arabic and English apology can enhance success in communication in English?

Thank you for taking the time to consider this study

Résumé

L'une des actions de paroles utilisée par les orateurs pour rétablir l'harmonie est l'excuse. Les apprenants d'Anglais, comme une langue étrangère, trouvent que cette action est très difficile d'effectuer car ils ne savent pas que l'expression dite ou l'action faite nécessite l'excuse ou non. Ils ne connaissent pas les formes linguistiques appropriées. Le but de cette présente étude est de faire une recherche sur les stratégies d'excuses adoptées par 60 étudiants Algériens de l'université Constantine 1', en ce qui concerne la classe sociale, le degré de connaissance de la personne et le degré de l'erreur commise. Les données à analyser ont été recueillies à travers un questionnaire distribué aux étudiants. Des interviews sont effectuées. Les résultats obtenus montrent que les locuteurs préfèrent présenter leurs excuses directement et prendre la responsabilité. Les deux stratégies sont les plus fréquentes par rapport aux autres. D'autres stratégies sont utilisées par les locuteurs tels que demander de l'interlocuteur de ne pas se mettre en colère, destin et l'emploi des mots pour jurer. Les résultats montrent que les apprenants redoublent les excuses données aux interlocuteurs de haute classe pour éviter la peine académique. Ils donnent des expressions simples d'excuses aux personnes ils connaissent bien, mais les polis et complexes à des étrangers. Ces excuses officielles sont données à des amis intimes lorsque l'infraction est considérée grave. Les apprenants ont renforcé les excuses dans des situations de grande gravité. Le degré de l'erreur est le facteur interdépendant qui influence la sélection et renforcement des stratégies d'excuses. Toutes les personnes interrogées conviennent que l'excuse soutient une bonne relation entre les gens. Ils croient que l'enseignement explicite des excuses aide les apprenants choisir les stratégies d'excuses appropriées dans des contextes différents et que la comparaison des similitudes et des différences d'excuses arabe et Anglais pourrait augmenter leur capacité à communiquer en Anglais.

Les Mots Clés: Les excuses, les étudiants de l'université, le questionnaire, les stratégies d'excuses

ملخص

يعتبر الاعتذار واحدا من الأفعال الكلامية المهمة التي يلجا إليها المتحدثون لحفظ الانسجام بينهم. يجد طلبة اللغة الانجليزية الجزائريون هذا الفعل الكلامي صعبا لأن الأمر يتطلب معرفة اذا ما كان الفعل أو العبارة تقتضي الاعتذار أم لا و كذا توظيف العبارات اللغوية المناسبة. تهدف الدراسة الحالية لتقصي استراتيجيات الاعتذار التي اعتمدها الطلبة الجزائريون المتعلمون للغة الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية في جامعة قسنطينة 1 أخذين بعين الاعتبار الطبقة الاجتماعية و درجة القرابة للأشخاص الذين يدينون لهم بالاعتذار و كذا حجم الإساءة التي تستدعي الاعتذار. هذا و قد تم جمع مادة الدراسة عن طريق اختبار إكمال المحادثة و مقابلات حوارية مع الطلبة لاستكشاف المعتقدات الاجتماعية التي تحدد المادة الناتجة. أوضحت النتائج أن الطلبة فضلوا تقديم أعتذار مباشرة و تحمل المسؤولية أكثر من الاستراتيجيات الأخرى . كما اعتمد الطلبة أيضا استراتيجيات اعتذار جديدة منها دعوة الشخص المتضرر لتمالك غضبه و الإشارة إلى أن الأمر قضاء و قدر و كذا إعلان أن الخطأ ليس من طرفهم. أشارت النتائج أيضا أن الطلبة اعتذروا بطريقة مؤكدة فقط للمستمعين من طبقة اجتماعية عليا لتجنب أي عقوبة أكاديمية. استعمل المتحدثون صيغ بسيطة للاعتذار لأشخاص يعرفونهم في حين اعتمدوا عبارات مركبة و لبقة مع الغرباء. تم اللجوء إلى هذه الأخيرة مع الأقارب في حالة الإساءة الحادة. تم استعمال عبارات التشديد في حالة الأخطاء الكبيرة. حدة الخطأ هي أهم عامل مؤثر على لاستعمال واسع النطاق و المشدد لاستراتيجيات الاعتذار. هذا و قد أكد جميع من تمت محاورتهم أن الاعتذار أمر هام للحفاظ على العلاقات كما أن التعليم المباشر لاستراتيجيات الاعتذار و كذا مقارنة هذه الاستراتيجيات في اللغة الأم و اللغة الانجليزية يمكن الطلبة من التواصل مع الاخرين بنجاح.

الكلمات المفتاحية: الاعتذار، اختبار إكمال المحادثة ، طلبة اللغة الانجليزية ، استراتيجيات الاعتذار