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Ministry of Higher Education
and Scientific Research
University of Babylon
College of Education /
Safiyiddeen Al-Hilli
Department of English**



**IRAQI EFL LEARNERS' USE OF THE SPEECH
ACTS EXPRESSED BY
THE ENGLISH DECLARATIVES**

A THESIS

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HISHAM ADNAN JASIM AL-KA'BI

SUPERVISED BY

ASST. PROF FAREED H. H. AL- HINDAWI,

(Ph.D.)

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Abstract

This study is concerned with revealing some aspects of Iraqi EFL learners' use of English declaratives to issue speech acts.

The study aims at (1) investigating the ability of Iraqi EFL learners to distinguish the intended speech acts from other acts realized by declaratives when these are characterized by different linguistic features in a number of situations, (2) investigating the most common strategies adopted by Iraqi EFL learners for performing the speech acts by means of the English declaratives in certain situations, and (3) investigating whether the contextual factors and the type of speech act have any influence on the learners' choice of the strategies used to issue the speech acts.

Associated with the objectives of the work, the following hypotheses are put:

1. Iraqi EFL learners recognize the speech acts expressed by marked constructions better than the ones expressed by unmarked constructions.
2. The learners' ability to identify the intended speech acts out of a set of options is better than theirs when they themselves have to think of the intended speech act depending only on the given utterances and contextual factors.
3. Influenced by the type of speech acts more than by the contextual factors, the learners show a greater tendency towards using a particular type of strategy than others for expressing the speech act.

4. The learners show greater preference for using declaratives characterized by performative expressions rather than the other types of declaratives.

To achieve the aims of the study and verify or refute the hypotheses, a sample of 100 Iraqi EFL college students at the fourth year stage, Department of English, College of Education, University of Al-Qadisiya is participated to respond to a two-part test the first of which consists of fifty situations designed for measuring the learners' ability to identify the different types of speech acts while the second one contains twenty five situations requiring the learners to issue the speech acts by using the declaratives in certain situations. Additionally, the learners' performance in Part 2 of the test is compared to the performance of a control group of native speakers of English.

The analysis of the data confirms the hypotheses of the study and yields the following:

1. The learners distinguish the speech acts expressed by the marked constructions better than those expressed by the unmarked ones.
2. The learners' ability to identify the intended speech acts out of a set of options is better than theirs when the options are not given to them, i.e., when their decisions should be based only on the utterance and the contextual factors governing using it.
3. The learners have developed insufficient awareness of the equal importance of using all types of strategies in performing the different types of speech acts in English.

4. The learners show greater preference for using performative expression strategy than the other types of strategies.
5. Mostly, the contextual factors have no significant influence on the learners' choice of strategies.

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Abbreviations

| Symbol | Description |
|--------|-------------------------------|
| EFL | English as a Foreign Language |
| FSA | Face - saving Act |
| FTA | Face - threatening Act |
| NES(s) | Native English Speaker(s) |
| SA(s) | Speech Act(s) |

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Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 The Problem

In real life situations, native speakers of a language utilize their communicative competence to interact with others (Cf Hymes, 1972; Canale, 1984). That is to say they depend upon their communicative skills which make them able to communicate successfully at the recognition and production levels. Thus, as a part of their communicative competence at the recognition level, for instance, they can recognize the different types of speech acts in different situations. At the production level, they can perform speech acts appropriately according to the situations. In order to accomplish their goals, they utilize certain strategies depending on the contextual factors governing the way the speech act intended is performed.

As far as learners of a foreign language are concerned, their performance in the target language is influenced by various pragmatic and linguistic factors such as the cultural differences and language interference (James, 1980:137). As regards Iraqi learners of English, the recognition and the production of the speech acts expressed by the English declaratives have not been dealt with in detail. We are still unaware of the learners' abilities in this regard. As a result, there is a need to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent can Iraqi learners of English recognize and issue the speech acts when they are realized by the declaratives?
2. What type of strategy do they adopt to realize the speech acts expressed by the declaratives?

Finding answers to these questions is a task which this study has set itself to fulfil.

1.2 Objectives

The study aims at:

1. Investigating the ability of Iraqi EFL learners to distinguish the intended speech acts from other acts realized by declaratives when these are characterized by different linguistic features in a number of situations.
2. Investigating the most common strategies adopted by Iraqi EFL learners of English as a foreign language for performing the speech acts by means of the declaratives in certain situations.
3. Investigating whether the contextual factors and the type of the speech act have any influence on the learners' choice of the strategies used to issue speech acts.

1.3 Hypotheses

The following hypotheses are put in this study:

1. Iraqi EFL learners recognize the speech acts expressed by marked constructions (i.e., performative expressions, modals, hedged performatives,...etc) better than the ones expressed by unmarked constructions.
2. The learners' ability to identify the intended speech acts out of a set of options is better than their ability when they themselves have to think of the intended speech act depending only on the given utterances and the contextual factors governing using them.

3. Influenced by the type of speech acts more than by the contextual factors, the learners show a greater tendency towards using a particular type of strategy than others for expressing it.
4. The learners show a greater preference for using declaratives characterized by performative expression than other types of declaratives.

1.4 Procedures

To achieve the aims of the study, the following procedures are adopted:

1. A survey of the literature about the theory of speech acts, declarative and contextual factors is carried out.
2. Out of the theoretical survey, a model is adopted for the analysis of the speech act strategies, and another model is adopted for building up the situations of the test.
3. A sample of Iraqi EFL learners are involved in the form of a two-part test to collect data about the following:
 - a) The learners' ability to recognize the intended speech act conveyed by the declaratives from other related ones when choices are given.
 - b) Their ability to recognize the type of speech act expressed by the utterance in each situation when options are not given.
 - c) The most common types of strategy adopted by the learners for performing the speech acts realized by the declaratives according to certain situations.
4. A comparison between the performance of the learners at the production level in Part 2 of the test and that of a control group of native English speakers is carried out.
5. Considering the findings of the analyses to introduce conclusions and some pedagogical recommendations..

1.5 Limits

The study will abide by the following limits:

1. The sample of the study will comprise 100 EFL learners undergraduate fourth-year students chosen randomly from the Department of English of the College of Education. The sample of the control group will comprise ten native speakers of English who are officials in Aegis (A Private Security Company). They all have bachelor degrees in different specializations and speak BBC accent.
2. The present study focuses only on the speech acts familiar to the learners, i.e., the learners know about them in their pre-university stage study as well as in their undergraduate courses.
3. The study will limit itself to certain factors that determine the issuance of speech acts. Those will be the syntactic and the social factors.

1.6 Significance

It is hoped that this study will be of value to those interested in studying the pragmatic performance of EFL learners. More importantly, the findings of the study are expected to be of some pedagogic significance for syllabus designers and teachers. The study is also hoped to reveal some aspects of language which are relevant to and useful for the studies of second language acquisition.

Chapter Two

Speech Act Theory

This chapter presents a review of literature about the theory of speech act (henceforth SA(s)), its definition, components and classifications. Also, it covers the views of the pioneer scholars, in this regard Austin and Searle, and their contribution to this theory.

2.1 Historical Background

For a generation, many linguists have focused their attention on the study of the form of language and have left the study of meaning to language philosophers. Thus, a number of accounts of meaning within natural language have been introduced. These accounts have different perspectives deriving from philosophy, linguistics, sociology, psychology, and so on. Several distinguishable theories of meaning are produced, among which is the referential theory (Lyons, 1981:30-31).

Linguistic philosophers concentrated on referential meaning and the truth and falsehood of statements. In this respect, Austin (1962:1) mentions: " It was for too long the assumption of philosophers that the business of a ' statement' can only be to 'describe' some state of affairs , or to state 'some fact' , which it must do either truly or falsely." Those philosophers did not pay any attention to language use. One aspect of language use is what is called SA.

Smith (1990:1) points out that there are hints that associate the notion of SAs to some Aristotelian ideas stating that "every sentence is significant, but not every sentence is a statement-making sentence, but only those in which there is truth or falsity. There is no truth or falsity in all sentences, a prayer, for example, is a sentence but is neither true nor false".

The major criticism of this theory is that it must be restricted to statements, since it is only these which have the property of being true or false. Furthermore, this theory cannot give a complete account of meaning for natural language (Lyons, 1981:173).

Moreover, this theory excludes other types of sentences, i.e., those that cannot be verifiable of being true or false, such as interrogatives, imperatives, and some indicative sentences (performatives) (Kempson, 1975:38).

As a reaction against the truth-conditional theory, the British philosopher J.L. Austin (1911-1960) launches his theory of SAs showing his dissatisfaction with the traditional focus on referential meaning and the verifiability of statements (truth and falsehood of statements). This has led him away from the study of sentence-meaning to the study of utterance-meaning, and he is the first to draw attention to the many functions performed by utterance as part of the interpersonal communication. Austin (1962) points out that many utterances do not communicate information but are equivalent to action (Leech, 1981:321).

Thus, SA theory is originally developed by Austin in the 1930s and expounded in a series of lectures given at Harvard University in 1955. These are developed in 1962 in a book entitled *How to do Things with Words*. Then, the approach has been greatly developed by the philosopher J. R. Searle (Finch, 2005:171)

In the light of what has been mentioned, to understand a SA, it is not enough to use the speaker's sentence since one has also to use the clues provided by the context in which it is spoken (Searle, 1969:16).

Among all the issues in the theory of language use, SAT has probably attracted the most general interest. Psychologists, for instance, have been of the opinion that the acquisition of SAs may be a prerequisite for the acquisition of language in general (Bruner, 1975: 1). On the other hand, literary critics have

made use of SAT for an illumination of textual subtleties (Ohmann, 1971:1). Philosophers have also perceived potential applications of the theory of SAs , for example, the status of ethical statements (Searle , 1969 : 175-98),while linguists have thought of the notions of SA theory as applicable to problems as far as syntax (Sadock ,1974: 9-10),semantics (Fillmore,1971:1) and second language learning (Jackobovits and Gordon,1974 :1) are concerned (Levinson , 1983 : 226).

It is worth mentioning that SA theory had its origins in Arabic rhetoric a long time before Austin (1962). Dhanoon (1992 : 37) mentions that Arabic rhetoric was first classified by As-Sakkaaki (a late 12th century Arab linguist) into three main branches : ' Ilm al-Ma'aanii ' (literally , the science of meanings) , ' Ilm al-Bayaan ' (the science of eloquence) and Ilm al-Badii' (The science of rhetoric) . The first of these fields studies the issuance of utterances in contexts. Utterances, according to this branch, are grouped into two major categories: constatives (al-khabar) and performatives (al-Inshaa'). Truth-falsehood values can be assigned to constative utterances whereas such values cannot be assigned to performative ones. It should be noted that according to Arabic rhetoric, a certain sentence type can be used congruently to achieve the SA usually associated with it. Alternatively, it might be used incongruently to achieve other types of SAs which are not usually associated with it. This is called ' الخروج على معنى الظاهر ' violating the literal meaning which correlates with the concept of indirect SAs in Searle's theories (Al-Hindawi, 1999: 8-9).

2.2 The Term of Speech Act

The terminology of SA is adopted by Austin (1962) who starts with drawing a distinction between constative and performative utterances. Constative utterances are statements: their function is to describe some events, processes or state of affairs while performative utterances have no truth value : they are used to do something rather than say that something is or is not the case. For example:

1. I name this ship Liberate.
2. I advise you to stop smoking.

These sentences would be uttered to perform particular kinds of acts because the speaker does not only say something but also performs it (Lyons, 1977: 726).

Austin (1962: 6) calls the above utterances "performatives" since they do not describe something but they perform an action. Utterances of this type stand in contrast with the descriptive statements – such as ' Snow is white ', which he calls constatives - that are either true or false. For him (ibid: 14), performatives are either happy or unhappy, while constatives are verified according to whether they are true or false, e.g.

3. I give and bequeath my watch to my brother.
4. I bet you sixpence it will rain tomorrow.
5. I advise you to see a doctor.

These kinds of utterances are called performatives since the speaker is not stating some facts, but he is performing the acts of bequest, wager and advice respectively (ibid: 6). Then, Austin (1962: 10) moves to consider all utterances

whether constatives or performatives as kinds of SAs on the basis that they all have saying and doing elements. In the same regard, Searle (1969: 18) defines SA as a "function of the meaning of the sentence" in the utterance of which it is performed.

Later, the term SA has become to be basically associated with one of its subcomponents (See 2.4), namely: illocutionary act. For Van Dijk (1977: 195), for example, the term SA refers more specifically to the illocutionary act when accomplishing some specific social act, e.g., making a promise, giving advice, etc. This means that the term SA has become to be used in its narrow sense, i.e., to mean illocutionary act.

Lyons (1977: 726) claims that SA is an unfortunate and potentially misleading term. Firstly, it does not refer to the act of speaking as such but to something more abstract. Secondly, SA in its Austinian (or post Austinian) sense is not restricted to communication by means of spoken language, because it is arguable that there are certain non-linguistic communicative acts that satisfy Austin's definition of SAs. For instance, by using a manual gesture to summon someone may be said to have performed a particular SA. Leech and Short (1981: 290) point out that SA is an important concept which relates utterance meaning to context.

Hudson (1996: 109) states that SA is a particular approach to the functional classification of speech and the different functions to be formulated in terms of a general theory of social activity. For Crystal (2003: 427), the term refers to a theory which analyzes the role of utterances in relation to the behaviour of speaker and hearer in interpersonal communication. It is not an act of speech (in the sense of parole), but a communicative activity.

2.3 Components of Speech Act

Austin's (1962) account of meaning is built on the assumption that the primary units of meaning in the use and comprehension of natural language are not isolated propositions but complete SAs of the type called "illocutionary acts". He proposes the three - way distinction between locutionary act (sentence meaning), illocutionary act (utterance meaning which has a certain conventional force), and perlocutionary act (what sort of function or intention is fulfilled by the sentence). The illocutionary act of an utterance is to be expressed in terms of what Austin calls 'happiness or 'felicity ' conditions, rather than in terms of truth and falsehood. Later, a refinement of the theory of SA was introduced by many philosophers such as Searle (1969) and Bach and Harnish (1979).

Austin (1962) focuses on the senses in which "to say something may be to do something" and concludes that in issuing an utterance , a speaker can perform three acts simultaneously:

- a. Locutionary act: the act of saying something in the full sense of "say".

For example:

6. He said to me ' Shoot her '

meaning by 'shoot' shoot and referring by ' her' to her.

- b. Illocutionary act: the act performed in saying something and generally identified by the explicit performative. For example:

7. He urged (or advised, ordered, etc.) me to shoot her.

- c. Perlocutionary act: the act performed by or as a result of saying. For example:

8. He persuaded me to shoot her.

In speaking, one has no option of performing one or other of these acts; one usually performs all the three acts simultaneously, but it is useful for analytic purposes to distinguish between them (Coulthard, 1985: 18).

To elaborate on the components of SA, Searle (1973: 146) observes that the locutionary acts are analyzed into three sub-acts: the phonetic act "the act of uttering certain sounds". It is a general category which includes linguistic and non-linguistic sounds; the phatic act " the act of uttering certain vocables or words in a certain construction "; and the rhetic act "the act of using those vocables with a more or less definite sense and reference which is equivalent to meaning".

However, Lyons (1981: 177) believes that the locutionary act is simply the act of saying something with a particular form and a more or less determinate meaning.

As for the illocutionary act, it is considered a linguistic one performed by uttering certain words in a given context and it is achieved through the uttering of certain words potentially under the complete control of the speaker (Coulthard, 1985: 19). It is an utterance formed with some kind of purpose or function in the mind of the speaker and " it is performed via the communicative force of an utterance " (Yule, 1996:48).

As far as the perlocutionary act is concerned, Lyons (1977: 30) believes that it is an act performed by means of saying something: getting someone to believe that something is so, persuading someone to do something, moving someone to anger, consoling someone in his distress, etc. For Coulthard (1985:19), a perlocutionary act is a non-linguistic act performed as a consequence of performing the locutionary and illocutionary acts .Additionally, it is the causing of a change in the mind or behaviour of the listener, so that he

becomes 'alarmed', 'deterred'. Thus the act is the effect of the utterance on the listener.

Akmajian et al (1995: 377) point out that according to Austin (1962) and Searle (1969) who have mainly developed the theory of SAs; there are four important categories of SAs illustrated in Figure (1) below:

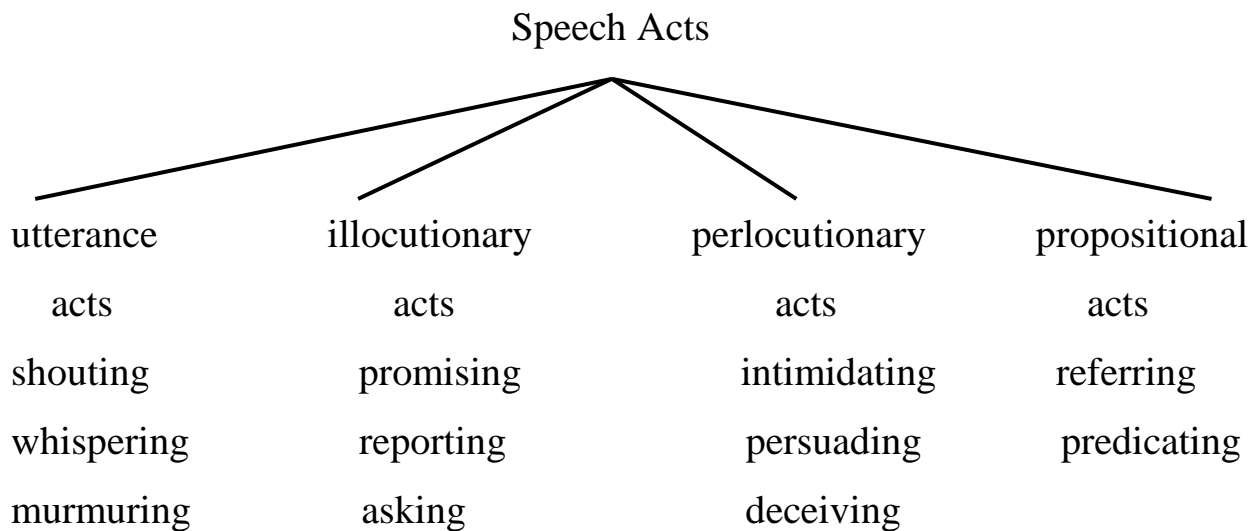


Figure (1): Speech Acts Categories

2.4 Felicity Conditions

When Austin (1962) sets out to distinguish between constative utterances and performatives, he (ibid, 14-15) proposes certain felicity conditions for the performative utterances to be successful. These conditions can be illustrated as follows:

- a. (i) There must be a conventional procedure having a conventional effect (e.g., wedding, declaring war, betting etc.)
- (ii) The circumstances and persons must be appropriate as specified in the procedure (e.g., wedding: priest + bride +

bridegroom + witnesses).

- b. The procedure must be executed correctly (e.g., the right words) and completely (e.g., bet).
- c. Often, the persons must have the requisite thoughts, feelings, and intentions, as specified in the procedure.
- d. If consequent conduct is specified, then the relevant parties must do so.

If any of these conditions is violated, the performative will be unhappy (infelicitous).

Austin's felicity conditions pertain to certain conventional acts, ritual or archetypal performatives such as naming a ship and declaring war which can be achieved by the uttering of certain words by appropriate people in appropriate circumstances. Thus, they cannot be used for evaluating other types of performatives such as:

9. I warn you that I'll be there.

or merely

10. I'll be there. (as a warning in ordinary language situations).

Thus, Searle (1969: 57-61) develops Austin's notion of felicity conditions by classifying them into two types: conditions on the performance of a SA and conditions on its satisfaction (there is a need to fulfil the first in order to issue a promise, for example, and the second in order to keep that promise). Conditions on performance are still further divided into the following:

- a) Propositional content rules: they must predicate a future act of the speaker himself. They focus on the content of the locutionary act.

- b) Preparatory rules: the speaker must believe that doing illocutionary act is in hearer's interest; the speaker must have the right authority to do the action and in certain cases, the occasion of speaker's utterance must be appropriate to the locutionary act in question.
- c) Sincerity rules: The speaker intends to do the action. These rules focus on stating the requisite beliefs, feelings and intentions of the speaker. Similarly, from the point of view of the hearer it must be clear that the speaker is sincere.
- d) Essential rules: by uttering an utterance, the speaker undertakes an obligation to perform the action. The person is committed to doing the action according to certain beliefs or intentions.

To elaborate the meaning of felicity conditions, Yule (1996: 50) mentions that there are certain expected or appropriate circumstances for the performance of a speech to be recognized as intended, as in the example below, the performance will be infelicitous (inappropriate) if the speaker is not a specific person in a special context (in this case, a judge in a courtroom).

11. I sentence you to six months in prison.

Similarly, Crystal (2003: 178) defines felicity conditions as a "term used in the theory of SAs to refer to the criteria which must be satisfied if the SA is to achieve its purpose". Later, other sets of felicity conditions have been proposed by different scholars (See for example: Crystal, 1998:121 and Crystal, 2003: 178-179).

2.5 Speech Acts and Speech Events

Yule (1996: 47-48) emphasizes the importance of SA event stating that actions performed via utterances are generally called SAs and that labels such as *apology*, *complaint*, *compliment*, *invitation*, *promise*, or *request* are commonly given for such acts. Such descriptive terms for different kinds of SAs apply to the speaker's communicative intention in producing an utterance. The speaker normally expects that his/her communicative intention will be recognized by the hearer. Both speaker and hearer are usually helped in this process by the circumstances surrounding the utterance. These circumstances, including other utterances, are called the **speech event**. In many ways, he (ibid) adds that it is the nature of the speech event that determines the interpretation of an utterance when performing a particular SA. For example:

*On a wintry day, the speaker reaches for a cup of tea, believing that it has been freshly made, takes a sip, and produces the utterance in (12). It is likely to be interpreted as a **complaint**.*

12. This tea is really cold.

Changing the circumstances to a really hot summer's day with the speaker being given a glass of iced tea by the hearer, taking a sip and producing the utterance in (12), it is likely to be interpreted as **praise**. If the same utterance can be interpreted as two different kinds of SA, obviously, no simple one utterance to one action correspondence will be possible. It also means that there is more to the interpretation of a SA than can be found in the utterance alone.

2.6 Direct and Indirect Speech Acts

One of the interesting contributions of Searle (1975: 60) is the distinction between direct and indirect SAs depending on the recognition of the intended perlocutionary effect of an utterance on a particular occasion. Indirect SAs are "cases in which one illocutionary act is performed indirectly by way of performing another". The interesting issue in indirect SAs is how one can mean more than what one says. The indirect SAs are utterances in which the speaker's intended meaning is different from the literal meaning. Moreover, in the case of direct SAs, the addresser intends to produce a certain illocutionary effect by getting the addressee to recognize his/her intention by virtue of the addressee's knowledge of the rules that govern the utterance, whereas in the case of indirect SAs, the addresser means more than the force conventionally associated with that utterance, e.g.:

13. Can you pass the salt?

Although this utterance is conventionally associated with the force of asking a question about the addressee's ability to do something, the addresser may indirectly use it to mean a request to pass the salt.

However, indirect SAs suggest a serious problem of communication when it is difficult for the hearer to recognize the speaker's intention if it is not conventionally expressed in the utterance. Within this context, Searle (1975: 61) states that the problem posed by indirect SAs is the problem of how it is possible for the speaker to say something and mean that, but also to mean something else. It is argued that meaning is related partly with the intention of producing the hearer's understanding. On the other hand, a large part of that

problem is related to the possibility of the hearer to understand the indirect SA when the sentence, he hears and understands, means something else.

As a solution for the problem, Searle (ibid) believes that in indirect SAs, the speaker can communicate to the hearer by means of relying on their mutually shared background information, both linguistic and extra-linguistic, together with the general powers of rationality and hearer's inference.

Yule (1996:54) points out that a different approach to distinguish types of SAs can be made on the basis of sentence structure. In English, a simple structural distinction between three general types of SAs is provided by the three basic sentence types. According to figure (2) below, there is an obvious relationship between the three structural forms (declarative, interrogative, imperative) and the three general communicative functions (statement, question, command / request).

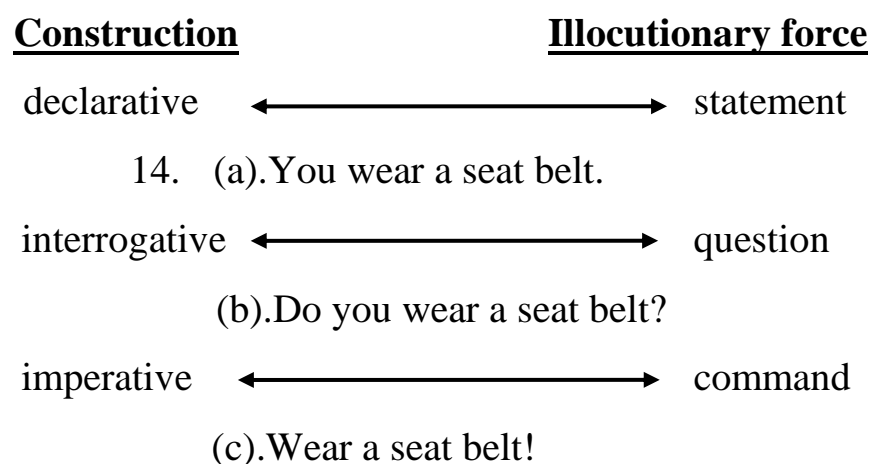


Figure (2): Sentence Types and Communicative Functions

Whenever there is a direct relationship between a structure and a function, there is a direct SA but whenever there is an indirect relationship between a structure

and a function, there is an indirect SA. Thus, a declarative used to make a statement is a direct SA, but a declarative used to make other SAs is an indirect SA. In other words, a statement achieved by a declarative is a direct SA because it is the usual function associated with the declarative while any other SA issued by the declarative is an indirect SA because it is not usually associated with the declarative.

In (15) below, for example, the utterance in (15 .a) is a declarative. When it is used to make a statement, as paraphrased in (15.b), it is functioning as a direct SA. When it is used to make a command / request, as paraphrased in (15.c), it is functioning as an indirect SA.

15.

- a. It's cold outside.
- b. I hereby tell you about the weather.
- c. I hereby request of you that you close the door.

(ibid:55)

The majority of acts in everyday conversation, Crystal (1998: 121) argues, are indirect and that the most direct way is to use the imperative construction (*Shut the door*), but this would be inappropriate in many everyday situations, too abrupt or rude, perhaps. Alternative constructions emphasize such factors as the hearer's ability or desire to perform the action, or the speaker's reasons for having the action done. These include the following:

16. -I'd be grateful if you'd *shut the door*.

- Could you *shut the door*?

-Would you mind *shutting the door*?

- I'd help to have *the door shut*.
- It is getting cold in here.
- Shall we keep out the draught?
- Now, Jane, What have you forgotten to do?

In fact, indirect SAs are attributed to the requirement of polite behaviour in linguistic communication. Searle (ibid: 64) argues that politeness is the chief motivation for indirectness. Similarly, Stubbs (1983 : 153) points out that in indirect SAs, the illocutionary force of an utterance is overlaid by markers of mitigation or politeness (For similar views , see Levinson , 1983 : 263 ; Leech , 1983 : 79).

As far as the aims of this study are concerned, it should be noticed that statements achieved by the declarative are considered as direct SAs, while other SAs achieved by the declarative, when it is unmarked (See 3.2.1.1.1), are considered indirect SAs.

2.7 Classification of Speech Acts

Various attempts have been made to classify SAs since the introduction of the SA theory. The first of which is Austin's (1962) classification of illocutionary forces. His classification has been criticized as being based on performative verbs only (Searle, 1977: 32-33). Then comes Searle's (1977) classification which revises and re-classifies SAs according to a certain theory (For views, see for example, Coulthard 1985: 25; Smith 1990:13 and Mey 1993: 169-70). Other attempts are in general a modification or refinement of either Austin's or Searle's models.

2.7.1 Austin's Classification

The first attempt to classify SAs is made by Austin (1962). It is considered the starting point that aims at finding a better understanding of the theory of SA.

Austin's classification of illocutionary forces comes in a late stage of his theory. In the early stages, however, he attempts to prepare a list of performative verbs. Out of the unfeasibility of such an attempt, Austin abandons this idea in favour of a more feasible one, i.e., preparing a list of illocutionary forces and assigning to each one a bundle of verbs that expresses it. In fact, he assumes his list to be exhaustive for all verbs. Anyway, Austin's classification of SAs goes as follows:

- a) **Verdicatives:** They are typified, as the name implies, by giving a verdict by a jury, arbitrator, or umpire. They consist in " the delivering of a finding , official or unofficial , upon evidence or reasons as to value or fact , so far as these are distinguishable ". Some of the examples are: *assess, value, estimate, convict, rule, etc.*
- b) **Exercitives :** They are typified by the " exercising of powers , rights , or influence ", i.e. , they are characterized by the " issuing a decision that something is to be so , as distinct from a judgment that it is so ". Examples of verbs in this class are: *warn, advise, claim, appoint, enact, name, etc.*
- c) **Commissives:** They are typified by committing the speaker to some course of action. Some possible examples are: *promise, swear, vow, bet, undertake, etc.* Commissives also include "declarations or announcements of intentions which are not promises, and also rather

vague things which we may call espousal ". Some examples are: *intend*, *declare*, *espouse*, etc.

- d) **Behabitives**: They constitute "a very miscellaneous group, and have to do with attitudes and social behaviour". They involve the attitudinal reaction of the speaker to someone's conduct or fortunes. Among the examples belonging to this group are: *wish*, *apologize*, *thank*, *deplore*, *resent*, etc.
- e) **Expositives**: They make plan how an utterance fits into the course of an argument or conversation. "They are used in acts of exposition involving the expounding of views, the conducting of arguments and the clarifying of usages and references" . Possible examples are: *affirm*, *report*, *concede*, *agree*, etc. (Austin: 150-163).

Austin (ibid:51-52) admits the tentative nature of his classification and also observes that these categories " are not clear or are cross-classified, or even that some fresh classification is needed ". In addition to this confession, Austin's classification has been a subject of criticism by several scholars. Searle (1975: 78), for instance, proposes a number of problems found in Austin's classification.

2.7.2 Searle's Classification

Searle seems to be dissatisfied with Austin's classification, criticizing it as being problematic, unclear and inconsistent. In this respect, Searle (1975: 78) proposes six difficulties with Austin's taxonomy. They are summarized as follows :

- a) A confusion between illocutionary verbs.
- b) Not all the verbs are illocutionary verbs.
- c) Too much overlap among the categories.
- d) Too much heterogeneity within the categories.
- e) Many of the verbs do not fit the category under which they are listed.
- f) There is no consistent principle of classification.

As a result, Searle (1977) adopts a different approach by introducing his own classification of illocutionary acts based on twelve criteria, according to which illocutionary acts can be differentiated, and contains five major categories. Out of these different criteria, there are three that are regarded as the most important upon which the taxonomy is based: a) Illocutionary point, b) Direction of fit and c) Psychological state.

In the light of what has been mentioned, Searle's (1977, 34-37) classification can be illustrated as follows:

- 1 - **Representatives:** The point or purpose of the members of this class is to commit the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition. In a representative utterance, the speaker fits her / his words to the world and s / he expresses a belief (paradigm cases: *asserting, concluding, complaining,* etc.)

- 2 - **Directives:** The illocutionary point of these utterances consists in that the speaker intends them to produce some effect through action by the addressee. Thus, the speaker aims at achieving a future action in which the world will match her/his words. (paradigm cases: *commanding, requesting, advising, etc.*)
- 3 - **Commissives:** These are SAs which commit the speaker (to a greater or less degree) to some future course of action. The issuer of commissives attempts to make the world fit her / his words (paradigm cases: *promising, offering, threatening, etc.*)
- 4 - **Expressives:** The function of this class is to express or make known the speaker's psychological attitude towards a state of affairs which the SA presupposes. In expressives , there is no direction of fit (i.e. , the speaker does not get the world or words to match each other) (paradigm cases : *thinking , apologizing , welcoming , etc.).*
- 5 - **Declarations:** This class consists of illocutions which in their production alter the world and includes many of Austin's initial examples of performatives. Typically, declarative acts require an extra linguistic institution which provides rules for their use except for the special case when these acts are concerned with language use itself (paradigm cases: *dismissing, christening, sentencing, etc.*).

Table (1)
The Five General Functions of SAs

| SA Type | Direct of fit | S = speaker , x = situation |
|-----------------|--------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Declarations | Words change the world | S causes X |
| Representatives | Make words fit the world | S believes X |
| Expressive | Make words fit the world | S feels X |
| Directives | Make the world fit words | S wants X |
| Commissives | Make the world fit words | S intends X |

(Yule, 1996:55)

Leech (1996: 157, 177) believes that " Searle's taxonomy is more successful and systematic than Austin's". He argues that Austin's taxonomy is of illocutionary verbs not illocutionary acts. Thus, Searle's taxonomy will be adopted here since it is tied to the general theory of SAs and it is still the best one available (Cf. Bach and Harnish ,1979:40 ; Olshtain and Cohen ,1983:20).

Chapter Three

Factors Determining the Illocutionary Force of Declaratives

There is a variety of contextual factors which interferes with determining the intended illocutionary force of English declaratives. These factors vary in kind; some of them are linguistic, whereas others are of an extra-linguistic nature. This chapter deals with these factors aiming at revealing the role of each in the process of determining the intended illocutionary force. The first three factors are of a linguistic and para-linguistic nature, i.e., declarative sentence (linguistic) , stress and intonation (para-linguistic). The other ones are the psychological, cultural and social factors which are extra-linguistic in nature. Before dealing with those factors, an idea will be given about the concept of context which represents the general matrix that embraces those factors.

3.1. The Concept of Context:

The term "context", as used in the studies of meaning, is not consistent and shows a high degree of variation. It is flexible and composed of various linguistic and extra-linguistic elements.

To give an idea about "context", Lyons (1977:572) mentions that:

context is a theoretical construct, in the postulation of which the linguist abstracts from the actual situation and establishes as contextual all the factors which, by virtue of their influence upon the participants in the language-event, systematically determine the form, the appropriateness or the meaning of utterances.

Trask (1993:59) defines context as the linguistic or extra-linguistic situation in which an utterance is made. According to Allan (1986:36), context is classified into three categories. The first is the physical context or setting of the utterance, i.e., the spatio-temporal location of the utterance. The second describes the world spoken of in an utterance, i.e., the real world familiar to all of us and the third is called textual environment, i.e., provided by the text in which an utterance appears, i.e., the set of utterances of which an utterance is a member and which together constitute a cohesive semantic unit.

Yule (1996:129) introduces two kinds of context. The first one is called **linguistic context** (Also known as co-text). The co-text of a word is the set of other words used in the same phrase or sentence. The surrounding co-text has a strong effect on the meaning of the words. The other type is described as **physical context**. It is the physical environment in which a word is used and related to the understanding of much of what is read and heard. Thus, it is particularly the time and place in which linguistic expressions are encountered. For instance, when someone sees the word BANK on the wall of a building in a city, it will influence the reader's interpretation.

For Leech (1996:13), context is understood in various ways, including aspects of physical or social setting of an utterance, and is considered to be any background knowledge shared by both the speaker's intention and the hearer's interpretation of what is meant by a given utterance.

Similarly, Finch (2005:208-209) argues that "context is a very widely used term in linguistics and, as a consequence, any account of its meaning will involve us in specifying exactly how it is being used". He presents two kinds of context: the linguistic context, i.e., the context provided by the linguistic system, and the situational context in which utterances take place.

3.1.1. The Importance of Context

The importance of context in determining the meaning of a linguistic form, whether spoken or written, is undeniable. In fact, it plays a vital role in determining the force of utterance. In this regard, Searle (1969: 30) states:

often in actual speech situation, the context will make it clear what the illocutionary force of the utterance is, without its being necessary to invoke the appropriate explicit illocutionary force indicate.

Corder (1973:89) points out that the function of a linguistic form cannot be considered in isolation from its context. The same string of words may be uttered on different occasions with quite different intentions and effect. Lyons (1981: 201) argues that the context determines utterance meaning at three distinguishable levels:

- a) The context tells what sentence has been uttered.
- b) It usually tells what proposition has been expressed.
- c) It may serve to tell that the proposition in question has been expressed with one kind of illocutionary force rather than another.

Similarly, Hymes (1964:37) stresses the role of context in interpretation, i.e., limiting the range of possible interpretations and supporting the intended interpretations.

Accordingly, one can conclude how vital and crucial the role of context is in determining the meaning of utterances and how extensive the notion of context is as to include both linguistic and extra-linguistic factors. In fact, each of these factors participates, in certain proportion, in the process of meaning-

clarification. Schiffrin (1987:3) asserts that understanding how language is used and structured depends on the consideration of how it is embedded in all kinds of contexts, such as, cultural, social and cognitive contexts.

3.1.2. The Context of Utterance

Lyons (1977:643) states that the "context of utterance may contain non-linguistic information which contradicts the information that is linguistically encoded in the utterance-signal". For example, the meaning of a sentence like:

1. John is a brave man.

is not affected by its being uttered ironically (the irony being indicated para linguistically).

In their attempt to define the context of utterance, Hurford and Heasley (1983: 68-69) point out that "it is a small subpart of the universe of discourse shared by speaker and hearer, and includes facts about the topic of the conversation in which the utterance occurs, and also facts about the situation in which the conversation itself takes place". They (ibid) also argue that the context of any utterance can never be specified with complete certainty.

3.1.3. The Context of Situation

Malinowski is the first who introduced the term "context of situation" in linguistic studies. He was led to adopt this idea as a result of his failure to adequately translate into English some linguistic forms used by Trobrinand Islanders (Palmer, 1981:51).

According to Firth (1957a: 182; 1957b: 93-118), the components of the context of situation which determine language use can be stated as follows:

- a) The relevant features of the participants: person and personalities including their verbal and nonverbal actions,
- b) The relevant subjects, and
- c) The effects of the verbal actions.

Bell (1976:76) stresses that Firth's context of situation provides a first step towards the specification of what composes a communicative situation and understanding how native speakers can produce language that is appropriate to a given situation. Firth's ideas about the elements of the situation which affect language use have been developed by a number of linguists and ethnographers.

Halliday and Hasan (1985:45-46) state that the context of situation constitutes the immediate environment of the utterance. In their attempt to provide a finer description of the components of the context situation, they offer a conceptual framework of the following three headings:

- a) **Field** is the kind of activity as recognized in the culture, within which the language is playing some part.
- b) **Tenor** is the player (participants) or rather the interacting roles that are involved in the creation of the text.

- c) **Mode** is concerned with the parts-the particular functions that are assigned to language in this situation, and the rhetorical channel that is allotted to it.

Hymes (1964:45) specifies various situational components of the context including the following:

- a) **Participants:** Persons participate in the speech event. The addresser is the speaker or writer who produces the utterance. The addressee is the hearer or reader who is recipient to the utterance. Also , the presence of over hearers ,audience, may contribute to the specification of the speech event,
- b) **Topic:** If someone knows what is being talked about, the expectations will be further constraints.
- c) **Setting:** It refers to where the event is situated in place and time, and to the physical relations of the interactions with respect to posture and gesture and facial expression.
- d) **Channel:** It is the medium used for transmitting messages. It refers to the way contact between participants in the event being maintained, i.e., speech, writing, singing, and smoke signals.
- e) **Code:** Language, dialect, style of language is being used.
- f) **Message Form:** The kind of form is intended, i.e., chat, debate, sermon, fairy tale, sonnet, love-letter, etc.
- g) **Event:** This refers to the nature of the communicative event within which a genre may be embedded.
- h) **Key:** This involves evaluation, i.e., whether it is a good sermon, a pathetic explanation, etc.

- i) **Purpose:** The communicative intentions the participants want to convey via the words, i.e., to complain, request, apologize, etc.

Concerning the context of situation, Corder (1973:89) seems to exhibit a similar point to that of Hymes and includes a number of factors: a) the addresser b) the addressee c) contact between them d) the linguistic code used e) the topic and f) the form of the message.

In the same regard, Leech (1996:13-14) suggests five aspects of speech situation: a) addressers or addressees b) the context of an utterance c) the goal (function) of an utterance d) the utterance as a form of act or activity (a SA) and e) the utterance as a product of a verbal act.

3.2 The Linguistic and Para-Linguistic Factors

In this study, the linguistic factor is limited to the syntactic structure of the declarative rather than other sentence types. This is so because it is the basic concern of this work. Besides, the tacklement of the declarative, here, involves its meaning, while stress and intonation which may characterize the sentence type are para-linguistic factors.

3.2.1 The Linguistic (Syntactic) Factor

3.2.1.1 The Declarative Sentence

Various definitions have been proposed in the literature of syntax for the term "declarative". In fact, it has been tackled from two different points of view, i.e., formal and functional.

Quirk et al (1985:802) define declarative sentences as sentences in which the subject is present and generally precedes the verb:

2. *Pauline gave* Tom a digital camera for his birthday.

For Trask (1993:72), a declarative is the mood category associated with the uttering of a statement which the speaker believes to be true.

Similarly, Huddleston (1988:129) believes that the "declarative is the unmarked term, i.e., all kernel clauses are declarative". He (ibid) mentions three main overriding factors that may interfere with the simple relationship between declaratives and statements:

a) Rising intonation (\uparrow) can change a statement into a question:

3. You've finished \downarrow . (**Statement**)

4. You've finished \uparrow . (**Question**)

b) Performative verb (i.e., request, command, promise...) can denote an illocutionary act:

5. I *promise* to finish my work tonight. (It counts as a promise rather than a statement).

c) Markers of directive force such as:

i) Modal operator used denotically, with second person subject:

6. You *must* come in immediately. (It would normally be constructed as a directive to come in.)

ii) Please-as in:

7. I'll have that hammer *please*.

iii) Expression of what the speaker wants or would like:

8. I *want* you to meet me at six.

According to Allan (1986:206), speakers can use declaratives to perform any category of SA. This will be obvious in the following subsection.

3.2.1.1.1 Declarative and Performative Hypothesis

Austin (1962:6) uses the term "performative" to indicate that "the issuing of the utterance is the performing of an action-it is not normally thought of as just saying something". Performatives are utterances which themselves describe the SA which they perform by using performative verbs. To understand what is meant by a performative verb, consider the following examples:

9. I *advise* you to see a doctor.
10. I *apologize* for being late.
11. I *warn* you that there is a bull in the garden.

Syntactically, the above three sentences are similar: all are in the first person, indicative, declarative, active, positive and in the simple present tense. It is possible to insert the adverb "herby" between the subject and the verb. The basic format of the underlying performative sentence is shown in (12):

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

Key: Vp = performative verb U = utterance

(Yule, 1996:51)

Pragmatically, the above sentences (9, 10 and 11) differ from most statements in that they cannot easily be declared false, and the uttering of these sentences is the doing of an action (Cooper, 1973:190).

According to some transformational grammarians such as Ross (1970: 261) and Sadock (1974: 116), every sentence is performative and "every deep structure contains only one performative sentence as its highest clause".

Partridge (1982:56) ,in his turn ,states that all declarative and surface imperative sentences are subordinated to a higher sentence whose subject is in the first person singular, whose verb contains the future [+ performative] and whose (direct and indirect) object is in the second person singular. This higher-order sentence may be optionally deleted by performative deletion. Thus, the surface structure of sentence (13) is derived from the deep structure of sentence (14):

13. I'll be at your office at 8.00 o'clock.

14. I promise (you) I'll be at your office at 8.00 o'clock.

Example (13) may have a problem in its interpretation because the content itself rather than the linguistic features will determine the intended SA.

Austin (1962:62) has dealt with such a problem by claiming that it is possible to reduce or expand or analyze any utterance into a performative form according to its context. Thus one can state that the two forms "guilty" and "I pronounce you to be guilty" are equivalent. The only difference between these forms is that the latter is explicitly performative whereas the former is implicitly so.

Because of the importance of performatives in any utterance, Al-Husseini (2003: 24-26) presents a classification of different SAs according to the different types of performative verbs. This classification depends on the main points of Austin's analysis as well as other linguists:

a) Internal SA:

15. I *intend* to do my prayer in order to perform my duty towards Allah.

b) Monologic SA refers to the utterance which may be characterized as interpersonal statements involving one speaker who intends meaning and an audience of one or more listeners who attempt understanding. This type of SA can be divided into different types according to the performative aspect (Hughes, 1984: 379-80; Allan, 1986: 168):

i. Explicit performative: (Austin ,1962: 32)

16. I *promise* to help you.

ii. Implicit performative: (Ibid)

17. I'll help you.

iii. Hedged performative: (Fraser ,1975: 187); (Perkins ,1983: 16)

18. I *can swear* that I locked the door.

iv. Metalinguistic performative: (Thomas ,1997: 33)

19. I *apologize* for deceiving the auditors.

v. Ritual performative : (Clark and Clark ,1977 : 26) ; (Thomas, 1997 : 36)

20. I *pronounce* you husband and wife.

vi. Negative performative : (Searle,1969 : 32); (Allan,1986 : 170)

21. I do *not promise* to come.

vii. Embedded performative : (Krifka ,2001 : 2)

22. I regret that I have to *inform* you that you're hereby *dismissed*.

viii. Conditional performative: (Ibid)

23. *If it rains*, I bet you a dollar that the match will be postponed.

ix. Emphatic performative: (Allan ,1986: 173)

24. I *do promise* to come more often.

x. Passive performative with the second or third person: (Austin, 1962: 57); (Fraser ,1987: 179)

25. You *are* hereby *authorized* to pay

xi. Active performative with the third person: (Austin ,1962: 57)

26. The court *finds* the accused not guilty.

xii. Progressive performative: (Partridge ,1982: 19)

27. I'm hereby *promising* you not to scatter chips on the carpet.

xiii. Nominal performative: (Matregek ,1983: 61)

28. I'll make you *a promise* I'll never see him again.

xiv. Cross-cultural performatives: (Reynolds ,1995: 5)

29. I hereby divorce you. (Muslim culture)

30. I baptize you..... (Christian culture)

c) Group SA: (Hughes ,1980: 391); (Thomas ,1997: 41)

31. *We promise* to continue to refine and improve our defenses.

d) Conjunction SA: (Van Dijk ,1977: 213); (Vanderveken ,1990: 24)

32. I hereby *resign* from the board *and promise* not to speak to the press.

e) Direct SA: (Clark and Clark ,1977: 28); (Yule ,1996: 133)

33. I *promise* you a bicycle for your birthday. (Explicit performative)

3.2.1.1.2 A Model of the Analysis of Speech Act Strategies

As far as the aims of this study are concerned, the features of the declarative sentence which have been discussed in (3.2.1.1) and (3.2.1.1.1) can be categorized with some modification as follows:

1) **A marked declarative construction.** This includes:

A) **An explicit performative expression:** It will be treated to include: a performative verb, adjective, or adverb. Examples are the following:

34. I *promise* that I'll go tomorrow. (**Promise**)

35. I'm *thankful* to you. (**Thanking**)

36. I'm *sure* you'll get promoted. (**Certainty**)

37. He's *probably* studying in his room. (**Probability**)

B) **A nominalized performative** :It is characterized by the presence of a performative noun (Fraser, 1987:179).The following examples are illustrative:

38. I ask your *permission* to use your cell-phone.

39. My *advice* to you is to take the express train.

C) **A hedged performative:** It is characterized by the presence of a performative verb preceded by a modal or semi-modal (Fraser 1975:194-195). Consider the following examples:

40. I *must ask* you to show him some mercy. (**Request**)

41. I *can promise* you that we will be there on time.(**Promise**)

42. I *would like to invite* you to have cup of tea. (**Invitation**)

D) **A modal verb:** Greenbaum and Quirk (1990:60-61) point out that speakers may use a declarative sentence with modals or semi-modals such as *can, could, may, might, must, have to*, etc. in order to express a great variety of meanings and attitudes. They also can be used to express many kinds of SAs, i.e., *possibility, ability, permission, obligation, prediction*, etc. as in:

- 43. They say Bill *can* cook better than his wife. (**Ability**)
- 44. You *may* be right. (**Possibility**)
- 45. It *might* help to close the door. (**Request**)
- 46. I *will* bring a sandwich for you. (**Offer**)
- 47. You *have to* be back by ten o'clock. (**Obligation**)

E) **If -conditional clauses:** They can be used to perform various types of SAs as shown in the following examples:

- 48. I need your help *if* you don't mind. (as a more polite request) ,(Brown and Levinson, 1979:277)
- 49. I'll punish you *if* you don't talk. (as a threatening from interrogator to a criminal in a Police Department) ,(Halliday, 1973:75).
- 50. *If* you don't eat, you'll be punished. (as a warning from a mother to her son who stopped eating for one day), (Searle, 1969:67)
- 51. I'd see a doctor *if* I were you. (as an advice), (James, 1980:119).

F) **Expressions of “wants” or “likes”**: Haverkate (1984:24) argues that speakers employ these expressions to issue SAs of commands or requests. The speaker’s intention may take the form of a need or a want. Examples are the following:

52. I *need* your camera.

53. I *want* you to finish this report right now.

2) **An unmarked declarative construction**: It is characterized by the absence of the features mentioned in (1) above. Unmarked constructions will be interpreted according to the situation in which they occur. Thus, they are sometimes called 'hints' by some scholars (See for example, James ,1980:125) .The following examples are illustrative:

54. It's hot in here. (as a request to open the window)

55. You have a clever boy. (as praise)

56. There is a bull in the garden. (as a warning from mother to her little two daughters not to go outside)

57. Somebody's forgotten to clean the windows. (as a command to clean the windows)

This model will be adopted for the analysis of the data of the work in Chapter Four. The expression "please" as a marker characterizing the declarative is not included in the characterization above because it is considered as a sign of politeness rather than an illocutionary force indicating device.

Al-Husseini (2003: 24-26) mentions other types of SAs which can be performed by other linguistic means as shown below:

- a) Indirect SA: (Searle , 1975 a : 59 ; 1995 : 109); (Quirk et al , 1985 : 805)
55. *Why don't you take an aspirin?* (advice by question)
- b) Adverbially modified SA: (Sadock ,1974: 38)
56. *Quite frankly*, he is unable to do this job.
- c) Disjunction SA: (Van Dijk ,1977: 211); (Levinson ,1983: 196)
57. *Get out of here or I call* the police.
- d) Topical SA: (Palmer ,1981: 158); (Krifka ,2001: 8)
58. *The hamburger*, please hand it to me.
- e) SA with face-saving act: (Yule ,1996a: 134)
59. *Could you pass me that paper, please?*
- f) SA with face-threatening act: (Ibid)
60. *Give me that paper!* (Equal social status)

3.2.1.1.3 Declaratives and Speech Acts

The structure of a sentence plays a significant role in conveying the intended illocutionary force of the utterance. Searle (1975: 90-91), for instance, argues that "the study of the syntax of sentences is the study of the structure of devices whose essential purpose is the performance of illocutionary acts".

Viewed in this light, Huddleston (1988:130) examines the relation between the clause type and illocutionary force as follows:

- a) Contrasts of clause type can be applied to subordinate clauses as well as to main clauses, while utterances of the main clauses only have illocutionary force.

- b) The clauses type, e.g., declarative is not the only factor in determining illocutionary force but it can be considered as the initial determining factor.
- c) One utterance may belong to more than one illocutionary category at the same time. In the appropriate context, a company director says :

61. It gives me great pleasure to declare this Exhibition open.

does not serve only to make a statement (about the director's feelings) but also to open the Exhibition, i.e., the category of declarations.

Nilesen (2000:4) mentions that the mood of the utterance, i.e., declarative, is one of the several tools whereby one can deduce the illocutionary force of an utterance (See Yule ,1996:50). Ryne (2000:9) asserts that sentence type, including declarative, constitutes the first step towards knowing the illocutionary force of the utterance. He (ibid) states that "when I encounter an utterance, I first encounter the words and the word order of these words..."

Similarly, Brine (2001:12) clarifies that when words uttered or the order in which these words are put can be used to convey the pragmatic meaning of an utterance.

As far as the written texts are concerned, Ronson (1999:8) argues that in written texts, the structure of the sentence is the only remaining indication of the illocutionary force where the phonological rules are absent.

3.2.2 The Para-Linguistic Factors

3.2.2.1 The Stress Factor and Speech Acts

Jones (1972:41) defines stress as "the degree of force that is given to specific syllables when they are pronounced by the addresser."

Stress is a suprasegmental feature of an utterance. It applies not to individual vowels and consonants but to whole syllables whatever they might be (See Abercrombie, 1967:35; Gimson, 1980:222; Trask, 1996:336).

Scholars deal with stress in terms of its linguistic function under two headings: **word stress** and **sentence stress**. The former tackles the placement of stress within single words pronounced mainly in isolation, while the latter deals with the assignment of stress as a property of a whole sentence and the functional role it has in the sentence.

Trask (1996:390) defines word stress as "the presence within a single word, especially in isolation, but usually also in connected speech, of stress on some particular syllable." On the other hand, sentence stress is defined by McArthur (1992:2, cited in Al-Rifa'i, 2004:60) as "the process whereby some words in an utterance are made prominent while others remain in the background."

Scholars generally admit the importance of stress in identifying the meaning of single words and sentences. For Searle (1969: 30), stress is one of the illocutionary force indicating devices in English. This point is supported by Robinson (2002:13) who agrees with Searle (1969) upon considering stress as an indicating device of the illocutionary force arguing that stress is a real component of the pragmatic meaning.

Similarly, Huddleston (1988:130) considers prosody (including stress) as "one of the special factors contributing to the overriding of the initial assignment of the illocutionary force".

Trouson (2002:8) mentions that the addresser, in certain context, stresses or overstresses one word in his/her utterance to show its importance to the illocutionary force and that this stress can have different positions in the utterance according to the context and the addresser's intended meaning.

For Brine (2001:12), prosody, including stress, is one of many factors which contributes to convey the illocutionary force of the utterance for having a vital role in communication. Concerning the importance of stress in the meaning of the utterance, Bally (2002: 10) states that the phonological stress is one of the different linguistic elements the addresser can use in order to clarify his/her intended illocutionary force. Moreover, Allan (1986:11) proves that "stress is assigned on the basis of the addresser's decision as to the most appropriate means of presenting the information in his message". He (ibid: 19) also refers to the influential role of context stating that the stress position changes according to the different contexts in which the sentence occurs. Quirk et al. (1985:1594) state that "the disposition of stress is subject to the speaker's will and the meaning he wishes to convey".

3.2.2.2 Intonation Factor

Intonation is defined by Jones (1972:275) as "the variations which take place in pitch of the voice in connected speech, i.e., the variations in the pitch of the musical note produced by the variation of the vocal cords."

Al-Hamash (1979:118) also observes that intonation is the rise and fall of the pitch level of the speaker's voice when he produces an utterance. The pitch level is attached to every sound or syllable, and the pitch of the voice is the fundamental frequency of the variation of the vocal cords. He also (ibid) argues that variations in pitch levels are called "tones". Thus, intonation is a

characteristic of word groups while tones are related to syllables and single words.

3.2.2.2.1 Forms and Functions of Intonation

Concerning the number of pitch levels, linguists are not in complete agreement about the precise number of tones that are used by native speakers. Some distinguish as many as eight; others work with four or five (Finch, 2005:51).

Gramley and Patzolt (1992:111) mention that "English employs five basic intonational contours, which are referred to as tones." They are the following: fall, rise, level, fall-rise and rise-fall. (For similar viewpoints about the form of intonation, see: Clark and Yallop, 1999:339; Roach, 2000: 150-151; Crystal, 2003: 355).

Intonation makes it easier for the listener to understand what a speaker is trying to convey. Many suggestions have been made of isolating different functions. Roach, for example, (2000:183) states that there is an attitudinal function ,i.e., intonation enables the speakers to express emotions, feelings and attitudes; the same sentence can be said in different ways, which might be labeled "angry", "happy", "grateful", "bored" and so on.

For Gramley and Patzolt, (1992:112), cited in Halliday (1973: 124), statements are usually spoken with falling intonation because they express certainty. When the speaker is less certain or wants to appear less certain, or dogmatic, this attitude can be conveyed by means of a final rise, as in:

62. It's getting pretty *late*↓. (Certainty)

63. It's getting pretty *late*↑. (the speaker is less certain)

According to Chalker (1989: 274), English intonation can fulfill a variety of functions: discourse, grammatical, attitudinal and communicative. The latter is used to indicate statements, commands, questions and so on.

3.2.2.2.2 Intonation and Speech Acts

Scholars generally admit the importance and significance of intonation in characterizing the meaning of single words and utterances. For instance, Searle (1969:30) proposes the notion of illocutionary force indicating devices stating that intonation contour is one of these devices. Huddleston (1988:355) considers prosody (including intonation) as one of the special factors contributing to the overriding of the initial assignment of illocutionary force.

Nilesen (2000:5) presents several tools whereby one can deduce the meaning of an utterance focusing on the significant role of prosody in this respect. According to Brine (2001:12), the illocutionary force of an utterance is not only conveyed by words someone utters or the order in which these words are put but also can be conveyed by other things like prosody. Cook (2003:49) argues that tone of voice is one of the contextual factors which might be involved in interpreting the utterance.

Accordingly, it is inferred that intonation has a crucial significance to the meaning of utterances. Scholars generally believe that intonation is an influential factor in interpreting the illocutionary force of the utterance.

Finally, it should be mentioned here that the stress and intonation factors were supposed to be practically investigated in this work but the control group members were not cooperative and that is why they have been left to other research works.

3.3 The Extra-Linguistic Factors

The three extra-linguistic factors which have crucial roles in the process of determining the intended illocutionary force of the English declaratives are psychological, cultural and social respectively.

3.3.1 The Psychological Factor

The relationship between psychology and language has attracted the interest of many scholars for a long time. Various studies have been conducted to reveal how the psychological state of the language user affects and is reflected in one's use of language. However, scholars admit the difficulty involved in the study of psychology and language and they still do not know enough about how language is produced because they deal with mental abstractions so vague that they elude empirical investigation (Scovel, 2000:27).

3.3.1.1 Psychological State and Language

Psychological state is defined as a mental abstract condition aroused by a set of different (internal and external) motives, and has a crucial influence upon one's behaviour. It is classified into three categories: a) positive (pleasant), b) negative (unpleasant) and c) neutral (Haulard, 2000:16)

However, Hilgrad (2001:64) proposes another classification based on the arousing motives:

- a) The internal motive states: Under this category, there are two sub-categories motivated by two different kinds of internal motives (i.e., the psychological and the emotional):

- The psychological motive: it is motivated by various internal physiological drives (e.g., hunger, thirst, sex, etc.). It stems from internal biological needs, gives a rise to a tense psychological state. The human being seeks to reduce this tension or even terminate it. In this sense, the physiological drive functions as a motive. For example, the depletion of food substances in the blood arouses a need for food and consequently hunger drive.
 - The emotional motive: It comprises different internal emotions. Hilgrad (2001: 69) distinguishes between (i) pleasant emotional states (e.g., happy, joyful, satisfied) and (ii) unpleasant emotional states (e.g., angry, sad, afraid). In fact, what is common between the two types of emotions is that they both constitute motives for certain behaviour.
- b) The external motive states: This category embodies psychological states motivated by miscellaneous external stimuli such as the role of external environment and how it influences the inner psychological states of the human being (ibid: 71).

In fact, a number of other scholars also deal with the influence of environment upon psychological state. To come closer to linguistics, Petrison (2002: 9, 10), for example, argues that "the environmental elements (place, time, climate, etc.) assume the part of a crucible embodying the communicative act as a whole". These elements affect negatively or positively the psychological state of the language user and this will ultimately be reflected in one's communication. For example:

It is very cold, and two room-mates are sitting in their room whose door is open. One of them urges the other to close the door saying:

64. It is cold in here.

65. You left the door open.

the cold weather causes an unpleasant psychological state for the addresser which in turn makes him say one of the above utterances.

Thus, human beings can use linguistic behaviour (language) for expressing different kinds of psychological state, e.g., reducing tension, satisfying a need, expressing an emotion, etc. (Allwood, 1998:16).

Regarding declarative sentences, this type can be used to express a varied number of psychological states, e.g., emotion emphasis. In fact, the emotive force of the statement may be intensified by adding intensifiers such as "*such*", "*so*", as in:

66. The whole place was *such* a mess!

67. I'm *so* afraid they'll get lost.

68. I didn't know he was *such* a nice man.

(Leech and Svartvik, 1975:153)

Accordingly, it is inferred that there are different types of psychological states resting upon different sources of motivation. Almost, all of these types can be expressed by different sorts of human behaviour, including linguistic one.

The expression of any kind of psychological state via linguistic behaviour (language) entails a creation of intention (illocutionary force) inside the addresser's mind since there is no meaningful language use without intention. In fact, the use of declaratives is not an exception since it is part of meaningful language use. Hence, one can realize the close relationship between psychological state and the creation of illocutionary force in general,

and that of the declaratives in particular. Actually, the creation of the intended illocutionary force of any declarative is characterized by choosing a specific one from the set of all possible illocutionary forces conveyed by the declarative.

On the other hand, if the addressee is able to recognize what sort of psychological state the addresser has, this recognition will be a helpful factor for determining which illocutionary force is being conveyed. So, this factor can be useful for the addressee to infer or expect which illocutionary force is being conveyed.

It should be mentioned here that due to the limits of the study, the psychological factor will not be investigated in the practical part of this study.

3.3.2 The Cultural Factor

In his attempt to introduce a definition to the notion of culture, Hudson (1996:78) states that culture is the kind of knowledge which people learn from others, either by direct instruction or by watching their behaviour. It plays a major role in communication, and in particular when using language. For Kramsch (1998:4), culture is "a membership in a discourse community that shares a common social space and history, and a common system of standards for perceiving, believing, evaluating and acting".

Bernstien (1970:161) emphasizes the relationship between the linguistic rule system and the cultural one since the former in various ways shapes the cultural one.

In this respect, Lyons (1977:607) concludes that all utterances are culturally determined; and "the meaning of the utterance is the totality of its contribution to the maintenance of ... the patterns of life in the society in

which the speaker lives and to the affirmation on the speaker's role and personality within the society".

Normally, people tend to perceive reality strictly within the context of their own culture. This means that in normal situations, people abide by what have already been established by their cultural norms of behaviour (Brown, 1980:123). Wardhaugh (1990:211) states that a society's culture consists of whatever one has to know or believe in order to operate in a manner acceptable to its members and to do any role they accept for anyone of themselves.

No doubt, language is one of the means of reflecting this manner. It is the most visible and available expression of culture (Brown, 1980:129-130). Hence, in expressing their cultural identity, members of a certain culture use their language in accordance with the norms (i.e., rules) established by their culture. This means that their socially acquired knowledge is reflected in their use of their language. Thus, it is valid to argue that people in different cultures differ not only in their linguistic codes but also in the way they use these codes.

It is true that some cultural phenomena in language use are similar in some cultures, but it is beyond dispute that cultures have established rules which are peculiar to them (Brown and Levinson, 1979: 75).

Rubin (1980:75) identifies various cultural differences in the way of saying "no". Silence, for instance may mean "no" in one culture but it may mean "maybe" in another.

The relationship between language and society is undeniable. In this regard, Trudgill (1977:27-29) emphasizes the effect of society on language in three ways. First, a society life is reflected in its lexicon, for example, English has only one word for *snow* while Eskimos has several. Secondly, it can have

an affect on the structure of the vocabulary, for example, a society's kinship system is generally reflected in its kinship vocabulary. Thirdly, the values of society can also have an effect on its language, for example, taboo phenomenon can be characterized as being concerned with behaviour which is believed to be forbidden or regarded as immoral or improper.

Sapir acknowledges the close relationship between language and culture in the sense that someone cannot understand or appreciate the other without knowing some cultural background about him (Wardhaugh, 1990:212).

3.3.2.1 Culture and Speech Acts

Scholars generally admit the importance of culture in identifying the intended illocutionary force of the speaker. In this regard, Corder (1973:40) points out that the meaning of an utterance is highly determined by contextual factors such as the cultural knowledge.

Schiffrin (1987:3) argues that understanding how language is used and how it is structured depends on a number of contexts such as the cultural ones of shared meanings.

As far as the influence of culture on SAs is concerned, Manes (1983:96) states that any "speech act...reflects a variety of cultural norms and values and in so doing serves to express and maintain those values". Associated with this, Trosborg (1995:40) points out that "different pragmatic norms reflect different hierarchies of values characteristic of different cultures".

Accordingly, the cultural values reflected in a SA may differ from one culture to another. English people, for instance, show preference for

indirectness in communicating SAs in general and directives and commissives in particular (Al-Hindawi, 1999:111).

Leech (1983:107,109), for instance, asserts that the most distinctive characteristic of the English - speaking society is its appeal to the tact maxim in performing directives and commissives. The tact maxim refers to minimizing cost and maximizing benefit to other which are achieved through indirectness and offering optionality of action to addressees.

Cook (2003:49) mentions a number of factors that might be involved in the interpretation of a real encounter such as the degree to which speakers do or do not- share the same cultural background.

The context of culture plays a crucial role in determining the illocutionary force of the speaker, i.e., one utterance might have quite different interpretations according to the difference in culture. For example, in English culture, when a man addresses his friend's wife in a party, saying:

69. You look so beautiful.

The wife will interpret the utterance as a **praise**, while in Arab culture, the wife will interpret it as an **insult** .

One can infer that cultures influence the way language is used in terms of their values, beliefs, customs...etc. This implies that the rules of using language, the basic means of expressing a culture, differ from one culture to another.

3.3.3 The Social Factor

Almost all the anthropologists and sociologists admit that man is of a social nature and needs instinctively to live with others and establish social relations of different kinds. Thus, Man needs a set of social means among which language is considered the principal one. In this context, As-Say'id (2003:27) argues that language is not only a means for expressing thoughts and emotions, it is basically a social means for social communication used for establishing and maintaining social relations among its users. If language is viewed as a mere means for conveying and obtaining information only, it loses its social motive and goal.

According to the above viewpoint, several scholars believe in the existence of a considerable influence of social relations on language which are, in one way or another, reflected through language. Olson (2000:11), for example, argues that "an utterance is simultaneously doing two things: it is specifying the logical relation between symbol and referent, and it is specifying a social relation between the interlocutors".

From a more pragmatic point of view, pragmaticians are interested in how the social relations of the interlocutors influence their language use and to what extent and what sort of indicators is used to refer to the social relation involved. In fact, these and similar issues are tackled mainly under the heading of politeness which a principal domain in the area of pragmatic studies (Carol: 2000:11).

3.3.3.1 The Notion of Face

Thomas (1995: 186,169) believes that the most influential theory of politeness is proposed by Brown and Levinson (1978 and revised in 1987). A key element for their theory is the concept of **face**. The technical term "face"

refers to the public self - image of a person ,i.e., "it refers to that emotional and social sense of self that everyone has and expects everyone else to recognize" (Yule, 1996: 60). This image can be damaged, maintained or enhanced through interaction with others.

The notion of face has two aspects: **Positive** and **Negative**. A person's positive face is realized through his / her desire to be accepted, liked, approved, respected and appreciated by others. On the other hand, a person's negative face is reflected in the desire to be independent, have a freedom of action, and not to be impeded or imposed upon by others (ibid: 61).

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), certain illocutionary acts are responsible for damaging or threatening another person's face. Such acts are termed as **face-threatening acts** (FTAs). An illocutionary act has the potential to damage the addresser's positive face (by , for example , insulting him or expressing disapproval of something s/he believes to be true) , or the addresser's negative face (an order , for example , will constrain the addresser's freedom of action) . In order to reduce the possibility of damage or threat to the addressee's face, the addresser can resort to **face - saving acts** (FSAs). The FSA involves choosing and employing certain strategies based on the addresser's assessment of the size of the FTA. The addresser can calculate the size of the FTA according to the parameters of power, distance, and size of imposition (Thomas, 1995: 169; Yule, 1996: 61).

3.3.3.2 Politeness Phenomenon

Thomas (1995: 149,158) states that the growing interest in pragmatic studies in the past few years has been accompanied by a great deal of interest in politeness as a pragmatic phenomenon, to such extent that politeness theory could almost be regarded as a sub-discipline of pragmatics. Various

approaches, notably those of Leech (1983, 1996) and Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) have been proposed to account for politeness. In these approaches "politeness is interpreted as a strategy (or series of strategies) employed by a speaker to achieve a variety of goals, such as promoting or maintaining harmonious relations".

Grundy (1995:127) argues that politeness is one manifestation of the wider concept of etiquette or appropriate behaviour. It is a paradigm example of pragmatic usage. Furthermore, there are some aspects of an external context which are particularly determinate of language choice in the domain of politeness; these may include the power-distance relationship of the interactants and the extent to which a speaker imposes or requires something of his / her addressee. In being polite, a speaker is attempting to create an implicated context that matches the one assumed by the addressee.

3.3.3.3 The Social Factor and Speech Acts

The force of the utterance in certain context is determined by various factors such as the social factor. In this regard , Corder (1973:40) points out that the characteristics of the situation play an important role in determining how one understands the utterance , i.e., the meaning of the utterance is highly determined by contextual factors such as the social role between interlocutors .

Schiffrin (1987: 3) also argues that language is produced and interpreted in specific contexts such as the social contexts through which definitions of self and situation are structured.

Huddleston (1988:41) points out that that the determination of the illocutionary force of an utterance depends on a variety of contextual factors

such as beliefs , assumptions , intention of interlocutors as well as their relative social status .

On the other hand, Kasper and Rose (2001:5) assert that strategies of communicative actions vary according to context, especially, along with factors such as social power, social and psychological distance and the degree of imposition involved in communicative act.

A variety of factors might be involved in interpreting a real encounter such as the relationship between speakers; their age, sex and social status (Cook, 2003: 49).

Accordingly, it is inferred that the social factor plays a vital role in determining two pragmatic aspects. Firstly, the social factor can determine the most socially appropriate form for conveying a particular illocutionary force. Secondly, the social factor can also determine which illocutionary force is more appropriate to be conveyed in a given social situation. This applies to various linguistic forms including the declaratives, i.e., the social factor can determine whether or not a declarative is appropriately used in a given social situation. Moreover, it can also determine which illocutionary force is more socially appropriate to be conveyed with the declarative.

It should be noticed that one of the most prominent approaches that have taken the social factor for determining language use into account is that of Brown and Levinson's (1979).

3.3. 3.4 Brown and Levinson's (1979) Model

It is worth mentioning that Brown and Levinson's account of the situational factors influencing the choice of language has a prominent place in many empirical researches (cf. Scarcella 1979, Hill et al., 1986, Lee-Wong 1994). Brown and Levinson(1979:76-89) argue that in choosing a certain

strategy for expressing a certain SA, speakers consider the advantages associated with this strategy (e.g. clarity, efficiency, politeness,...etc.). However, they assert that the speakers' attempts to attain these advantages are hindered by various opposing forces, which they term as "the circumstances" or "sociological variables". These variables include the social distance (D) of speaker and hearer, the relative power (P) of speaker and hearer, and the ranking (R) of the SA imposition. Thus, when a speaker attempts to suit a particular language choice to a specific occasion, s/he requires a calculation of the weightiness and this depends not only on the degree of imposition but also on the social distance and relative power of speaker and hearer. Power, here, is an asymmetric relation which refers to the authority the participants enjoy in terms of their statuses and roles (See Gremmo, et al., 1985: 37 for the difference between status and role). Social distance is a symmetric relation and can be viewed as associated with the term "solidarity" (Hudson, 1996:132). It concerns how much experience the participants share, how many social characteristics they share (e.g., religion, sex, age, region of origin, race, occupation, interests, etc.) , how far they are prepared to share intimacies and other factors. In short, as Lee-Wong (1994:504) argues, "social distance is defined along the scale of familiarity and kinship".

However, it should be noticed that speech communities differ in the relative weight or value they give to imposition and this might constitute a complicating problem for foreign speakers of a certain language.

The factors discussed in this subsection, i.e., status, the social distance and the relative power will be the base of building up the situations of the test of the practical part of this study.

Chapter Four

Data Collection and Analysis

This chapter attempts to investigate Iraqi EFL undergraduate learners' behaviour in using SAs conveyed by the declarative sentence. However, this investigation will involve the learners' abilities to distinguish SAs from other related ones at both the recognition and production levels. Additionally, there will be an assessment of the learners' use of the strategies of expressing SAs, and this assessment will be done in relation to what native English speakers actually do in given situations rather than what they are thought to do. The chapter starts with describing the methods used for collecting and analyzing the data. Then, it analyzes and discusses the learners' performance in an attempt to come out with findings related to the aims and hypotheses of this study.

4.1 Data Collection:

4.1.1 Subjects:

The study involves one hundred EFL undergraduate fourth-year students randomly chosen from Department of English, College of Education of University of Al-Qadisiya. The subjects at this level range in age between 22-24. They are native speakers of Arabic having the same EFL background. The reason behind choosing fourth year students to be the sample of this study is that they are supposed to be the advanced learners of English before graduation.

A control group represented by ten native English speakers is formed. The subjects of this group are officials in **Aegis (A Private Security Company)** and range in age between (22-24). They all have bachelor degrees in different specializations and speak BBC accent. Their role, however, is limited to Part 2 of the test (See Appendix 2).

4.1.2 The Test

The subjects are asked to participate in a two part test (See Appendix 2). The first part is divided into two sections .It consists of fifty situations divided equally on both sections. Section A takes the form of a recognition test to reveal the subjects' ability to recognize the type of SA issued by a declarative utterance when choices are given. The subjects are required to choose the correct choice from a variety of options while Section B takes the form of a production test. It engages the subjects in a task requiring them to identify the type of SA issued by a declarative utterance in each situation without having any choices given to them.

The second part of the test (See Appendix 2, Part 2) is intended to elicit information about the students' abilities, at the production level, to issue certain SAs by means of the declarative sentence according to certain contextual factors. Thus, it is introduced as an elicitation procedure (Cf. Corder, 1982:61, for instance). This part contains twenty-five situations. The required type of SA is given to the subjects in each situation. The respondents, thus, are not left to their own interpretation of what SA to issue in which situation. This is done deliberately to ensure producing the SA in question only.

The situations in both parts of the test are adopted from various sources including Low (1976), Jones (1983), Kulka, (1983) and Lee-Wong (1994). The contextual factors that are taken into account in building up these situations include status , i.e. , superiority , equality and inferiority of position , social distance , i.e. , familiarity , and unfamiliarity , and whether the power relationship is solidary or non-solidary (Lee-Wong , 1994 : 501). As mentioned earlier in (3.2.2.2.2), the stress and intonational factors are intended to be included in building up the test but unfortunately the English control

group refused to cooperate in this regard and the attempts to record their utterances concerning the first part of the test were in vain.

The test requires two basic characteristics ,i.e., validity and reliability; otherwise the accuracy statements with reference to it will be questionable (Hatch and Farhady, 1982: 243).

4.1.3 Test Validity

Test validity refers to the degree to which the test actually measures what it claims to measure. It is also the extent to which inference, conclusions and decisions made on the basis of test scores are appropriate and meaningful (Heaton, 1988: 162).

Test validity is of two types: content validity and face validity. Content validity is a non-statistical type of validity which involves "the systematic examination of the test content to determine whether it is a representative sample of the behaviour domain to be measured" (Crocker and Algina, 1986: 114). It depends on a theoretical basis for assuming if a test is assessing all domain of a criterion.

A test has content validity built into it by careful selection of which items to include. Items are chosen so that they can comply with the test specification which is drawn up through a thorough examination of the subject domain (ibid).

To ensure content validity, the test is carefully constructed so as to give no space for testing the SAs other than the ones intended to be involved, i.e., SAs expressed by the English declaratives. It is also ensured that the informants are familiar with the SAs mentioned. Their familiarity of issuing statements in English and expressing other types of SAs like apology and greeting starts at the primary and intermediate stages where they learn to use different communicative functions (See Books 2, 3 and 5 of NECI). The subjects receive

further training in this respect in their sixth year of secondary school where they are introduced to certain functions of language such as obligation , prohibition , warning , request , certainty , permission , probability, etc. with various strategies for each function (See Book 8 of NECI).

Their knowledge of the SAs increases further through lessons of " conversation " and " language " in their undergraduate study (See Situational Dialogues and Breakthrough 2). Needless to say, all these practices are enhanced by means of classroom communicative encounters, i.e., communication in English between themselves and their teachers on the other.

As for face validity, it is related to the way the test looks to the subjects, test administrators and the like (Harris, 1969: 7). To achieve this end, the test was exposed to a jury of experts (See Appendix 3). Every member of the jury was handed a copy of the test with a letter requesting them to give their opinions of the suitability of the techniques and items used and suggest any necessary changes or modifications (See Appendix 1). The techniques and the items used are all approved by the jury members apart from few suggested modifications of some items. The final version of the test was also shown to a number of native British speakers who expressed their approval of all the parts of the test. As a result, the test took the form of the version in Appendix 2 which was given to the sample of the pilot study.

4.1.4 Test Reliability

Test reliability refers to the degree to which a test is consistent and stable in measuring what is intended to measure. A test is reliable if it is consistent within itself and across time. This means that reliability can be achieved once its scores remain relatively stable on repeated attempts, i.e., from one administration to another (Harrison, 1983: 11).

One method of estimating test reliability is test-retest (Harris, 1969: 15). Thus, a sample of the subjects was exposed to the test twice within three days. This sample consisted of twenty fourth-year students chosen randomly from Department of English, College of Education, University of Al-Qadisiya.

The correlation between the scores of the two tests was computed by using the Kurder-Richardson formula (See Appendix 4). The computation of the results has yielded that the reliability of the test amounted to 81% which is a highly positive correlation (Heaton, 1988: 164).

4.1.5 The Pilot Study

In order to investigate the effectiveness of data collection techniques , the appropriateness of the items as well as exploring any problems that may interfere with the proper administration of the data collection tool , a random sample consisting of twenty fourth-year students , Department of English , College of Education , University of Al-Qadisiya were involved in an advance sitting for the test.

The study confirmed the effectiveness of the techniques and the appropriateness of the testing items and revealed that the time needed for performing the whole task was about three hours. On the basis of the administration of the pilot test, it was decided that some explanation in the native language of the subjects, i.e., Arabic, of some of the notions and vocabulary items was necessary for attaining satisfactory performance. Accordingly, those requirements were met during the final administration of the task.

4.1.6 Administration of the Task

The subjects were asked to sit for the test in March 2009. Prior to starting the task, they were motivated to respond seriously to all the parts of the test (See Appendix 2) through explaining the importance of the purposes of the work they were involved in. What they were required to do in response to the test was demonstrated to them in Arabic, as recommended by Olshtain and Cohen (1983:32) who believe that the respondents' native language should be used to make them fully understand what they are required to do. Besides, they (ibid) believe that giving instructions in the target language may bias the subjects towards using certain expressions, the matter which surely affects the results of the study. Additionally, they were encouraged not to hesitate about asking for any clarification or explanation they might need during their performance. In order to save time and effort, they were asked to write their responses on the papers of the test. To avoid any embarrassment, they were asked not to mention their names on the test sheet.

4.1.7 Methods of Analysis

4.1.7.1 Analysis of Part 1

Part 1 of the test can be described as an objective one since its scoring scheme neither depends on the personal opinion of the subject himself / herself , nor on the subjective judgment of the scorer.

To ensure an objective scoring of the test, a scoring scheme has been adopted. Each participant, in section A, is required to choose only one correct option at the recognition level or write, in section B, one appropriate SA at the production level.

Additionally, each test paper is scored out of 100. Scores are equally distributed over the items of Part 1 in its two sections, i.e., the recognition and

production levels. Two marks are given to each correct answer and zero mark for the incorrect one. Spelling mistakes are ignored. The items that are left without answer by the subjects are also given zero mark because they give the impression that the subjects fail to give the appropriate answer. The following table illustrates the scoring scheme adopted for the test:

Table (2)
Distribution of the Scores of the Test

| Number of Test | Numbers of items | Scores | Percentage |
|--------------------|------------------|--------|------------|
| Part 1 / Section A | 25 | 50 | 50 |
| Part 1 / Section B | 25 | 50 | 50 |
| Total | 50 | 100 | 100 |

In order to measure the central tendency, the mean score has been appealed to as a statistical device .In this regard, Butler (1985:30) states that the mean score is the average subject response to an item. It is formed by adding up the number of the points earned by all the subjects for the item , and dividing that total by the number of the subjects.

In addition to the scoring scheme referred to above, a rating scale of the learners' performance at Part 1 has been adopted. This scale is based on Al-Hindawi's (1999:136) modified version of Carroll's (1980:134) scale. This scale is presented in Table (3).

Table (3)
Assessment Scale of Learner's Ability

| Band | Learner's recognition and production ability |
|----------|--|
| 90 – 100 | Expert user. Accurately understands English system |
| 80 – 89 | Very good user. Often approaches bilingual competence. |
| 70 – 79 | Good user. Would cope in most situations in English |
| 60 – 69 | Competent user. Can cope well with most situations but will have occasional misunderstandings. |
| 50 – 59 | Modest user. Manages in general to communicate but often has inaccurate understandings. |
| 40 – 49 | Marginal user. Is not easy to communicate with |
| 30 – 39 | Extremely limited user. Receptive skills do not allow continuous communication. |
| 20 – 29 | Intermittent user. Understanding occurs only sporadically. |
| 0 - 19 | Non-user. Uncertain recognition of which type of language is being used. |

The results of the subjects at this level are rendered into percentages. Then, the results of the learners' performance at both sections of Part 1 of the test are compared with each other.

4.1.7.2 Analysis of Part 2

The model of the SAs strategies in Chapter Three (See 3.2.1.1.2) is used for analyzing the type of strategies adopted by the subjects and native English speakers. The performance of the learners is then compared with the performance of the control group after rendering the results into percentages. All the types of analyses are carried out in terms of the three parameters: status, social distance and solidarity of power.

4.2 Data Analysis

4.2.1 Part 1

4.2.1.1 Section A

The scoring of the learners' performance at the recognition level points out that the learners are more influenced by the linguistic realizations of the SAs than by the contextual factors influencing those realizations. This is obvious from the fact that they are successful in recognizing SAs made through marked constructions, see Tables (4), (5), (6), (7) and (8), than in recognizing SAs performed via unmarked constructions (See Table 9).

The subjects tend to associate a certain linguistic device with a particular SA. This tendency could be attributed to the fact that the informants' exposure to SAs in their pre-university study was much more limited to the linguistic forms of realizing them (See Books 1-8 in NECI). Their exposure to the contextual factors take the form of simple notes in Book 8 only, the text book for the sixth secondary stage, suggesting the type of situation, i.e., formal or informal, for using SAs. Thus, it could be argued that the learners do not reveal enough appreciation of the contextual factors governing the issuance of the SAs.

Concerning the various strategies used in this section, Tables (4) ,(5) , (6), (7) and (8) show how the subjects recognize marked constructions , i.e. , performative expressions , modal verbs, nominalized performatives , etc. that can express the different kinds of SAs .In all tables, the results are arranged from high to low percentages:

Table (4)**Subjects' Recognition of the SA Expressed by Performative Expressions**

| Performative Expressions | No. of Item | Percentage of Correct Responses | Percentage of Incorrect Responses |
|---------------------------------|--------------------|--|--|
| I'm sorry | 13 | 96 | 4 |
| Warn | 21 | 94 | 6 |
| Promise | 11 | 90 | 1 |
| Order | 4 | 79 | 21 |
| I'm sure | 25 | 69 | 31 |
| It's good to ... | 6 | 66 | 34 |
| Not allowed | 15 | 59 | 41 |
| Expect | 24 | 59 | 41 |
| You'd better... | 22 | 44 | 56 |
| That's a very nice... | 10 | 43 | 57 |

In Table (4) above, it is apparent that the subjects recognize some performative expressions better than other ones. When there is a performative verb such as "promise", "warn", "order" or a performative expression which is more familiar to them, they can recognize the SA intended better than the ones which are issued by less familiar performative expressions. To use the mean score as an indicator, the learners' success amounts to (69.9 %). If we put the learners' performance on Carroll's scale, it can be described as "competent users".

The utterances of the items in Table (5) are marked declarative constructions by the use of modal verbs rather than by performative expressions. Recognizing

the intended SA successfully requires full understanding of the contextual elements governing the issuance of the SA.

Tables (5)

Subjects' Recognition of the SA Expressed by Modals

| Modal Verbs | No. of Item | Percentage of Correct responses | Percentage of Incorrect responses |
|--------------------|--------------------|--|--|
| Will | 1 | 63 | 37 |
| Can | 14 | 52 | 48 |
| Will | 16 | 38 | 62 |
| Can (hardly) | 2 | 28 | 72 |

For example, the modal "can" in item No.2 is used to express indirect SA of commanding. Misinterpretation of the contextual factors will lead to inability to recognize this intended SA. To use the mean score as an indicator, the learners' success amounts to (45.25 %) which indicates their central tendency. Accordingly, the learners' performance in this regard according to Carroll's scale can be referred as "marginal users".

Table (6) below illustrates how subjects recognize SAs performed by hedged performatives. It is apparent that their recognition of hedged performatives is better than that of modal verbs since the former contains a performative expression.

Table (6)**Subjects' Recognition of the SA Expressed by Hedged Performatives**

| Hedged Performatives | No. of item | Percentage of Correct responses | Percentage of Incorrect responses |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|--|--|
| Must stop | 12 | 77 | 23 |
| Should ----- suggest | 18 | 91 | 9 |
| Would ---- request | 19 | 96 | 4 |

The subjects seem to have a tendency to associate a performative linguistic device with a particular SA. To use the mean score as an indicator, the learners' success amounts to (88 %). If we place the learners' performance on Carroll's scale, it can be described as "very good users". This could be attributed essentially to the presence of a performative expression (e.g., suggest, request, stop) which is an obvious indicator of the SA performed.

The intended meaning of the utterance in Table (7) below, Situation (10) is a SA of threatening.

Table (7)**Subjects' Recognition of the SA Expressed by If - Conditionals**

| If - Conditionals | No. of Item | Percentage of Correct responses | Percentage of Incorrect responses |
|--------------------------|--------------------|--|--|
| ----- if you do it again | 10 | 33 | 67 |

Here, about only one third of the subjects has recognized it successfully. The reason may be attributed to the fact that the subjects do not have enough awareness to the contextual elements concerning this situation. To issue a threat, the speaker should have more power (in status) than the hearer.

According to the situation, an employer threatens one of his employees to fire him because the latter has broken the company's law. To use the mean score as an indicator, the learners' success amounts to (33 %). If we put the learners' performance on Carroll's scale, it can be described as "extremely limited users".

According to the utterances, in Table (8) below, in situations (6) and (20), the performative expression takes the form of a noun, i.e., nominalized performative.

Table (8)

Subjects' Recognition of SA Expressed by Nominalized Performatives

| Nominalized Performatives | No. of Item | Percentage of Correct Responses | Percentage of Incorrect Responses |
|----------------------------------|--------------------|--|--|
| My advice | 6 | 95 | 5 |
| My suggestion | 20 | 88 | 12 |

The nominalized performative is one of the indicating devices of the illocutionary force of the utterance. The subjects associate it with the SA mentioned in the given options. Their success according to the mean score amounts to (90.5 %) If we put the learners' performance on Carroll's scale, it can be described as "expert users".

Table (9) below illustrates how the subjects recognize the different types of SAs conveyed by the unmarked declarative constructions. To use the mean score, the subjects' success in this regard amounts to (37.5%). This may be ascribed to the fact that the interpretation of the utterances in these situations is completely context dependent and requires a series of inferences.

Table (9)

Subjects' Recognition of SA Expressed by the Unmarked Constructions

| Unmarked | No. of item | Percentage of Correct Responses | Percentage of Incorrect Responses |
|-----------------------------|-------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| He is a little bit short | 4 | 65 | 35 |
| He is a little bit short | 3 | 57 | 43 |
| You are a man | 5 | 43 | 57 |
| I suppose you are aware ... | 7 | 18 | 82 |
| I suppose you are aware ... | 8 | 5 | 95 |

In other words, there is no obvious linguistic indicator of the SA issued and they have to rely on the contextual factors to determine the SA, a task as it seems they have failed to do. This verifies the third hypothesis mentioned in Chapter One of this study which states that **The learners show a greater tendency towards using a particular type of strategy than others for expressing it due to their influence by the type of SAs more than by the contextual factors.**

If we put the learners' performance on Carroll's scale, it can be described as "extremely limited users".

Consequently, one can say that the subjects recognize the SAs realized by the marked constructions better than the unmarked ones. This is supported by the percentage of the marked constructions which is (65.33 %) in comparison to that of the unmarked ones which is (37.5 %). So, this verifies the first hypothesis that **Iraqi EFL learners recognize the SAs expressed by marked constructions better than the ones expressed by the unmarked constructions.**

4.2.1.2 Section B

The scoring of the subjects' performance at the production level shows that they are more influenced by the linguistic realizations of the SAs than by the contextual factors influencing those realizations. In this section, the learners face more difficulty than that in Section (A) since the options are not given to them. Instead, they themselves have to think of the intended SA depending on the given utterances and the contextual factors. The overall successful performance of the learners is (30%). To use the mean score as an indicator, the subjects' success amounts to (34%). If we put the learners' performance on Carroll's scale, it can be described as "extremely limited users".

Concerning the various strategies that characterized the utterances used in this section, the following Tables (10), (11), (12) and (13) below show the subjects' behaviour in recognizing the type of SA realized by the marked constructions, i.e., performative expressions, modal verbs, hedged performatives, etc.

Table (10) below shows that the informants identify the SAs of suggesting and advising better than other ones. This behaviour may be attributed to the fact that those two SAs are expressed by more explicit performative expressions than other ones.

Table (10)
Subjects' Production of the Type of SAs Expressed by Performative Expressions

| Performative Expressions | No. of Item | Percentage of Correct Responses | Percentage of Incorrect Responses |
|---------------------------------|--------------------|--|--|
| Suggest | 12 | 89 | 11 |
| Advise | 11 | 82 | 18 |
| I'm sure ----- | 17 | 62 | 38 |
| I'm afraid ----- | 23 | 62 | 38 |
| Congratulate | 4 | 40 | 60 |
| I'm so grateful ----- | 5 | 32 | 68 |
| Rewarded | 2 | 29 | 71 |
| You're looking very ---- | 9 | 25 | 75 |

Comparing the learners' performance in section A and that of section B on the basis of mean score, it is (69.9%) in the former while it is only (52.62%) in the latter. If we put the learners' performance here on Carroll's scale, it can be described as "modest users".

According to Table (11) below, the highest percentage of the subjects' production is achieved in Situation (25) because the correct answer is the SA of stating, i.e., a direct SA. When a sentence type achieves its usual function, we have a direct SA (Yule, 1996: 55). The modal "may " in Situation (19) is used to express the SA of prohibiting when followed by "not". This can be inferred from the contextual elements of the situation.

Table (11)**Subjects' Production of the Type of SAs Expressed by Modals**

| Modal verbs | No. of Item | Percentage of Correct Responses | Percentage of Incorrect Responses |
|--------------------|--------------------|--|--|
| Will | 25 | 43 | 57 |
| Will | 24 | 40 | 60 |
| Will | 8 | 38 | 62 |
| Must | 22 | 29 | 71 |
| May | 19 | 26 | 74 |

The subjects' performance of the SAs expressed by modal verbs according to mean score is (35.2 %) while their performance at the recognition level is (45.25 %). If we place the learners' performance here on Carroll's scale, it can be described as "extremely limited users"

The type of SA in Situation (14) in Table (12) below is "commanding" which can be derived from the performative verb "order". That is the reason behind the subjects' highest percentage, i.e., (65 %).

Table (12)**Subjects' Production of the Type of SAs Expressed by Hedged Performatives**

| Hedged Performatives | No. of Item | Percentage of Correct Responses | Percentage of Incorrect Responses |
|------------------------------|--------------------|--|--|
| I have to order you ----- | 14 | 65 | 35 |
| It might help to ----- | 3 | 35 | 65 |
| I'd like to ask you to ----- | 20 | 25 | 75 |
| You mustn't forget ----- | 6 | 21 | 79 |
| I think you should ----- | 10 | 18 | 72 |

To use the mean score as an indicator, the learners' success amounts to (32.8 %) while their success at the recognition level is (88 %). If we put the learners' performance here on Carroll's scale, it can be described as "extremely limited users". So, their performance at this level is much poorer than theirs at the recognition one.

In the following table, the type of SA expressed by If-conditionals is "threatening" in both situations.

Table (13)

Subjects' Production of the Type of SAs Expressed by If - Conditionals

| If - Conditionals | No. of Item | Percentage of Correct Responses | Percentage of Incorrect Responses |
|--------------------------|--------------------|--|--|
| If you don't eat , ----- | 7 | 51 | 49 |
| If you don't give ----- | 21 | 36 | 64 |

It is apparent that the subjects' performance concerning Situation (7) is better than theirs in Situation (21). To use the mean score as an indicator, the learners' success amounts to (43.5 %) which is better than their performance at the recognition level. If we put the learners' performance on Carroll's scale, it can be described as "marginal users".

Table (14) illustrates the subjects' production of the type of SA expressed by unmarked constructions.

Table (14)
Subjects' Production of the Type of SAs Expressed by Unmarked Constructions

| Unmarked | No. of Item | Percentage of Correct Responses | Percentage of Incorrect Responses |
|-------------------------|-------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| The weather is so ----- | 13 | 61 | 39 |
| We have made ----- | 1 | 25 | 75 |
| The floor needs ----- | 15 | 23 | 77 |
| That ratio is ----- | 18 | 23 | 77 |
| It's hot in here | 16 | 19 | 81 |

Recognizing the type of SAs realized by the unmarked constructions is more difficult than recognizing it when realized by the marked ones because there are no illocutionary force indicating devices the subjects can appeal to to identify the intended SA. Additionally, to identify the intended meaning of the speaker in these utterances, the subjects should take all the contextual factors into consideration. To use the mean score as an indicator, the learners' success amounts to (30.2 %) which is lower than theirs in Section (A), i.e., (39 %). If we place the learners' performance on Carroll's scale, it can be described as "extremely limited users".

It is apparent that the subjects' performance at the recognition level is better than theirs at the production level. This is clearly indicated in relation to the percentage at the recognition level (62.2 %) as compared with that at the production one (39.96 %). Consequently, this verifies the second hypothesis that **The learners' ability to identify the intended SAs out of a set of options is better than their ability when they themselves have to think of the intended**

SA depending only on the given utterances and the contexts. This also verifies the third hypothesis made in Chapter One of this study.

The extent of the learners' ability to recognize the SAs at both levels can be described in terms of the mean score as shown in Table (15) below.

Table (15)

The Learners' Ability at Both Levels in Terms of the Mean Score

| No. of Subjects | Mean | Scale of Learners' Ability |
|------------------------|-------------|-----------------------------------|
| 100 | 51.72 | Modest users |

Generally , The scores of the overall performance can be used to rate the learners' abilities at the recognition as well as the production levels in terms of assessment scale introduced in Table (3) above as described in Table (16) below:

Table (16)

Learners' Performance at the Recognition and Production Levels in Terms of Percentage of Success

| Band | Scale of the learners' ability | Percentage |
|-------------|---------------------------------------|-------------------|
| 90-100 | Expert User | 0% |
| 80-89 | Very good user | 0% |
| 70-79 | Good user | 2% |
| 60-69 | Competent user | 12 % |
| 50-59 | Modest user | 42 % |
| 40-49 | Marginal user | 23 % |
| 30-39 | Extremely user | 18 % |
| 20-29 | Extremely limited | 3 % |
| 0-19 | Non-user | 0 % |

4.2.2 Part 2 / Analysis of Strategies

4.2.2.1 Overall Performance

The analysis of the data with respect to strategies used to express SAs through declaratives reveals that a variety of strategies are employed by the subjects. However, some of them especially marked constructions, such as performative expressions, are widely used while others such as unmarked ones are rarely appealed to.

The model mentioned in Chapter Three (See 3.2.1.1.2) is used for analyzing the type of strategies adopted by the subjects and native English speakers in the following section.

4.2.2.2 The Use of SAs Strategies in Terms of the Type of Situation

The situations requiring the subjects to issue the SAs in Part 2 of the test (See Appendix 2) are designed to fall into five types in terms of the factors of **solidarity**, **status** and **distance**. These five types can be described as follows:

- A. The speaker talks to a familiar inferior with whom s/he has a solidary power relationship.
- B. The speaker talks to a familiar superior with whom s/he has a non-solidary power relationship.
- C. The speaker talks to a familiar inferior with whom s/he has a non-solidary power relationship.
- D. The speaker talks to a familiar superior with whom s/he has a solidary power relationship.
- E. The speaker talks to a familiar equal with whom s/he has a solidary power relationship.

4.2.2.2.1 Analysis of the Use of SAs Strategies in Type A Situations

The situations categorized within this type are represented by Situations (1), (2), (9), (13) and (22), (See Appendix 2 / Part 2). The situations can be described as follows:

Sit. 1: A father angrily threatens his little son who has lied to him.

Sit. 2: A brother advises his younger brother of how to get rid of a headache he is suffering from.

Sit. 9: A father obliges his son who coughs a lot to do something about his cough.

Sit. 13: A brother forbids his younger brother from using his cell-phone.

Sit. 22: A mum addresses one of her sons thinking that her other son is probably studying in his room.

Table (17) below describes the subjects' performance of SAs in terms of strategies which are presented in percentages. The analysis reveals that NESs allow for if-conditionals strategy to appear in their performance when issuing the SA of threatening. Consider the following examples:

Sit. 1 - NES

1. If you lie to me again, I'll punish you.
2. I'll be disappointed and punish you if you ever lie again.

Iraqi learners' behaviour in the same situation reveals that they employ performative expression and modal verb strategies. Examples are the following:

Sit. 1 – Iraqi learners

3. I threaten you not to do it again.
4. You should not lie again.

Their use of the above strategies can be taken as a strong indicator that it is deviant from that of the natives.

In Situation (2), NESs manifest two different kinds of behaviour: modal verb strategy and unmarked construction strategy. However, they prefer to employ the modal verb strategy more than the unmarked construction strategy for issuing the SA of advising. Consider the following examples:

Sit. 2- NES

5. You should take an aspirin and drink some water.
6. I always drink water and take a nap when I have headache.

By contrast, the percentages of the strategies used by Iraqi learners are equally distributed over performative expression and modal verb strategies. Examples are the following:

Sit. 2- Iraqi learners

7. I advise you to take medicine.
8. You can have some rest.

Thus, Iraqi learners also reveal that they violate the rules of English use in this type of situation since they employ a performative expression strategy which is not appealed to by the natives.

As for Situation (9), NESs employ a modal verb and an unmarked construction strategies to issue the SA of obligation. Examples are the following:

Sit. 9 - NES

9. You should get that cough checked out.
10. I'm taking you to the doctor tomorrow.

As far as Iraqi learners' performance in this situation is concerned, they show full preference to the modal verb strategy. Examples are the following:

Sit. 9 – Iraqi learners

11. You must go to the doctor.

12. You should see doctor, my son.

Consequently, it is valid to say that the learners are unaware of using unmarked construction strategy which is allowed by the natives in this type of situation.

Table (17)

Percentage of Using SA Strategies in Situations Where Speaker Talks to a Familiar Inferior with Whom s/he has a Solidary Power Relationship

| Sit. No | Group | Marked constructions | | | Unmarked constructions |
|---------|-----------|-------------------------|-------|----------------|------------------------|
| | | Explicit performative | Modal | If conditional | |
| | | Performative expression | | | |
| 1 | Iraqi EFL | 60 | 40 | - | - |
| | NES | - | - | 100 | - |
| 2 | Iraqi EFL | 50 | 50 | - | - |
| | NES | - | 80 | - | 20 |
| 9 | Iraqi EFL | - | 100 | - | - |
| | NES | - | 60 | - | 40 |
| 13 | Iraqi EFL | 80 | 20 | - | - |
| | NES | 80 | 20 | - | - |
| 22 | Iraqi EFL | - | 100 | - | - |
| | NES | 60 | 40 | - | - |

In Situation (13), both groups use the same type of strategies. Consider the following examples:

Sit. 13- NES

13. I forbid you from using my cell phone.

14. I will not give you my cell-phone.

Sit. 13- Iraqi learners

15. I prohibit you to use my mobile.

16. You must not use it.

Table (17) and examples (15) and (16) above manifest that Iraqi learners are aware to the use of performative expression and modal verb strategies respectively. Thus, they signal an aspect of appropriate use when compared to NESs' performance (examples 13 and 14).

In Situation (22), as Table (17) reveals, NESs show more preference to performative expression strategy than modal verb strategy for issuing the SA of probability. The following are some illustrative examples:

Sit. 22- NES

17. He is probably studying in his room.

18. Joe might be studying.

By contrast, the learners reveal full preference for modal verb strategy in this type of situation. Examples are the following:

Sit. 22- Iraqi learners

19. He may be reading now.

20. He might be studying in his room.

Hence, Iraqi EFL learners this time do not reveal any tendency to use the performative expression strategy which is allowed to appear by the natives.

One can conclude that in Type A situations, the learners show a greater preference for using declaratives characterized by performative expressions than other types of declaratives, which verifies the fourth hypothesis made in Chapter One of this study.

4.2.2.2.2 Analysis of the Use of SAs Strategies in Type B Situations

Type B involves three situations of Part 2 of the test: Situations (3) , (17) and (25) (See Appendix 2 / Part 2) which can be described as follows:

Sit. 3: An employee, who works in a big firm, wants to say good - bye to his boss after finishing his work.

Sit. 17: A girl student apologizes to her school teacher because she steps on his foot in a party.

Sit. 25: A primary school boy asks for his teacher's permission to go to the bathroom.

The strategies used by NESs and Iraqi learners are presented in Table (18) below which describes them in terms of percentages. The analysis reveals that NESs show full preference for the modal verb strategy to issue the SA of leaving-off in Situation (3) .Consider the following examples:

Sit. 3-NES

21. I will see you tomorrow.

22. I will see you in the morning, boss.

Iraqi learners show a similar behaviour to that of the natives by employing the same type of strategy in this situation. Examples are the following:

Sit. 3- Iraqi learners:

23. I will see you.

24. I will see you later.

This can be taken as an indicator that the learners' performance here is characterized by appropriateness of use. However, it lacks the right degree of politeness since the linguistic expressions used by them are characterized by the absence of formality features (e.g., the absence of using of addressed terms such as "boss").

The analysis also reveals that NESs as well as Iraqi learners show full preference for performative expression strategy in response to Situation (17) to issue the SA of apology. Consider the following examples:

Sit. 17-NES

25. I am sorry for stepping on your foot.

26. I am so sorry.

Sit. 17 – Iraqi learners

27. I'm sorry.

28. I am terribly sorry.

Thus, it is valid to conclude that Iraqi EFL learners have enough awareness to the use of the appropriate strategy for expressing apology in this type of situation.

Table (18)

Percentages of Using SA Strategies in Situations When a Speaker Talks to a Familiar Superior with whom s/he has a Non-Solidary Power Relationship

| Sit. No | Group | Marked constructions | | | | | Unmarked constructions |
|---------|-----------|-------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|----------------|-------|------------------------|
| | | Explicit performative | | | Wants or likes | Modal | |
| | | Performative expression | Hedged performative | Nominalized performative | | | |
| 3 | Iraqi EFL | - | - | - | - | 100 | - |
| | NES | - | - | - | - | 100 | - |
| 17 | Iraqi EFL | 100 | - | - | - | - | - |
| | NES | 100 | - | - | - | - | - |
| 25 | Iraqi EFL | 80 | - | 20 | - | - | - |
| | NES | - | - | 70 | 30 | - | - |

The results in Table (18) above reveal that NESs use nominalized performative and ‘wants’ strategies to issue the SA of permission in Situation (25). Examples are the following:

Sit. 25- NES

29. I request permission to use the bathroom.

30. I need to tinkle.

Contrarily, the learners appeal to performative expression and nominalized performative strategies to issue the same SA. Consider the following examples:

Sit. 25 – Iraqi learners

31. *I permit you to go to the bathroom.

32. I ask your permission to go to the bathroom.

Example (31) is characterized by the use of performative expression "permit" but it shows that the learner gives permission rather than ask for it which is an incorrect functional use and this does not meet what is required by the same situation in the test (See Appendix 2). The asterisk is used here to indicate a pragmatic failure.

The learners' behaviour in Situation (25) can be considered inappropriate since it does not resemble that of the natives.

4.2.2.2.3 Analysis of the Use of SAs Strategies in Type C Situations

This type of situations includes two situations of Part 2 of the test: (4) and (14). The following is a description of each of them:

Sit. 4: A company manager requests his accountant to check the company balance for him.

Sit. 14: A company manager commands his secretary to type a report for him.

The subjects' use of SAs strategies in this type of situations is illustrated in percentages in Table (19) below.

The analysis of the responses to Situation (4) manifests that NESs allow for both performative expression and 'wants' strategies to appear in their performance for issuing the SA of requesting. Consider the following examples:

Sit. 4- NES:

33. I request you to check the company balance, please.

34. I need you to tell me the company balance.

Iraqi EFL learners' behaviour in the same situation reveals that they appeal only to the performative expression strategy. Consider the following examples:

Sit. 4- Iraqi Learners

35. I request you to check the company balance.

36. I request you to tell me the company balance.

Table (19)

Percentages of Using SA Strategies in Situations when a Speaker talks to a Familiar Inferior with whom s/he has a Non-Solidary Power Relationship

| Sit. No | Group | Marked constructions | | | | | Unmarked constructions |
|---------|-----------|-------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|----------------|-------|------------------------|
| | | Explicit performative | | | Wants or likes | Modal | |
| | | Performative expression | Hedged performative | Nominalized performative | | | |
| 4 | Iraqi EFL | 100 | - | - | - | - | - |
| | NES | 40 | - | - | 60 | - | - |
| 14 | Iraqi EFL | 80 | - | - | - | 20 | - |
| | NES | - | - | - | 100 | - | - |

In responding to Situation (14), the members of the control group show full agreement on the choice of 'wants' strategy indicating that it is the most acceptable one for issuing command in this type of situation. Consider the following examples:

Sit. 14- NES:

37. I need this report by 4.00 p.m. today.

38. I need you to type this up by 4 o'clock.

As far as Iraqi learners' performance in this situation, the analysis of the data reveals that, in addition to the use of a performative expression strategy, they allow for a modal verb strategy to characterize their behaviour. The two aspects of the learners' behaviour do not match that of the natives. Examples are the following:

Sit. 14- Iraqi learners

39. I command you to type this report.

40. You must do it now.

As a result, Iraqi EFL learners in Type C situations show a greater tendency towards using a performative expression strategy than using other types of strategies. This accords with the third and fourth hypotheses mentioned in Chapter One of this study.

4.2.2.2.4 Analysis of the Use of SAs Strategies in Type D Situations

The situations which are involved in this type are (12) and (23) in Part 2 of the test (See Appendix 2). These two situations can be described as follows:

Sit. 12: A son thanks his dad who bought him a gift for his birthday.

Sit. 23: A girl draws a conclusion to her father after she hears the noise of a TV movie in her neighbours' house.

The strategies used by NESs and Iraqi learners are described in terms of percentages in Table (20) below. The analysis of the data reveals that NESs show full preference for performative expression strategy for issuing the SA of thanking in Situation (12). Consider the following examples:

Sit. 12-NES

41. I thank you for the playstation.

42. I'm thankful for the gift, dad.

By contrast, Iraqi learners employ a variety of strategies such as performative expression, hedged performative and nominalized performative which are all characterized by explicit performativity, i.e., they have features which clearly indicate the SA performed. Consider the following examples:

Sit. 12- Iraqi learners

43. I'm grateful to you, father.

44. I would like to thank you.

45. I express my thankfulness.

However, the learners' use of hedged performative and nominalized performative strategies is not characterized by the right degree of appropriateness since it is not favoured by NESs.

Table (20)**Percentages of Using SA Strategies in Situation when a speaker Talks to a Familiar Superior with whom s/he has a Solidary Power Relationship**

| Sit. No | Group | Marked constructions | | | | Unmarked constructions |
|---------|-----------|-------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|-------|------------------------|
| | | Explicit performative | | | Modal | |
| | | Performative expression | Hedged performative | Nominalized performative | | |
| 12 | Iraqi EFL | 60 | 30 | 10 | - | - |
| | NES | 100 | - | - | - | - |
| 23 | Iraqi EFL | - | - | - | 100 | - |
| | NES | - | - | - | 60 | 40 |

NESs employ a modal verb strategy and an unmarked construction strategy for issuing the SA of concluding in Situation (23). Consider the following examples:

Sit. 23- NES:

46. Our neighbour must be watching a movie.

47. My neighbour is having a movie night.

Contrarily, Iraqi learners, according to Table (20) above, show full preference to the modal verb strategy. Consider the following examples:

Sit. 23- Iraqi learners

48. They must be having a party.

49. They should be watching TV.

As a result, Iraqi EFL learners in Type D situations show a greater tendency towards using a modal verb strategy and a performative expression strategy than using other types of strategies. This accords with the third hypothesis mentioned in Chapter One of this study.

4.2.2.2.5 Analysis of the Use of SAs Strategies in Type E Situations

This type involves situations (5) , (6) , (7) , (8) , (10) , (11) , (15) , (16) , (18) , (19) , (20) , (21) and (24) of Part 2 of the test (See Appendix 2). They can be described as follows:

Sit. 5: Someone meets his close friend and greets him.

Sit. 6: Someone encourages his friend to give up smoking.

Sit. 7: Someone congratulates a couple who have already got engaged.

Sit. 8: Someone warns his cousin about a bull which starts gazing at them.

- Sit. 10:** A mother suggests to her husband to take their daughter with them to visit their relatives.
- Sit. 11:** Someone invites his close friend to the café to have some hot drink.
- Sit. 15:** Someone offers to help his friend to move a heavy table from one place to another.
- Sit. 16:** A girl, who is trying to sleep, complains to her room-mate whom she makes the TV so loud.
- Sit. 18:** Someone promises his friend to visit him again very soon.
- Sit. 19:** A girl compliments her friend whom has made a new haircut.
- Sit. 20:** A girl makes a statement to her friend about the difficult questions of the chemistry exam.
- Sit. 21:** A girl introduces her friend to her sister.
- Sit. 24:** Someone expresses his certainty to his friend whom he will get a promotion very soon.

The strategies used by NESs and Iraqi learners are presented in Table (21) below which describes them in terms of percentages. The analysis reveals that NESs show full preference for an unmarked construction strategy in response to Situation (5). Their agreement of using this strategy can be interpreted as an "acceptability judgment" (Cf Kulka, 1983: 50). Consider the following examples:

Sit. 5- NES

50. I'm glad to see you, George.
51. I'm surprised to see you here.

As far as Iraqi learners' performance is concerned, they also show full agreement on the choice of an unmarked construction strategy. Example is the following:

Sit. 5- Iraqi learners

52. I am happy to see you.

53. It is good to see you.

The learners' use of this strategy is appropriate since it is favoured by the natives as well.

The analysis also reveals that NESs themselves allow for modal verb and if-conditional strategies to appear in their performance when expressing the SA of encouraging in Situation (6). Consider the following examples:

Sit. 6- NES

54. Conley, you should give up smoking.

55. I know you can do it if you try.

As for Iraqi learners, they prefer to use only performative expression strategy. Consider the following example:

Sit. 6- Iraqi Learners

56. I encourage you to leave smoking.

Consequently, the learners' performance is characterized by inappropriateness because their use of performative expression strategy is not preferred by the natives.

Moreover, Table (21) below shows that NESs employ a variety of strategies, i.e., performative expression, nominalized performative and unmarked construction, to express the SA of congratulating in Situation (7). Consider the following examples:

Sit. 7- NES

- 57. I congratulate you on your engagement.
- 58. I offer my congratulations on the engagement.
- 59. I'm so excited for both of you.

On the other hand, the learners appeal to only one strategy, i.e., performative expression. Consider the following example:

Sit. 7- Iraqi learners

- 60. I congratulate you.
- 61. I congratulate both of you.

The comparison above indicates that Iraqi learners' performance approximates, in one of its aspects, i.e., the use of performative expression strategy, NESs'. However, they do not seem to be aware that other strategies, like nominalized performative and unmarked construction, can also be employed in this type of situation.

The results in Table (21) below reveal that NESs prefer using a modal verb strategy to a hedged performative one to issue the SA of warning in Situation (8). Consider the following examples:

Sit. 8-NES

62. We should not go near that bull.

63. We should watch out of that bull.

As far as Iraqi learners' performance in this situation is concerned, they employ a performative expression strategy which is not present in the natives' performance. So, their employment is inappropriate one. Consider the following example:

Sit. 8-Iraqi Learners

64. I warn you we are standing close to the bull.

In Situation (10), NESs manifest one kind of behaviour in this type of situation. They employ a modal verb strategy to issue the SA of suggesting. Examples are the following:

Sit. 10- NES

65. It would be good for Mary to see her cousins.

66. I would like to take Mary with us.

By contrast, Iraqi learners show full preference to a performative expression strategy to issue the same SA. Consider the following example:

Sit. 10- Iraqi learners

67. I suggest we take her with us.

Consequently, it is valid to say that the learners manifest a violation of the target language acceptability norms by choosing a strategy which is not employed by NESs.

In Situation (11), the analysis reveals that NESs prefer a hedged performative strategy to a modal verb strategy to issue the SA of inviting. Consider the following examples:

Sit. 11- NES

68. I would like to invite you for a cup of coffee.

69. We should check out the café.

Iraqi learners' appeal to a performative expression strategy which is not present in the natives' performance shows their inappropriate employment. Their use of hedged performative strategy is less than that of the natives which can be taken as an indicator of their weak awareness to use this strategy. Consider the following examples:

Sit. 11- Iraqi learners

70. I invite you to the café.

71. I would like to invite you to have cup of tea.

The analysis also reveals that NESs show full preference to a modal verb strategy to issue the SA of offering in Situation (15). Consider the following examples:

Sit. 15- NES

72. I will give you a hand with that table.

73. I will help you move that table.

As for Iraqi learner's, the analysis of the data reveals that they employ a performative expression strategy which is not appealed to by the natives. They also, according to Table (21) below, manifest awareness to the use of a modal verb strategy which signals an aspect of appropriate use.

Sit. 15- Iraqi learners

74. I offer you my help.

75. I will carry this table with you.

Table (21)

Percentages of Using SA strategies in Situations when a Speaker Talks to a Familiar Equal with whom s/he has Solidary Power Relationship

| Sit. No | Group | Marked constructions | | | | | Unmarked constructions |
|---------|-----------|-------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|-------|----------------|------------------------|
| | | Explicit performative | | | Modal | If conditional | |
| | | Performative expression | Hedged performative | Nominalized Performative | | | |
| 5 | Iraqi EFL | - | - | - | - | - | 100 |
| | NES | - | - | - | - | - | 100 |
| 6 | Iraqi EFL | 100 | - | - | - | - | - |
| | NES | - | - | - | 80 | 20 | - |
| 7 | Iraqi EFL | 100 | - | - | - | - | - |
| | NES | 60 | - | 20 | - | - | 20 |
| 8 | Iraqi EFL | 100 | - | - | - | - | - |
| | NES | - | 20 | - | 80 | - | - |

| | | | | | | | |
|----|-----------|-----|-----|---|-----|---|-----|
| 10 | Iraqi EFL | 100 | - | - | - | - | - |
| | NES | - | - | - | 100 | - | - |
| 11 | Iraqi EFL | 90 | 10 | - | - | - | - |
| | NES | - | 80 | - | 20 | - | - |
| 15 | Iraqi EFL | 20 | - | - | 80 | - | - |
| | NES | - | - | - | 100 | - | - |
| 16 | Iraqi EFL | - | - | - | - | - | 100 |
| | NES | - | - | - | - | - | 100 |
| 18 | Iraqi EFL | 100 | - | - | - | - | - |
| | NES | - | - | - | 100 | - | - |
| 19 | Iraqi EFL | - | - | - | - | - | 100 |
| | NES | - | - | - | - | - | 100 |
| 20 | Iraqi EFL | - | - | - | - | - | 100 |
| | NES | - | - | - | - | - | 100 |
| 21 | Iraqi EFL | 50 | 50 | - | - | - | - |
| | NES | - | 100 | - | - | - | - |
| 24 | Iraqi EFL | 100 | - | - | - | - | - |
| | NES | 100 | - | - | - | - | - |

In responding to Situation (16), the members of the control group show full agreement on the choice of unmarked construction strategy indicating that it is the most acceptable one for issuing the SA of complaining in this type of situation. Consider the following examples:

Sit. 16- NES

76. Your TV volume is entirely too loud.

77. It is hard to sleep with the TV so loud.

Iraqi EFL learners' behaviour in this situation resembles that of the natives since they employ the same strategy.

Sit. 16- Iraqi learners

78. The TV is very loud.

The comparison above indicates that Iraqi learners show right awareness to the use of unmarked construction strategy to issue the SA of complaining since this strategy is favoured by the natives.

Again, it seems that the type of SA has a sort of influence on the choice of the strategy, specially unmarked construction strategy. Sometimes, this influence is more obvious than that of other contextual factors.

Concerning Situation (18), NESs show full preference to a modal verb strategy for issuing the SA of promising. Consider the following examples:

Sit. 18- NES

79. I will visit you again soon, my friend.

80. I will come back soon.

By contrast, Iraqi learners employ a performative expression strategy. Consider the following examples:

Sit. 18-Iraqi learners

81. I promise you I will visit you in another time.

82. I promise you to come soon.

The comparison above shows that Iraqi learners' performance does not match that of the natives which indicates a lack of awareness of what appropriately to do in such a type of situation. This might be a reflection of their behaviour in their native language as they use performative expression strategy in such a situation.

In Situation (19), NESs manifest one kind of behaviour when they employ an unmarked construction strategy to issue the SA of complimenting. Consider the following examples:

Sit. 19- NES

83. I like your new haircut.

84. I really like your hair.

As far as Iraqi learners' performance in this situation is concerned, they prefer to use the same above strategy. The examples are the following:

Sit. 19- Iraqi learners

85. Your haircut is nice.

This indicates that the learners' behaviour here is appropriate enough since it matches that of the natives.

The results in Table (21) above reveal that NESs appeal to an unmarked construction strategy to express the SA of stating in Situation (20). Examples are the following:

Sit. 20-NES

86. The test was really difficult.

87. The test was one of the toughest tests I've taken.

As far as Iraqi learners' performance in this situation is concerned, they employ the same strategy which is appealed to by the natives. Consider the following examples:

Sit. 20- Iraqi learners:

88. The questions are very difficult.

89. The level of the questions is so difficult.

The analysis, in Situation (21), reveals that NESs use a hedged performative strategy to express the SA of introducing. Examples are the following:

Sit. 21- NES

90. I would like you to meet my sister, Jessica.

91. I would like to introduce my sister Jessica.

For Iraqi learners, they employ hedged performative strategy which can be taken as an indicator of their awareness of this strategy. They also reveal a kind of appeal to a performative expression strategy. Consider the following examples:

Sit. 21- Iraqi learners

92. I would like to introduce my sister, Jessica.

93. I introduce my sister to you.

The learners' employment of a performative expression strategy is inappropriate since it is not employed by the natives.

In Situation (24), NESs employ a performative expression strategy to issue the SA of certainty. Examples are the following:

Sit. 24- NES

94. I am certain you will get promoted soon.

95. I am sure that you will get promoted soon.

As far as Iraqi learners' performance is concerned, they also show full agreement on the choice of a performative expression strategy. Consider the following example:

Sit. 24- Iraqi learners

96. I'm sure you'll be promoted very soon.

97. I'm sure you will get your promotion.

This indicates that the learners' behaviour here is appropriate enough since it matches that of the natives.

Finally, the analysis of using such strategies in Type E situations verifies the third hypothesis made in Chapter One of this study.

Chapter Five

Conclusions, Recommendations and Suggestions

This chapter attempts firstly to provide conclusions that are based on the analysis of data performed in the previous chapter. In the light of these conclusions, some recommendations are introduced. Finally, suggestions for further studies are offered.

5.1 Conclusions

The conclusions made here are related to Iraqi EFL undergraduate informants' performance at Part 1 and Part 2 of the test. Those associated with the subjects' behaviour at Part 2 pertain to the employment of SAs strategies expressed by the declaratives.

5.1.1 The Learners' Performance at Part 1 of the Test

Several conclusions that might summarize the Iraqi EFL undergraduate informants at this level can be introduced here:

1. Iraqi EFL learners recognize the SAs expressed by marked constructions better than those expressed by unmarked ones.
2. The learners' performance is more influenced by the type of SA than by the contextual factors. This is obvious from the fact that the learners' ability to identify the intended SAs out of a set of options is better than theirs when options are not given.
3. The learners are more successful in identifying SAs issued by declaratives characterized by performative expressions than other types of declaratives.

4. The learners' success in identifying the intended SA in Sections A and B depends to a large extent on the degree of the explicitness of the performative expression used. The more explicit the expression is, the more successful the learners are in recognizing the intended SA.
5. As far as the learners' behaviour in relation to the use of hedged performative to express SA, their central behaviour tendency classifies them as "very good users" at the recognition level and "extremely limited users" at the production level.
6. The learners' ability to identify SA expressed by means of the modals with the absence of any performative expression is not successful and the learners can be described as "extremely limited users " in this regard.
7. The learners' performance concerned with their identification of SA expressed by means of "if-conditionals" is unsuccessful and ranges between "extremely limited users" and "marginal users". Surprisingly, their behaviour at the production level is better than theirs at the recognition one.
8. In Section A, the subjects recognize the SA expressed by nominalized performative strategy better than those expressed by other strategies.
9. In Section B, the subjects recognize the type of SA expressed by performative expression strategy better than those expressed by other strategies.

5.1.2 The Learners' Performance at Part 2 of the Test

The students' behaviour at this level as compared with that of NESs leads to various conclusions listed as follows:

1. Iraqi EFL learners have developed insufficient awareness of equal importance of using all types of strategies in performing the different types of SAs in English.
2. The learners show greater preference for using performative expression strategy rather than the other types of strategies in most of the situations. They employ this strategy in (18) situations while NESs use it only in (7) situations.
3. The learners have serious problems in their attempts to match the natives' choice of the appropriate strategy. They either show less preference for the strategies used by the latter or employ strategies which are unfavoured by them. So, their performance turns either insufficiently appropriate or entirely inappropriate.
4. Mostly, the contextual factors have no significant influence on the learners' choice of strategies.
5. In Type A situations, the learners prefer using performative expression strategy while the natives vary their use of the type of strategy according to the context of situation.
6. Iraqi learners, in Type B situations, show similar behaviour to that of the natives by employing the same type of strategy in Situations (3) and (17); However, their behaviour here is sometimes characterized by the absence of the right degree of politeness. In Situation (25), their behaviour is considered inappropriate because it does not match that of the natives.

7. NESs allow for using "**wants**" strategy in Type C situations but in different percentages while Iraqi learners do not reveal any tendency to use this strategy.
8. According to Type D situations, Iraqi learners employ hedged performative and nominalized performative strategies which are not favoured by the natives. NESs employ unmarked construction strategy which is not appealed to by the learners.
9. The learners show, according to Type E situations, full agreement with that of the natives by employing unmarked construction strategy in Situations (5), (16), (19) and (20). They also show full agreement with them by using performative expression strategy in Situation (24).

5.2 Pedagogical Recommendations

It is recommended that:

1. Iraqi learners at pre-university and university levels are recommended to be involved in interactional discourse activities that lead to increasing their awareness to the role of the contextual factors in choosing the appropriate type of strategy. This can be achieved through designing teaching materials which incorporate sociocultural requirements about the use of the target language.
2. To help the learners develop awareness to the equal importance of using all types of strategies and to put more appropriate choices at their disposal, it is recommended that the scope of SA strategies should be extended at the pre-university level and can be incorporated in the teaching materials.

3. To enhance the learners' awareness to the socio-pragmatic rules of English, teachers are recommended to give them enough attention during the classroom communicative encounters rejecting any violation noticed.
4. Students should be given enough opportunity to practise the various constructions of the declarative that express the SAs especially in conversation and composition.

5.3 Suggestions for Further Research

1. A study can be conducted to investigate the role of other linguistic and para-linguistic factors in determining the intended illocutionary force of the English declaratives such as stress factor, intonational factor, the psychological factor, the facial expression factor, etc.
2. Another study can also be conducted to investigate the role of the discussed factors and other factors in determining the illocutionary force of other linguistic forms such as the imperative forms.
3. A study can be done about the SAs expressed by the declaratives using conversational spoken data.
4. A contrastive study between English and Arabic can be carried out to show the similarities and differences between the two languages as far as the SAs performed by the English declaratives are concerned.

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Appendix 1
Letters to Jury Members
and
Native English Speakers

This appendix is of two sections. The first of which introduces the letter sent to the jury members in this study while the second one presents the letter sent to the native English speakers.

A) The Letter Sent to the Jury Members

University of Babylon
College of Education
Department of English
Higher Studies

Dear Sirs,

The test attached to this letter is intended to provide data about: 1) Iraqi EFL learners' ability to recognize the intended speech act conveyed by the declarative sentence from other related ones when choices are given. 2) Their ability to recognize the type of speech act expressed by the utterance in each situation when options are not given. 3) The strategies adopted by the learners for performing the speech acts by means of declaratives according to certain contextual factors.

The test falls into two parts. Part 1 is subdivided into two sections. Section A tests recognition while section B takes the form of a production. Part 1 is concerned with the first two objectives. Part 2 which takes the form of an elicitation technique is intended to fulfil the last objective.

The contextual factors that have been taken into account in building up the situations of both parts of the test include: status, distance, and solidarity of power. The task is intended to involve undergraduate students. The students will be represented by fourth-year students of the Department of English of the College of Education of University of Al-Qadisiya.

You are kindly requested to give your opinion of the validity of the test by:

- 1-indicating the suitability of the techniques used.
- 2-indicating the suitability of each item.
- 3-suggesting any changes or modifications.

Thank you in advance

Hisham A. Al-Ka'bi
M.A Student in English
Language and Linguistics

B) The Letter Sent to the Native English Speakers :

Higher Studies
Dept. of English,
College of Education,
Babylon University,
Hilla Governorate,
Iraq.
25th of January, 2009

Dear native speaker,

The test attached to this letter is a procedure adopted by the researcher to investigate the way Iraqi learners of English as a foreign language to recognize and issue the speech acts (i.e., communicative functions) expressed by the declaratives. Your responses will be taken as a scale according to which the learners' answers will be analyzed. Hence, you are kindly requested to respond spontaneously to the test taking the situations involved in it as real life conversational ones.

Thank you very much for your co-operation

Hisham A. Al-Ka'bi
M.A Student

Appendix 2

The Test

This appendix introduces the version of the test which was submitted to the informants. The natives, however, were involved only in part 2 of the same version.

Part One

Section (A): Recognition of Speech Acts

Read the following situations carefully and choose what you believe to be the intended speech act conveyed by the given utterance:

| | Situation | Utterance | Speech Acts |
|---|--|--|--|
| 1 | Bob is visiting his colleague Peter in his new flat .Peter has not furnished the sitting-room yet. Getting a chair requires borrowing one from the next door flat. Peter says: | -I will bring you a chair from my neighbour. | a- inviting b- offering c- stating d- promising |
| 2 | While Susan is talking to her girlfriend on the phone, her younger sister, Cyndy, plays the guitar close to her. Susan angrily looks at her and says: | Cyndy,I can HARDLY hear any WORD. | a- suggestion b- stating c- commanding d- warning |
| 3 | A college-student attempts to make a point about the new instructor and softly addresses his classmate : | - He is a little bit short. | a- stating b- requesting c- mocking d- suggesting |
| 4 | A college-student attempts to make a point about the new instructor and sarcastically addresses his classmate : | - He is a little bit short. | a- stating b- requesting c- mocking a- suggesting |
| 5 | In the middle of a battle, a soldier notices that one of his friends gets scared. He gently says to him : | -You are a MAN. | a- criticizing b- stating c- encouraging d- blaming |
| 6 | A travel agent addresses a passenger who seems to be worried that he might not arrive at his destination on time: | - My advice to you is to take the express train. | a- offering b- inviting c- advising d- stating |
| 7 | A professor discovers that one of his students has not delivered his assignment though it is due the next day. He softly addresses his student: | -I suppose you are aware that the DEADLINE to deliver your assignment is TOMORROW. | a- warning b- criticizing c- blaming d- stating |

| | | | |
|----|---|--|--|
| 8 | A professor discovers that one of his students has not delivered his assignment though it is due the next day. He angrily addresses his student: | -I suppose you are aware that the DEADLINE to deliver your assignment is TOMORROW. | a- warning b- criticizing c- blaming d- stating |
| 9 | Ron happily addresses his girlfriend who is wearing a blazer. | - That's a very nice blazer. | a- stating b- complimenting c- suggesting d- concluding |
| 10 | A furious director addresses his secretary who has not remind him of the date of an important meeting: | - You will be fired if you do it again. | a- stating b- warning c- promising d- threatening |
| 11 | At 10.00 a.m., Nicolas is helping his friend in tidying up the sitting-room. While Nicolas is doing his job, his father phones him for something urgent. He feels obliged to leave, so he says: | -I promise that I will come back in the afternoon. | a- promising b- stating c- suggestion d- apologizing |
| 12 | In a medical clinic, a doctor addresses one of his patients who has been taking a certain medicine for three months. | -You must STOP taking this MEDICINE. | a- advising b- prohibiting c- stating d- concluding |
| 13 | Lucy borrows a digital camera from her friend, Ashley, to take some pictures for her birthday. But she has unfortunately lost it somewhere. She addresses Ashley: | -I'm awfully sorry for losing it, but it seems that I was very negligent. | a- stating b- criticizing c- apologizing d- blaming |
| 14 | A wrestling team is doing physical exercises in the gym. The coach notices that some of the wrestlers get very tired. He says to them: | -You can have a rest. | a- stating b- advising c- permitting d- suggesting |
| 15 | William has received a letter from a friend of his. He notices that his younger brother tries to open the letter and read it, so he says: | -You are not allowed to do that. | a- prohibiting b- stating c- warning d- blaming |
| 16 | Michael calls his friend to help him fix his laptop. His friend replies: | -I'll come this afternoon. | a- stating b- suggesting c- promising d- offering |
| 17 | Robert finds out that his little sister plays in his room and reads his private diary. He angrily says: | - I order you to LEAVE right now. | a- warning b- suggesting c- stating d- commanding |

| | | | |
|----|---|--|---|
| 18 | Pamela talks to her friend, Cyndy, on the phone. Cyndy feels bored and upset, so Pamela says: | - I should like to suggest going to the cinema. | a- suggesting b- stating c- advising d- inviting |
| 19 | Dolph calls his friend Alex to come home to fix his computer. He says: | -I'd like to request you to help me fix my computer. | a- Showing preference b- promising c- requesting d- stating |
| 20 | Mulany accidentally meets his friend in the street, While discussing where to go, he says: | - My suggestion is that we go to the amusement park. | a- stating b- suggesting c- expressing opinion d- warning |
| 21 | Natalie is visiting her cousin, Mary, at the countryside. Mary notices that Natalie is standing close to the bull, so she says: | -I warn you you are standing close to the bull. | a- warning b- stating c- criticizing d- threatening |
| 22 | A father talks to his son who seems very fatigued: | - You'd better go to bed now. | a- reproaching b- inviting c- advising d- stating |
| 23 | Denis meets her friend Cathy down town. Denis says: | - It's good to see you. | a- stating b- complimenting c- greeting d- inviting |
| 24 | George sees black clouds in the sky. He says to his friend: | -I expect it will rain. | a- expressing probability b- concluding c- expressing opinion d- stating |
| 25 | Jimmy is driving his car so fast. His friend, Jack, who is sitting next to him, is sure that Jimmy will have an accident one day. He addresses him: | -I'm sure you'll have an accident one day. | a- stating b-expressing probability c-expressing certainty d-concluding |

Section (B): Production of Speech Acts

Identify the speech act which is issued by the utterances in each situation:

| | Situation | Utterance | Speech Act |
|---|--|---|------------|
| 1 | A deputy trading company manager is heading a company meeting during the absence of his boss. He makes the right decision of terminating an important contract with a foreign company. His boss says to him: | -You have made a good decision. | |
| 2 | (In a military drill).A platoon commander is monitoring crossing the river activity. He addresses his soldiers: | -Whoever crosses the river first will be rewarded. | |
| 3 | (In a dormitory).Brad and Greg are room-mates. Brad enters but he leaves the door open. Greg says to him: | -It might help to close the door. | |
| 4 | Alex has already passed the driving test. His close friend says: | - I congratulate you on passing your driving test. | |
| 5 | Mark is taking his friend, Mike, for a ride in his car. Mike addresses his friend: | -I'm so grateful to you. | |
| 6 | Frank is a rich merchant living in a big villa. He notices some dust on the living-room windows, so he calls for his servant addressing him: | -You mustn't forget cleaning the windows. | |
| 7 | Tim is a naughty ten-year-old-boy. His mother has taken his guitar for making too much noise, so he is obstinate and refuses to eat for one day. His mother angrily says: | -If you don't eat, you will be punished. | |
| 8 | Mike wants to buy a new car but he doesn't have enough money. When he calls his friend , Carl, to lend him some, Carl replies: | -I will meet you at your place at 10.00 o'clock tomorrow morning. | |
| 9 | Robert addresses his class-mate who wears a new jacket: | -You are looking very smart in that new jacket. | |

| | Situation | Utterance | Speech Act |
|----|--|--|-------------------|
| 10 | Andy talks to his friend, Sam, about their friend, Albert, who has been lately dishonest: | -I think you should forgive him. | |
| 11 | The interrogator, Sam, is questioning a criminal in a police department. Sam realizes that the criminal conceals important facts, so he addresses him: | -I advise you to comply with the law and tell the truth. | |
| 12 | Frank and James are university students. They are waiting for the bus. Unfortunately, the bus is late and the lecture is about to begin. Frank says: | - I suggest we take a taxi. | |
| 13 | Leo is taking his wife in the afternoon. While they are strolling together, his wife says: | -The weather is so beautiful today. | |
| 14 | Smith notices that the sitting-room windows are dirty, so he addresses his little brother: | -I have to order you to clean the windows today. | |
| 15 | A housewife addresses her maid: | -The floor needs cleaning. | |
| 16 | (In a dormitory). Jean is addressing her room-mate who is sitting beside a closed window: | -It is hot in here. | |
| 17 | (In a software company).Jenny is a program designer. She is very smart and hard working employee. Her work-mate says to her: | -I'm sure you'll soon get promoted. | |
| 18 | Laramie, who needs to focus on his study, is very upset because his older brother is turning the radio up. He addresses his father: | -That radio is terribly loud. | |
| 19 | A hospital manger notices that one of the patients smokes in the main hall. He addresses him: | -You may not smoke in here. | |
| 20 | Diana is visiting her friend, Cathy, at her home. Diana feels that it is time for leaving. Her friend Cathy says: | -I'd like to ask you to stay a little longer. | |

| | Situation | Utterance | Speech Act |
|----|--|--|-------------------|
| 21 | Theodor, who lends \$1000 to a friend of his, is getting very angry because his friend refuses to give him back his money. He addresses him: | -If you don't give me my money back, I'll call the police. | |
| 22 | Roof notices that his brother, Michael, seems a bit out of sort today. He says to his mother: | -He must be unhappy. | |
| 23 | Katie is a secretary in a construction company. She cannot attend the meeting tomorrow because she has to see her husband off at the airport. She addresses her boss: | -I'm afraid I can't attend the meeting tomorrow. | |
| 24 | Spence has lent his next door neighbour some money and wants them back. Whenever he comes to his home to see him, he finds him out. Hopefully, he has managed to get his cell-phone number. He calls him and furiously says: | - I will come to your place tonight. | |
| 25 | Spence has lent his next door neighbour some money and wants them back. Whenever he comes to his home to see him, he finds him out. Hopefully, he has managed to get his cell-phone number. He calls him and softly says: | - I will come to your place tonight. | |

Part two**Production: Strategies Used for Expressing Speech Acts**

Use the declarative sentence to issue the speech act (SA) indicated in the following situations:

1. A father angrily addresses his little son who has lied to him: (SA of threatening)

2. Tom, who is 14 years old, is having a sever headache. His eldest brother wants to advise him to get rid of it. He says :(SA of advising)

3. Albert works in a big firm. At 4.00 p.m., he has finished his work and is ready to leave. He wants to say good-bye to his boss: (SA of leaving off)

4. A company manager, who is very concerned with the company balance, calls his accountant to check the balance. He addresses him: (AS of requesting)

5. On his way home, George meets his close friend by accident. He shakes hands with him and greets him: (SA of greeting)

6. Conley is a chain-smoker. His friend, Jackson is encouraging him to give up smoking. Jackson addresses Conley: (SA of encouraging)

7. The couple, Timmy and Cathy, has already got engaged. Their friend, Frank, would like to congratulate them. He says: (SA of congratulating)

8. Jonny is visiting his cousin, Robert, to the countryside. While they are walking together, they encounter a bull which starts gazing at them. Robert warns Jonny by saying: (SA of warning)

9. Denzel's father notices that his son coughs a lot. He addresses him: (SA of obligation)

10. Mr. and Mrs. Edward decide to visit their relatives. Their daughter , Mary, wishes to go out with them but her father refuses, Mary's mother feels sorry for her daughter, so she suggests to her husband: (SA of suggesting)

11. Seth and Don are close friends. On their way home on foot at a wintry night, they come cross a café. Seth points to the café and invites Tom: (AS of inviting)

12. Tony's dad has bought playstation 3 as a gift for his son's birthday. The son thanks his father by saying: (SA of thanking)

13. While Finley is trying to have some rest, his younger brother, Ted, wants to use his cell-phone but he doesn't want him to do that. He prohibits him by saying: (SA of prohibiting)

14. Catherine is a secretary in a software company. Her boss hands her a report. He needs the report to get typed at 4.00 p.m. He commands her by saying: (SA of commanding)

15. Kevin is trying to move a heavy table in his room to another place. His friend, Olsen, who is studying with him offer to help him. Olsen says: (SA of offering)

16. Alice is trying to sleep, but she cannot because her room-mate, Juliane, makes the TV so loud. She addresses Juliane : (SA of complaining)
-
17. Samantha is attending her friend's birthday party. While she is trying quickly to greet one of her friends, she steps on her teacher's foot. She apologizes to him by saying : (SA of apologizing)
-
18. Warren is visiting his friend, Thompson, to the countryside. He has stayed there for two days. He decides to come back home, but Thompson requests him to stay longer. Warren promises Thompson for another visit soon: (SA of promising)
-
19. Susan is attending a party at her friend's house. One of her friends notices Susan's new haircut. She compliments Susan by saying: (SA of complimenting)
-
20. Carmen is a secondary-school student doing her final exam in chemistry. The questions are rather difficult. After finishing the exam, she addresses her friend about the difficulty level of the questions: (SA of stating)
-
21. Witney is visiting her school-mate, Barbra, in her house. Barbara's sister, Jessica, enters the room. Barbara introduces her friend to her sister by saying: (SA of introducing)
-
22. Joe is not sitting with the family at the dinner table. His mum calls him but he does not reply. His mum thinks that Joe is studying in his room, so she says to her daughter: (SA of probability)
-

23. Jenny is a college student doing her assignment in her room. She hears the noise of a TV movie in her neighbour's house. She draws a conclusion to her father by saying : (SA of concluding)

24. Steve and Timothy are civil engineers in a construction company. Steve works hard doing his job in a perfect way. He also works overtime. His friend, Timothy, is certain that Steve will be promoted very soon. He addresses Steve by saying: (SA of expressing certainty)

25. Donald is a primary school boy. While sitting in the classroom, he feels that he needs to go to the bathroom. He asks for his teacher's permission by saying: (SA of permission)

Key to Vocabulary

Part One / Section A

| | | | |
|-------------|-------------|-----------|-------------|
| deadline | آخر موعد | wrestling | مصارعة |
| destination | مكان الوصول | gym | قاعة رياضية |
| blazer | سترة | deputy | نائب |
| negligent | مهمل | scared | خائف |

Part One / Section B

| | | | |
|-------------|-----------|-------------|----------|
| terminating | انهاء | conceal | يخفي |
| platoon | فصيل | comply with | يتمثل لـ |
| dormitory | قسم داخلي | naughty | مشاكس |

Part Two

| | | | |
|----------|----------------|--------------|-----------------------------|
| balance | الرصيد المتبقي | gorgeous | رائع و جذاب |
| wintry | شديد البرودة | chain-smoker | مدخن لا يتوقف عن التدخين |
| software | برامج (حاسوب) | bull | ثور |

NOTE: The capitalized words are stressed.

Appendix 3

The Jury of Experts

The Jury of experts consisted of the following members:

1. Professor Salih M. Hameed, Ph. D. in English Literature, College of Education, University of Babylon.
2. Assistant professor Abbas D. Darweesh, Ph. D. in Linguistics and Translation, College of Education, University of Babylon.
3. Assistant professor Adil A. Mahdi Al-Akkam, M.A. in English language and linguistics, College of Basic Education, University of Babylon.
4. Assistant professor Asim Abood Al-Duleimi , Ph. D. in Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language , College of Basic Education , University of Babylon.
5. Assistant professor Hameed H. Bjaya, Ph.D. in Linguistics and Translation, College of Education, University of Babylon.
6. Assistant professor Riyadh Tariq Kadhim Al-Ameedi, Ph.D. in Linguistics and Translation, College of Education, University of Babylon.
7. Assistant professor Razzaq N. Mukheef, M.A. in English Language and Linguistics, College of Education, University of Babylon.
8. Lecturer Jassim Mohammad Rehan , Ph.D. in Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language , College of Basic Education , University of Babylon.
9. Lecturer Maha Tahir Eesa, Ph.D. in Linguistics and Translation, College of Education, Al-Qadisiya University.
10. Lecturer Maysaa' K. Hussein, Ph.D. in English Language and Linguistics, College of Education, Al-Qadisiya University.

Appendix 4

The Statistical Method

This appendix introduces the Kurder-Richardson formula used for calculating the reliability of the test.

$$R = \frac{N}{N - 1} + \left(1 - \frac{m (N - m)}{N \times 2} \right)$$

Where

R = reliability

N = the number of items in the test

m = the mean of the test score

X = the standard deviation of the test scores

الخلاصة

تعنى هذه الدراسة باستخدام الطلبة العراقيين الذين يتعلمون اللغة الانجليزية بوصفها لغة أجنبية إنشاءات الكلام التي تعبر عنها الجمل الخبرية، إذ يمكن أداء كل أصناف إنشاءات الكلام باستعمال تلك الجمل.

وتهدف هذه الدراسة إلى (1) تقصي مقدرة طلبة الدراسات الأولية من متعلمي اللغة الانجليزية العراقيين على التمييز بين الأنواع المختلفة من إنشاءات الكلام عندما تتحقق بصيغ لغوية مختلفة في عدد من المواقف ، (2) تحديد الاستراتيجيات الأكثر استعمالاً من قبل أولئك المتعلمين لإصدار إنشاءات الكلام بواسطة الجمل الخبرية ، (3) تقصي تأثير العوامل السياقية على اختيار الطلبة للاستراتيجية المستخدمة لإصدار إنشاءات الكلام. وتوصلاً مع هذه الأهداف يتبنى البحث الفرضيات الآتية:

1. يستطيع الطلبة تمييز إنشاءات الكلام المعنية المعبر عنها بالتعبير الدالة عليها أكثر من تمييزهم لها بواسطة تلك التعبيرات غير الدالة عليها.
2. مقدرة الطلبة على تمييز إنشاءات الكلام المعني عند وجود خيارات في السؤال أفضل من مقدرتهم على التمييز في حالة عدم وجود هذه الخيارات.
3. تأثر الطلبة بنوع إنشاءات الكلام أكثر من تأثرهم بعناصر السياق مما يجعلهم يظهرون ميلاً لاستخدام نوع معين أو أنواع معينة من الاستراتيجيات أكبر من ميلهم لاستخدام الأنواع الأخرى للتعبير عن ذلك الإنشاء.
4. يفضل المتعلمون استخدام الجمل الخبرية التي تتمثل بالتعبير الإنشائية تفضيلاً أكثر من غيرها من الأنواع الأخرى من الجمل الخبرية.

لتحقيق أهداف الدراسة وبرهنة أو دحض فرضياتها ، أعد الباحث استبياناً وطبقه على عينة من طلبة الكلية العراقيين من دارسي اللغة الانجليزية لغة أجنبية من الصف الرابع / قسم اللغة الإنجليزية في كلية التربية لجامعة القادسية للعام الدراسي 2008-2009 لقياس أدائهم على المستويين: الإدراكي والإنتاجي ، فقد طلب منهم أن يستجيبوا لاستبيان مؤلف من جزئين أولهما يتكون من خمسين موقفاً مصمماً لقياس مقدرة الطلبة لتمييز أنواع إنشاءات الكلام المعنية، في حين

يحتوي الجزء الثاني على خمسة وعشرين موقفا تطلب أن يصدر المتعلمون إنشاء الكلام باستخدام الجملة الخبرية في مواقف معينة.

وتتبنى هذه الدراسة نماذج لتحليل بيانات العمل، فضلا عن مقارنة أداء المتعلمين على مستوى الإنتاج مع أداء مجموعة ضابطة متكونة من عشرة من متحدثي اللغة الإنجليزية الأصليين. إذ تؤكد تحليل البيانات تحقق فرضيات الدراسة كما أنها تقضي ما يأتي:

1. إن تمييز المتعلمين لإنشاءات الكلام المعنية المعبر عنها بالتعبير الدالة عليها أفضل من تمييزهم لإنشاءات الكلام المعبر عنها بتعبير غير دالة عليها .
2. لا يظهر المتعلمون وعيا كاملا لأهمية استخدام أنواع الاستراتيجيات المعنية لأداء إنشاءات الكلام .
3. إن مقدرة الطلبة على تمييز إنشاءات الكلام المعنية بوجود خيارات أفضل مما هي عليه في حالة عدم وجود هذه الخيارات.
4. يتأثر الطلبة بنوع إنشاء الكلام المعني أكثر من تأثرهم بالعوامل السياقية عند إصدارهم الاستراتيجيات المعنية للتعبير عن ذلك الإنشاء.
5. على الأغلب ليس هنالك تأثير للعوامل السياقية على اختيار الطلبة للاستراتيجيات.