



**T.C.
ONDOKUZ MAYIS UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF GRADUATE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAMME**

**A SOCIOPRAGMATIC ANALYSIS OF THE ADDRESS
FORMS IN TURKISH HIGH SCHOOL EFL TEXTBOOK
DIALOGUES**

Master's Thesis

Ahmet Can UYAR

Supervisor
Prof. Dr. Nalan KIZILTAN

SAMSUN
2022

**T.C.
ONDOKUZ MAYIS UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF GRADUATE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAMME**



**A SOCIOPRAGMATIC ANALYSIS OF THE ADDRESS
FORMS IN TURKISH HIGH SCHOOL EFL TEXTBOOK
DIALOGUES**

Master's Thesis

Ahmet Can UYAR

Supervisor

Prof. Dr. Nalan KIZILTAN

SAMSUN
2022

ACCEPTANCE AND APPROVAL OF THE THESIS

The study entitled “A SOCIOPRAGMATIC ANALYSIS OF THE ADDRESS FORMS IN TURKISH HIGH SCHOOL EFL TEXTBOOK DIALOGUES” prepared by **Ahmet Can UYAR** and supervised by **Prof Dr. Nalan KIZILTAN** was found successful and unanimously accepted by committee members as Master’s thesis of the Department of English Language Education, following the examination on the date 01/07/2022.

	Title Name Surname		Signature	Final decision
	University			
	Department			
Chairperson	Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ceylan YANGIN			
	ERSANLI			☒ Accept
	Ondokuz Mayıs University			☐ Reject
	Foreign Language Education Department			
Member (Supervisor)	Prof. Dr. Nalan KIZILTAN			
	Ondokuz Mayıs University			☒ Accept
	Foreign Language Education			☐ Reject
	Department			
Member	Assist. Prof. Dr. Ayfer SU BERGİL			
	Amasya University			☒ Accept
	Foreign Language Education			☐ Reject
	Department			

This thesis has been approved by the committee members that already stated above and determined by the Institute Executive Board.

APPROVAL

... / ... / 2022

Prof. Dr. Ali BOLAT

Head of Institute of Graduate Studies

DECLARATION OF COMPLIANCE WITH SCIENTIFIC ETHICS

I hereby declare and undertake that I complied with scientific ethics and academic rules in all stages of my MA thesis, that I have referred to each quotation that I use directly or indirectly in the study and that the works I have used consist of those shown in the sources, that it was written in accordance with the institute writing guide and that the situations stated in the article 3, section 9 of the Regulation for TÜBİTAK Research and Publication Ethics Board were not violated.

01/07/2022
Ahmet Can UYAR

DECLARATION OF THE THESIS STUDY ORIGINAL REPORT

Thesis Title: A SOCIOPRAGMATIC ANALYSIS OF THE ADDRESS FORMS IN TURKISH HIGH SCHOOL EFL TEXTBOOK DIALOGUES

As a result of the originality report taken by me from the plagiarism detection program on 05/05/2022 for the thesis titled above;

Similarity Ratio : % 16

Single Source Rate : % 1 has been released.

01/07/2022
Prof. Dr. Nalan KIZILTAN

ÖZET

TÜRKİYE’DE LİSE DÜZEYİNDE YABANCI DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE DERS KİTAPLARINDAKİ KARŞILIKLI KONUŞMALARDA KULLANILAN HİTAP BİÇİMLERİNİN TOPLUMEDİMBİLİMSEL ÇÖZÜMLEMESİ

Ahmet Can UYAR
Ondokuz Mayıs Üniversitesi
Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü
YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANA BİLİM DALI
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Programı
Yüksek Lisans, Temmuz/2022
Danışman: Prof. Dr. Nalan KIZILTAN

Yabancı dil eğitimi ve toplumedimsel yetinin bütünleştirilmesinin önemi son yıllarda belirgin bir biçimde ortaya çıkmaktadır. Toplumedimsel yeti, dil unsurlarını etkileşim esnasındaki toplumsal değişkenlere göre uygun olarak kullanabilme becerisi olarak tanımlanabilir. Etkileşim esnasındaki toplumsal değişkenlerin uygun bir şekilde değerlendirilmesini gerektiren hitap edimleri, toplumedimsel yetinin bir parçası olarak görülebilir. Dil eğitimindeki çağdaş yaklaşımlar göz önüne alındığında, hedef dile uygun ve iletişimsel kullanıma açık bir şekilde hitap edimlerinin öğretilmesi önem arz etmektedir. Buradan hareketle, dil eğitiminde önemli bir konumu olan ders kitaplarındaki karşılıklı konuşmaların yapısı dikkate alınmalıdır. Fakat, bu alanda Türkiye’de kullanılan yabancı dil olarak İngilizce ders kitaplarındaki karşılıklı konuşmalarda geçen hitap biçimlerini araştıran bir çalışmaya rastlanmamıştır. Bu nedenle bu çalışma, Türkiye’de lise düzeyinde yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğretiminde kullanılan ders kitaplarındaki karşılıklı konuşmalarda geçen hitap biçimlerini toplumedimsel incelik ölçütleri çerçevesinde incelemeyi hedeflemektedir. MEB tarafından onaylanmış olan 9, 10, 11 ve 12’nci sınıf düzeylerindeki İngilizce ders kitaplarındaki karşılıklı konuşmalarda kullanılan toplamda 148 adet hitap ifadesi, bu çalışma çerçevesinde geliştirilen bir veri toplama aracı ile toplanmıştır. Elde edilen veriler, nicel olarak çözümlenmiş ve tablolar halinde sunulmuştur. İstatistiksel sonuçlara göre, toplumedimsel ölçütlerden bazılarının hitap biçimleri üzerinde etkili olacak şekilde kullanıldığı, bazılarının ise hitap biçimlerinden bağımsız olarak kullanıldığı ortaya çıkmıştır. Sonuçlara göre, konuşan kişilerin cinsiyetleri, toplumsal kimlikleri, konuşmanın bağlamı, bireyler arasındaki dikey uzaklık, yatay uzaklık ve hak/yükümlülük ölçütlerinin hitap biçimleri üzerinde istatistiksel olarak etkili olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır. Diğer yandan, hitap biçimlerinin kullanımının, hitap edilen kişilerin cinsiyetlerinden, konuşma olaylarından, söz eylemlerden ve zahmet/menfaat ölçütlerinden istatistiksel olarak bağımsız olduğu görülmüştür. Bulgulardan yola çıkarak, ders kitaplarındaki hitap biçimlerinin toplumedimsel ölçütlere dayalı olarak nasıl temsil edildiği tartışılmıştır. Sonuç olarak, ders kitaplarının toplumedimsel hitap bileşenlerini daha işlevsel bir şekilde yansıtmayı amacıyla çeşitli önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Hitap biçimleri, Toplumedimbilim, Ders kitapları

ABSTRACT

A SOCIOPRAGMATIC ANALYSIS OF THE ADDRESS FORMS IN TURKISH HIGH SCHOOL EFL TEXTBOOK DIALOGUES

Ahmet Can UYAR
Ondokuz Mayıs University
Institute of Graduate Studies
Department of Foreign Language Education
English Language Teaching Programme
Master, July/2022
Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Nalan KIZILTAN

The importance of integrating sociopragmatic competence into language teaching contexts has been rising in recent years. Sociopragmatic competence is the ability to use linguistic resources appropriately in accordance with the social conditions of the context. Requiring the appropriate assessment of social variables in the interaction, addressing is one of the components of sociopragmatic competence. Regarding the current trends in language teaching, teaching how to address communicatively and appropriately in the target language is significant. In this respect, the roles of the textbook dialogues in teaching linguistic skills should be taken into consideration. However, little or no attempts have been made to investigate the address forms in EFL textbook dialogues in Turkey. Therefore, this study aims to investigate the address forms in high school EFL textbook dialogues with reference to the scales of sociopragmatic politeness. In total, 148 address forms have been collected from 9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th grade EFL textbooks which are approved by MoNE. The data have been collected by the instrument designed by the researchers. The collected data have been quantitatively analyzed and cross tabulated. The test results have yielded that certain sociopragmatic politeness scales are statistically reflected in the address forms, while a number of them are neglected. According to the results, the genders of the speakers, social identities, speech situations, vertical distance, horizontal distance, and rights/obligations scales have been found to be reflected in the address forms. On the other hand, the address forms have been found to be statistically independent from the genders of the hearers, speech events, speech acts, and cost/benefit scales. Based on the findings, the overall representation of the address forms in relation to the sociopragmatic politeness scales has been discussed and several suggestions have been made accordingly to enhance the functionality of the textbooks to reflect sociopragmatic components of addressing.

Keywords: Address forms, Sociopragmatics, Textbooks

To my future...

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my supervisor Prof. Dr. Nalan KIZILTAN for her invaluable support, intellectual guidance, and encouragement throughout this process. Without her vision and expertise in the field, this thesis would not be realized. I am grateful for her contribution to my thesis and to me as a person.

Besides, I would like to thank my mother who always supports me and wishes the best for me. Even though we have been living in different cities for a while, I always feel her endless love and encouragement from miles away.

Ahmet Can UYAR

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACCEPTANCE AND APPROVAL OF THE THESIS	i
DECLARATION OF COMPLIANCE WITH SCIENTIFIC ETHICS	ii
DECLARATION OF THE THESIS STUDY ORIGINAL REPORT	ii
ÖZET	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
LIST OF TABLES	xi
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. Background to the Study.....	1
1.2. Problem Statement.....	3
1.3. Purpose of the Study	4
1.4. Research Questions.....	5
1.5. Scope of the Study	6
1.6. Limitations of the Study.....	6
2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	7
2.1. Communicative Competence.....	7
2.1.1. Pragmatic Competence	9
2.1.1.1. Speech Situations.....	10
2.1.1.2. Speech Events	10
2.1.1.3. Speech Acts.....	12
2.1.1.3.1. Speech Act Categories.....	13
2.1.1.4. Pragmatic Competence and Language Teaching	14
2.1.1.5. Pragmatic Failure	15
2.1.2. Sociopragmatic Competence.....	17
2.1.2.1. Sociopragmatic Failure	20
2.1.2.2. Sociopragmatic Competence and Language Teaching	23
2.2. Politeness	27
2.2.1. Theories of Politeness	28
2.2.2. Sociopragmatic Politeness	36
2.2.2.1. Vertical Distance.....	38
2.2.2.2. Horizontal Distance	40
2.2.2.3. Cost/Benefit	42
2.2.2.4. Rights/Obligations	45
2.2.2.5. Self-territory and Other-territory	47
2.2.3. Politeness and Language Teaching	49
2.3. Address Theory.....	51
2.3.1. Terminology of Address Theory.....	53
2.3.2. Types of Address Forms	57
2.3.3. Sociopragmatic Scales and Addressing	60
2.3.3.1. Vertical/Horizontal Distance and Addressing.....	61
2.3.3.2. Gender and Addressing.....	65
2.3.3.3. Social Identity and Addressing	68
2.3.3.4. Culture and Addressing.....	70
3. METHODOLOGY	74
3.1. Research Design.....	74
3.2. Materials	74
3.3. Data Collection Instrument	74
3.4. Procedure	76
4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION	79
4.1. Findings of the Gender and the Address Forms.....	80

4.2. Findings of the Social Identities and the Address Forms.....	86
4.3. Findings of the Speech Situations and the Address Forms	89
4.4. Findings of the Speech Events and the Address Forms	92
4.5. Findings of the Speech Acts and the Address Forms.....	93
4.6. Findings of the Vertical Distance and the Address Forms.....	96
4.7. Findings of the Horizontal Distance and the Address Forms	99
4.8. Findings of the Cost/Benefit and the Address Forms	101
4.9. Findings of the Rights/Obligations and the Address Forms	103
5. CONCLUSION	106
5.1. Summary of the Study	106
5.2. Concluding Remarks and Suggestions.....	108
REFERENCES.....	110
APPENDICES	123
CURRICULUM VITAE.....	159

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CP	: Cooperative Principle
D	: Distance
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
ESL	: English as a Second Language
FN	: First Name
FTA	: Face Threatening Act
H	: Hearer
LN	: Last Name
MoNE	: Ministry of National Education
MP	: Model Person
P	: Power
PP	: Politeness Principle
R	: Rank of Imposition
S	: Speaker

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2. 1. Sociopragmatics at the intersection of sociolinguistics and pragmatics.....	19
Figure 2. 2. Lakoff's (1973) model of pragmatic competence	30
Figure 2. 3. Principles of politeness by Leech (1983).....	31
Figure 2. 4. Politeness strategies by Brown and Levinson (1987).....	34
Figure 2. 5. An application of politeness strategies by Brown and Levinson (1987)	35
Figure 2. 6. Thanking expressions on a politeness axis	36
Figure 2. 7. Sociopragmatic politeness scales by Leech (2014)	48

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2. 1. Languages with T/V distinction.....	54
Table 2. 2. Categories and examples of address forms	57
Table 2. 3. Family terms in Korean and English.....	72
Table 4. 1. The Distribution of the Cumulative Data.....	79
Table 4. 2. The Distribution of the Types of Address Forms	79
Table 4. 3. Crosstabulation of the Gender of the Speakers and the Address Forms	80
Table 4. 4. Crosstabulation of the Gender of the Hearers and the Address Forms	83
Table 4. 5. Crosstabulation of the Gender Pairs and the Address Forms.....	84
Table 4. 6. Crosstabulation of the Social Identities and the Address Forms.....	87
Table 4. 7. Crosstabulation of the Speech Situations and the Address Forms	90
Table 4. 8. Crosstabulation of the Speech Events and the Address Forms	92
Table 4. 9. Crosstabulation of the Speech Act Types and the Address Forms	94
Table 4. 10. Crosstabulation of the Vertical Distance and the Address Forms.....	96
Table 4. 11. Crosstabulation of the Horizontal Distance and the Address Forms	99
Table 4. 12. Crosstabulation of the Cost/Benefit and the Address Forms	101
Table 4. 13. Crosstabulation of the Rights/Obligations and the Address Forms	103

1. INTRODUCTION

“Good morning, class!”

“Good morning, teacher!”

In a world where the theory of language teaching is a dynamic field with new explorations and implementations each day, the greeting drill stated above is one of the static practices of a usual English language classroom in Turkey. The teacher greets the learners, and the learners greet the teacher by addressing him/her as ‘*teacher*’. In a classroom full of non-native English learners with inadequate pragmatic competence, this greeting drill may seem regular. However, addressing teachers by their occupational titles does not seem like a regular practice in English language. For instance, Webster (1988), who provides a useful guide to the address practices in English language in many contexts, does not list such an address exchange between teachers and students. In fact, Clyne, Norrby, and Warren (2009) reveal that students generally address their teachers as Mr/Mrs + Last Name (LN) in English, and in case of a special relationship between students and the teacher, they may address their teachers by their first names (FNs). However, they do not elaborate on any instances of addressing teachers as simply ‘*teacher*’.

Based upon this basic example, it can be argued that the appropriacy of address forms is disregarded, or at least not given enough credit in English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms in Turkey. Regarding the fact that the current vogue is to promote the communicative teaching of the language, teaching how to use the address forms should be paid close attention and the consciousness of the language learners on this issue should be raised.

1.1. Background to the Study

Along with the rise of communicative language teaching, scholars have shifted their attention to the teaching of the language in communicative contexts, and the importance of the real-life use of the language has begun to crystallize (Brown, 1994). This realization has led to the emergence of new perspectives and purposes in the field of language teaching. One of the frequently cited goals of communicative language teaching is to equip language learners with communicative competence for them to be more competent to interact with people in the target language (Richards, 2006). The

central theoretical concept of communicative language teaching is communicative competence (Savignon, 2013). In other words, the ultimate goal of foreign language teaching has evolved to being able to socialize and communicate effectively in the target language, among which the ability to use appropriate forms of address is a crucial area.

Addressing is an important aspect of social interaction, as well as it is frequently performed during communication (Chen, 2010). The way that people address each other is pragmatically and semantically significant, due to the fact that it is a reflection of social relationships and setting (Özcan, 2016). Forms of address can be the tools for people to show their respect, fondness, or disrespect towards the other people (Yang, 2010). Similarly, Brown and Levinson (1987) argue that addressing is a vital element of interaction, since it reflects the attitude of the speakers towards the interlocutors. Furthermore, the appropriate use of address forms is the key for people to identify themselves as a part of a social group, while inappropriate choice of address forms may have negative impacts on the interaction (Brown & Levinson, 1987). As noted by Antonova and Travina (2014, p. 375), “correct and appropriate addressing a person is the guarantee of a productive and fruitful conversation.”

There are several factors which affect the way we address people. Appropriate addressing requires speakers to take several factors into consideration, such as the social status, ranks, age, sex, and so forth (Yang, 2010). One of the early studies on the subject, Brown and Gilman (1960) focus on the factors of power and solidarity, and they demonstrate that the choice of address forms is affected by these dimensions. Besides, addressing is heavily influenced by politeness, which is in link with culture (Qin, 2008). For instance, the use of FNs to show familiarity as English speakers do may not be appreciated by East Asian speakers. While American people may casually call their colleagues by their FNs (Okamura, 2009), Japanese culture prescribes FNs to be used in the borders of family and between sincere friends (Ishikawa, Nagata, Miyai, Nagao, & Iizuka, 1981). All these aspects of address practices in languages are in line with the pragmatic properties of the language which language learners should be taught to gain adequate competency. One of the best ways to achieve this goal is to design the textbooks in line with the components of communicative language teaching, in specific, pragmatic and sociopragmatic competence.

Pragmatic competence is “the ability to use language effectively in order to achieve a specific purpose and to understand language in context” (Thomas, 1983, p. 92). According to Leech (2014), pragmatic competence is not a monolithic phenomenon, as it can be divided into two layers, pragmalinguistic competence and sociopragmatic competence. Pragmalinguistic competence refers to the knowledge of using appropriate linguistic elements, while sociopragmatic competence deals with the culture related appropriateness of language use (Thomas, 1983). Similarly, sociopragmatic politeness is the assessment of politeness in relation to the context. Leech (2014) proposes a set of sociopragmatic scales to assess the appropriate degree of politeness, including the scales of vertical distance, horizontal distance, cost/benefit, rights/obligations, and self-territory and other territory. These scales of sociopragmatic politeness present a decent formulation of the factors affecting the language style of the speakers in interaction. Like many other linguistic devices, the use of address forms is naturally influenced by these sociopragmatic scales.

Many researchers state the need to integrate pragmatics into language teaching. For instance, Bardovi-Harlig (1996) is one of the scholars who highlight the importance of integrating pragmatics into language teaching. Undoubtedly, as Bardovi-Harlig (1996, p. 24) claims, promoting the improvement of pragmatic competence of learners involves providing “pragmatically appropriate input.” She underlines the importance of input which language learners are exposed to, whether through textbooks or classroom interactions. Therefore, investigating the presentation of pragmatic input, such as the use of address forms, in English language textbooks is of great importance for learner language development and to prevent pragmatic failure while they use the language.

1.2. Problem Statement

Teaching English as a foreign language in a non-English speaking country is challenging the practitioners from many aspects, including the limited access to the authentic language use and the lack of sufficient authentic input for the learners in the classroom. This situation poses problems for one of the main objectives of language teaching, which is equipping learners with communicative competence. It is crucial for learners to get communicatively appropriate input in the process of language learning to develop competence in the target language. In this context, textbooks can be regarded as one of the major sources of input for language learners.

Providing the source of language input and practice, textbooks are considered as important materials in language learning and teaching (Limberg, 2015). Specifically, textbook dialogues have been cited to play important roles in the process of language learning and teaching. For instance, dialogues help learners to develop their language knowledge on the basis of vocabulary, structure, and language use (Hedge, 1985; cited in Jones, Kitetu, & Sunderland, 1997). Most importantly, dialogues are essential means in terms of letting learners practice several aspects of language, such as conversational speech and the use of pragmatics (Jones, Kitetu, & Sunderland, 1997). By providing the chance of language practice, dialogues seem to have crucial roles for learners to develop a range of conversational skills (Grant, 1987).

Although it is widely accepted that textbooks should provide a good command of pragmatic input for the learners, it has been documented that many textbooks suffer from the deficiency of adequate presentation of pragmatic input (e.g., Ren & Han, 2016). A number of researchers have revealed an overview of the pragmatic input represented in EFL textbooks used in many countries, such as Croatia for several speech acts (Jakupčević & Kroger, 2021), Germany for the speech act of apologizing (Limberg, 2015), Vietnam for general pragmatic instruction (Nu, Anh, & Murray, 2020), Indonesia for the speech act of complimenting (Petraki, 2020), and so forth. A number of studies have also examined the pragmatic input in EFL textbooks used in Turkey from several aspects (e.g., Ulum, 2015; Aksoyalp & Toprak, 2015; Çubukçu & Atay, 2017). However, little or no attempts have been made to investigate the address forms in Turkish EFL textbook dialogues with reference to pragmatic and sociopragmatic input they encode.

In the light of the above-mentioned characteristics of textbooks, it is of great importance to analyze the use and the presentation of address forms in Turkish EFL textbook dialogues with reference to sociopragmatic scales.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

Since the position of the English language as a lingua-franca leads many individuals to learn it, English language education is included in many education programs throughout the world. Many learners aim to learn the language to communicate effectively with the others who speak the same language, and this purpose goes beyond the learning of grammar and vocabulary. Along with those, there is a functional need in language learning which corresponds to pragmatic knowledge.

Given the fact that language learning and teaching are heavily processed through the use of textbooks, analyzing these materials in terms of the pragmatic input they present is of great importance for the sake of learners. In the context of the current study, it is aimed to analyze EFL textbooks which are approved by the Turkish Ministry of National Education (MoNE) to be used in high schools in Turkey. The aim is to analyze the representation of the address forms used by the interlocutors in the textbook dialogues from a sociopragmatic point of view.

Providing this type of research in terms of the address forms in the dialogues they present seems necessary in the way of making the language education more functional and developing such language materials in Turkey.

1.4. Research Questions

The current study seeks answers to the following questions:

1. How well are the genders of the interlocutors reflected in the use of address forms in the textbook dialogues?
2. How well are the social identities of the interlocutors reflected in the use of address forms in the textbook dialogues?
3. How well are the speech situations reflected in the use of address forms in the textbook dialogues?
4. How well are the speech events reflected in the use of address forms in the textbook dialogues?
5. How well are the speech acts reflected in the use of address forms in the textbook dialogues?
6. How well is the vertical distance between the interlocutors reflected in the use of address forms in the textbook dialogues?
7. How well is the horizontal distance between the interlocutors reflected in the use of address forms in the textbook dialogues?
8. How well is the cost/benefit relationship between the interlocutors reflected in the use of address forms in the textbook dialogues?
9. How well is the rights/obligations relationship between the interlocutors reflected in the use of address forms in the textbook dialogues?

1.5. Scope of the Study

The current study includes the analysis of the address forms used in the dialogues in four EFL textbooks which are approved by the Turkish Ministry of National Education to be used in high schools in Turkey.

1.6. Limitations of the Study

The study analyzes the address forms used in the dialogues consisting of only two interlocutors to provide a more comprehensive perspective to the sociopragmatic scales between the interlocutors. Thus, the dialogues with more than two interlocutors are not included in the sample of the study. Additionally, one of the sociopragmatic scales proposed by Leech (2014), ‘self-territory and other-territory’ is excluded from the data analysis, since Leech (2014) argues that it is related to the non-Western cultures, thus irrelevant to the English language.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The complex nature of language and its use in society require researchers to take many aspects into consideration in the way of understanding the dynamics of language teaching and attempting to enhance the field despite remarkable challenges. Language, as well as its teaching, is an amalgam of numerous components which together allow us to achieve many tasks, describe the world around us, create or end relationships, maintain our everyday life, and so forth. In this context, this chapter presents a summary of the underlying concepts and related literature for a better understanding of the purpose of the current study. Since the main purpose of this study is to focus on the teaching of the appropriate address practices in communicative contexts, holistically, we will begin with communicative competence as the umbrella term which creates a basis for the main concern triggering the need for this study, specifically, sociopragmatic competence in language teaching.

2.1. Communicative Competence

Communicative competence has been a matter of debate in the field of language teaching along with the introduction by Hymes (1972), and its reactive nature to Chomsky's (1965) *linguistic competence* has reshaped the perspectives in the field. The field has witnessed a growing concern for engaging communicative activities in language teaching in line with a body of research on the topic, and even conferences dedicated to it (Paulston, 1974). Thus far, many scholars have contributed to the concept and paid close attention to formulate and understand its structure. Beginning with its original composer, Hymes (1967, 1972), the concept has been viewed through the lenses of many scholars, such as Canale and Swain (1980), Canale (1983), and Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell (1995).

Communicative competence is a concept coined by Dell Hymes (1967, 1972) and it has been involved in the field of language teaching as an opponent view against those who embrace the memorization of grammatical forms (Kramsch, 2006). Kramsch (2006) points out that it takes a stand against the audio-lingual approach, which is mainly based on the repetition of drill activities of prefabricated dialogues. The starting point of the debate on communicative competence dates back to the 1960s, the decade when the structural linguist Chomsky (1965) introduced the concept of linguistic competence (Rickheit, Strohner, & Vorweg, 2008). According to Chomsky

(1965), linguistic theory is based on the ideal speakers and listeners who have perfect linguistic knowledge “which is supposed to be unaffected by cognitive and situational factors during actual linguistic performance” (Rickheit, Strohner, & Vorwerg, 2008, p. 17). In this respect, Chomsky (1965, p. 3) states:

Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech-community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance.

In a sense, Chomsky’s school of thought related to an innate language mechanism which allows people to acquire languages depends on the idea that language structure and its acquisition is context-free (Celce-Murcia, 2007). Opposing this view, Hymes (1972) states that linguistic competence alone is not accountable for language acquisition and use, rather, it should be escorted by sociolinguistic competence. According to Hymes (1972, p. 278), “there are rules without which the rules of grammar would be useless.” He states that people acquire the knowledge of language both as grammatical and as appropriate. Similarly, Campbell and Wales (1970) emphasize the importance of producing and understanding utterances made appropriately to the context, rather than being just grammatical.

During the time, many fieldworkers have adopted Hymes’ perspective and mentality, and Hymes’ perspective has become the ground of the modernist techniques in language teaching which centers communication as the goal of the language learning process (Celce-Murcia, 2007). Along with this, the concept of communicative competence has been developed and expanded. Canale and Swain (1980), who are said to be among the earliest developers of the concept, add a new type of competence which is related to the compensation for the problems in the communication, namely, strategic competence. Additionally, they use the term ‘grammatical competence’ instead of ‘linguistic competence’. Strategic competence refers to the ability to compensate for communication breakdowns stemming from performance variables or insufficient competence (Canale & Swain, 1980). Following this contribution, Canale (1983) expands the notion to a further degree with the addition of discourse competence, which concerns achieving a unified text beyond the sentence level by using grammatical forms and meanings. A text, whether spoken or written, is achieved to be unified through cohesion and coherence (Canale, 1983). The former one deals

with linking the structures of a text for a better interpretation through the good command of using pronouns, conjunctions, synonyms, and so forth, while the latter one deals with the relationship among the different meanings in a given text (Canale, 1983).

More recently, the communicative competence model has been expanded by Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell (1995). The scholars add ‘actional competence’ into the scene, which they describe as the “competence in conveying and understanding communicative intent, that is, matching actional intent with linguistic form based on the knowledge of an inventory of verbal schemata that carry illocutionary force (speech acts and speech act sets)” (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, Thurrell, 1995, p. 17), which is reminiscent of pragmatic competence. In fact, Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) do not mention pragmatic competence as a separate dimension in their proposed models. However, it is inherent in the nature of their sociolinguistic competence. Pragmatics was an implicit part of the earlier models of communicative competence, “it had just not yet come to its own name” (Kasper, 2001, p. 503). According to Leech (2014), pragmatic competence is a crucial aspect of communicative competence along with linguistic competence, and it has become a major topic within the communicative competence field, as well as in relation to language teaching and testing.

2.1.1. Pragmatic Competence

Pragmatic competence can be said to be one of the components of communicative competence. It can be defined as “the ability to use language effectively in order to achieve a specific purpose and to understand language in context” (Thomas, 1983, p. 17). From a general perspective, the ability of one’s understanding and production of speech acts (e.g., requesting, refusing), deixis (e.g., address forms), discourse markers (e.g., *well*, *I see*), routines (e.g., greeting), polite/impolite behaviour, and implicatures is designated as pragmatic competence (Félix-Brasdefer & DiBartolomeo, 2021). The great number of studies dedicated to speech acts indicates that they play a major role in pragmatic competence. In fact, they largely overlap with what is called pragmatic competence (Chong-yuan, 2021).

Speech act theory is one of the mostly studied topics in pragmatics. Before dealing with speech acts, Salmani Nodoushan (2014) notes that it is required to

differentiate between the intertwined concepts of *speech situations*, *speech events*, and *speech acts* in order to understand speech acts clearly.

2.1.1.1. Speech Situations

A speech situation is “the social situation in which speaking takes place” including all the characteristics of the situation, and it is the largest unit of analysis (Zand-Vakili, Kashani, & Tabandeh, 2012, p. 28). In that, a party can be regarded as a speech situation, in which a conversation in this party constitutes the speech event, in which a joke told in this conversation is a speech act (Hymes, 2005). Hymes (2005) states that one can observe many situations, such as ceremonies, meals, fights, hunts, and so forth.

Drawing from Vanderveken (2001), Peneva (2012) notes that each speech situation is distinct from one another in terms of the participants and the purposes behind them. Hymes (2005) argues that these situations are not governed by consistent rules. At this point, as Salmani Nodoushan (2014) draws, it is why Hymes (2005) argues that there should be further restricted activities within speech situations to provide a control for the use of speech, thus, the concept of ‘speech events’ appears.

2.1.1.2. Speech Events

Hymes (2005) contends that the term speech event reflects the activities which are regulated by the rules or norms for speech to process, and a speech event may be composed of only one speech act as well, but it often includes several. Hymes (2005) also notes that the same type of speech act can take place in different speech events, as well as the same type of speech event may be observed in different speech situations. For instance, a joke (speech act) can be made in a private conversation, or in a lecture, while a private conversation (speech event) can take place in a party, or during the pause in a tennis match (Hymes, 2005).

Yule (1996) handles the speech events as a set of utterances in a situation, which are produced by participants who interact with each other via language with certain goals. Yule (1996) asserts that a speech event may involve a clear speech act, and it also may not. In that, he gives the set of utterances in example (1) to explicate a speech event of requesting, remarking that there is not an obvious speech act of requesting, but the other utterances consequently lead up to this act (Yule, 1996, p. 57).

- (1) Him: Oh, Mary, I'm glad you're here.
Her: What's up?
Him: I can't get my computer to work.
Her: Is it broken?
Him: I don't think so.
Her: What's it doing?
Him: I don't know. I'm useless with computers.
Her: What kind is it?
Him: It's a Mac. Do you use them?
Her: Yeah.
Him: Do you have a minute?
Her: Sure.
Him: Oh, great.

On the other hand, Leech (1983) argues that we have illocutionary goals which we try to achieve through linguistic communication (e.g., asking for permission). In addition, we also have social goals, such as maintaining good relationships with whom we interact. At this point, Leech (1983) discusses that our illocutionary goals may be in a position to support our social goals, while in certain occasions they may compete with our social goals. Focusing on this aspect, Leech (1983, p. 104) divides speech events into four categories considering their illocutionary functions:

- (a) COMPETITIVE: The illocutionary goal competes with the social goal, e.g., ordering, asking, demanding, begging.
- (b) CONVIVIAL: The illocutionary goal coincides with the social goal, e.g., offering, inviting, greeting, thanking, congratulating.
- (c) COLLABORATIVE: The illocutionary goal is indifferent to the social goal, e.g., asserting, reporting, announcing, instructing.
- (d) CONFLICTIVE: The illocutionary goal conflicts with the social goal, e.g., threatening, accusing, cursing, reprimanding.

According to Leech (1983), these types of functions differ in terms of the politeness degree they typically involve, as the first two types primarily involve politeness. In competitive speech events, politeness is used to reduce the conflict between the imposition on the hearer and good manners, for instance, asking someone to lend you some money is a competitive type of speech event (Leech, 1983). Convivial types of speech events, on the other hand, are in relation with politeness in a positive way, chasing the opportunities for kindness, such as congratulating someone's 100th birthday (Leech, 1983). Leech (1983) also notes that the collaborative type of speech events is indifferent to politeness, while the conflictive ones typically exclude polite behaviour, since causing an offense is what they naturally seek. The

nature of the speech event in a given situation plays a key role in interpreting the meaning of a certain speech act (Yule, 1996).

2.1.1.3. Speech Acts

The idea that producing utterances does more than just presenting a structure of grammar and words underlies the concept of speech act theory. According to speech act theory, individuals perform certain acts through the utterances they produce. For instance, consider the example in (2), and suppose that it is uttered by an authorized person in a conversation to a student. In this case, this utterance would be more than just a statement, and it would change the circumstances in the student's life.

(2) Your scholarship is terminated.

The fact that utterances do not only describe things but they actually perform actions was the spark of Austin's (1962) speech act theory. Austin (1962) states that we do not use the language only to describe the world, rather, we can use it to change many things in the world. As in the hypothetical example in (2) which is capable of changing the conditions of one's life, such utterances which perform actions are usually called speech acts (Yule, 1996). According to Austin (1962), individuals perform three kinds of act when they produce an utterance. Based on Austin (1962), Levinson (2008, p. 236) explains these three kinds of speech acts:

(i) **locutionary act:** the utterance of a sentence with determinate sense and reference

(ii) **illocutionary act:** the making of a statement, offer, promise, etc. in uttering a sentence, by virtue of the conventional force associated with it (or with its explicit performative paraphrase)

(iii) **perlocutionary act:** the bringing about of the effects on the audience by means of uttering the sentence, such effects being special to the circumstances of utterance

Locutionary act is basically the production of a meaningful linguistic expression. For instance, it would not normally be a locutionary act if someone produced '*Aha mokofa*' in English (Yule, 1996, p. 48), while producing '*I was out for a walk*' would be a locutionary act. Perlocutionary act, on the other hand, denotes the effect we aim to pose upon the hearer. For instance, the locutionary act '*I can't reach the remote control*' may lead the hearer to the perlocutionary effect of bringing you the remote control.

The other dimension, illocutionary act, is related to the purpose we bear in mind while uttering a sentence. Turning back to the '*I can't reach the remote control*' example; one would probably utter this sentence with an internal purpose, also known as *illocutionary force*, without being sure if he is to see the expected perlocutionary effect or not. That is, we produce well-formed utterances with an illocutionary force, which corresponds to the dimension of illocutionary act according to Austin (1962).

2.1.1.3.1. Speech Act Categories

Among the three types of acts discussed in the literature, illocutionary acts have been of particular interest. Furthermore, the term 'speech act' has come to be interpreted as the illocutionary act of an utterance (Yule, 1996; Levinson, 2008). In fact, Searle (1976) believes that the illocutionary act is the basic unit of linguistic communication, and he provides a taxonomy of the classification of illocutionary acts. According to Searle (1976), illocutionary acts can be classified into five categories: representatives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declarations. Levinson (2008, p. 240) summarizes these:

- (i) **representatives**, which commit the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition (paradigm cases: asserting, concluding, etc.)
- (ii) **directives**, which are attempts by the speaker to get the addressee to do something (paradigm cases: requesting, questioning)
- (iii) **commissives**, which commit the speaker to some future course of action (paradigm cases: promising, threatening, offering)
- (iv) **expressives**, which express a psychological state (paradigm cases: thanking, apologizing, welcoming, congratulating)
- (v) **declarations**, which effect immediate changes in the institutional state of affairs and which tend to rely on elaborate extra-linguistic institutions (paradigm cases: excommunicating, declaring war, christening, firing from employment)

On the other hand, Austin (1962) proposes a taxonomy of speech acts with five categories including *verdictives*, which refer to the verdicts by a jury, arbitrator, or umpire; *exercitives*, which refer to the practice of powers, rights, or influence (e.g., ordering); *commissives*, which refer to the promises or other types of commitments for future actions; *behabitives*, which refer to the attitudes and social behaviour (e.g., apologizing); and *expositives*, which refer to the acts of clarifying the function of our utterances in the discourse (e.g., *I assume* and *I illustrate*).

Speech acts have been vastly investigated in relation to pragmatic competence in the linguistics literature. Furthermore, the importance of the study of speech acts

has been prominent in the field of language teaching, along with the rise of communicative and pragmatic aspects in the language classroom.

2.1.1.4. Pragmatic Competence and Language Teaching

Numerous studies have been conducted around the globe to scrutinize the pragmatic competence of language learners in relation to speech acts. A number of them put the concept of pragmatic transfer under emphasis. For instance, Çapar (2014) compares two groups of Turkish learners of English as a foreign language in terms of the refusing strategies they use in Turkish and English. According to the results, it has been revealed that the learners perform pragmatic transfer from their native language. It has been also found that the learners seem to be more aware of the pragmatic principles of their native language. Therefore, the researcher suggests that learners' pragmatic awareness should be raised in the target language. Han and Burgucu-Tazegül (2016) also encounter pragmatic transfer while investigating the refusal strategies by Turkish learners of English language, however, they note that the level of the transfer decreases as the proficiency level increases. Delen and Taviş (2010) also underline a similar pragmatic competence deficiency in Turkish contexts, that learners suffer from the problem of performing the speech act of complaining efficiently. This result may be related to the finding by Bayat (2013), who finds out that Turkish participants of the study perform the act of complaining implicitly, while they perform other acts explicitly.

Hmouri (2021) examines the pragmatic competence of Moroccan EFL university students in specific to the expressive speech acts. After a set of multi-approached data collection methods, the researcher concludes that the vast majority of the students commit pragmatic failure in the given speech act, while few of them are pragmatically successful. Al-Khadmi, Mirza and Al-Eryani (2021), who investigate a group of Yemeni speakers of English in terms of the refusal strategies they use, find out that the participants are not competent enough in the questioned area. Thus, the researchers suggest that the teaching of pragmatics and speech acts in language learning contexts should be paid close attention.

Numerous studies reveal that many EFL learners suffer from the deficiency of pragmatic competence while performing certain speech acts. As a result, practitioners seek ways to integrate the teaching of pragmatics into their classrooms. El-Dakhs and Amroun (2021) focus on the explicit and implicit teaching of speech acts and they

compare the two methods in terms of the outcomes they bring about. Specifically, they focus on apologies. In the study which has been conducted in Saudi Arabia with the participation of several EFL learners, the results yield that both explicit and implicit instruction of speech acts have positive effects on the pragmatic competence of the learners, however, explicit instruction has been found to be relatively more efficient. In fact, many other studies reveal similar results, supporting the advantages of explicit instruction of speech acts. For instance, Ahmadian (2020), who investigates the effects of explicit and implicit instruction of refusal strategies on Iranian EFL learners, put forward that explicit instruction is more fruitful than implicit teaching in terms of both comprehension and production of the given speech act. Xiao-le (2011) asserts similar results in favor of the explicit instruction, in the context of Chinese EFL learners and their requesting pragmatic competence. Soler (2005) in the context of Spanish learners, and Nguyen, Pham, and Pham (2012) in the context of Vietnamese pre-service teachers yield similar results. Trubnikova (2021) also states that there is a need for a guided instruction of pragmatic competence to prevent learners from facing pragmatic failure.

2.1.1.5. Pragmatic Failure

Pragmatic failure is another related phenomenon to pragmatic competence whose scope has been drawn prominently by Thomas (1983). Thomas (1983, p. 91) explains the term pragmatic failure as “the inability to understand what is meant by what is said.” According to Ishihara and Cohen (2010, p. 77), there are five common causes of pragmatic failure:

- negative transfer of pragmatic norms
- limited grammatical ability in the L2
- overgeneralization of perceived L2 pragmatic norms
- effect of instruction or instructional materials
- resistance to using perceived L2 pragmatic norms

The first factor, negative transfer of pragmatic norms, simply refers to the act of employing the norms of one’s native language while speaking a foreign language on certain occasions. For instance, saying only ‘*thank you*’ to an offer made in Turkey generally means that you reject the offer in a polite way. If a Turkish learner of English transfers this norm to a context where he speaks English with an American, the American person is likely to understand that he accepts the offer. It is because in English pragmatic norms, an attempt to refuse an offer by saying ‘*thank you*’ should

typically be preceded by ‘no’, as in ‘no, thank you’. Thomas (1983) also notes that this is the most common explanation for pragmatic failure.

Ishihara and Cohen (2010) also note that limited grammatical ability in the target language can be the source of pragmatic failure. For instance, consider a speaker who is incompetent to use modal verbs in English appropriately. It would be a pragmatic failure if this speaker is not aware of the difference between saying ‘*I can’t come*’ and ‘*I might not come*’ and s/he uses these two interchangeably when s/he gets an invitation to a party.

Overgeneralization of perceived pragmatic norms of the target language is another aspect addressed by Ishihara and Cohen (2010). The researchers note that learners may perform overgeneralization of pragmatic aspects as well, as they do with grammatical rules, such as adding *-ed* suffix to every verb when they learn that this suffix is used to form past activities. Similarly, consider a learner who knows that saying ‘*I am sorry*’ performs the apologizing act and uses this expression every time s/he wants to apologize for something, even in the situations where saying ‘*excuse me*’ sounds more appropriate. This overgeneralization is likely to result in a pragmatic failure.

Taking the attention from the learner himself, the other dimension deals with the effect of instruction or materials used while teaching the language. For instance, if the learners are exposed to an instruction which puts emphasis on completing the sentences, then they are likely to deploy this perception in real life conversations, which may cause unintentional awkwardness, rudeness, or even sarcasm. Ishihara and Cohen (2010, p. 84-85) exemplify this with the question “Have you already had a chance to go canoeing on the beautiful Lake of the Isles this summer?” being replied “Yes. I have already had a chance to go canoeing on the beautiful Lake of the Isles this summer.” Thus, it creates an irritating or unnatural conversation.

The last factor is again attributed to the learners, referring to their resistance to using the pragmatic norms of the target language. Ishihara and Cohen (2010) note that learners are not completely independent from their own worldviews, their beliefs, or values. Therefore, they may resist using the pragmatic norms of the target language even if they are aware of them. For instance, there is a tendency in Turkish EFL speakers to keep using address forms according to their cultural values. It is typical even for an advanced Turkish learner of English to address their professors as ‘*hocam*

[my teacher]' when they speak English. It is probably not because they do not know how to address the professors in English, but the way they choose to do it probably seems more appropriate to them. Pragmatic failure can be committed not only by those who have low proficiency, but by those who are advanced learners with a good competence of grammar and lexical elements (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1990).

The stated factors by Ishihara and Cohen (2010) are discussed to cause pragmatic failure, which may damage the pragmatic competence of the learners. It is recognizable that some of these factors are related to the linguistic aspect of the language itself, while some others are related to the culture. In fact, Thomas (1983) argues that there are two types of pragmatic failure, as *pragmalinguistic failure* and *sociopragmatic failure*. Thomas (1983, p. 99) elaborately defines these concepts:

1. *Pragmalinguistic failure*, which occurs when the pragmatic force mapped by S onto a given utterance is systematically different from the force most frequently assigned to it by native speakers of the target language, or when speech act strategies are inappropriately transferred from L1 to L2.
2. *Sociopragmatic failure*, a term I have appropriated from Leech (1983, pp. 10-11), which I use to refer to the social conditions placed on language in use.

Similar to the division of pragmatic failure into two areas, Leech (1983, 2014) also divides pragmatic competence into two areas as *pragmalinguistic competence* and *sociopragmatic competence*. Leech (1983, p. 11) defines pragmalinguistics as “the particular resources which a given language provides for conveying particular illocutions.” Similarly, pragmalinguistic competence refers to “the linguistic elements used in the different languages to perform speech acts” (Cenoz, 2007, p. 126). Sociopragmatic competence, on the other hand, allows speakers to use the language in a socially appropriate way.

2.1.2. Sociopragmatic Competence

Sociopragmatics is one of the methodological approaches to pragmatics (Marmaridou, 2011). From a basic point of view, sociopragmatics stresses the role of social variables which determine the use of language to mean and do things, thus, it places itself in a gray area between linguistics and sociology, a field which also embraces the traces of sociolinguistics, anthropology, and social psychology (Haugh, Kadar, & Terkourafi, 2021).

Commonly, Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983) seem to be perceived as the precursors of sociopragmatics as a research area today. However, Culpeper (2021)

argues that Austin's (1962, 1975) work on speech acts may evoke the earlier echoes of sociopragmatics. Drawing attention to the fact that appropriacy is becoming associated with sociopragmatics gradually, Culpeper (2021) elaborates on the following excerpt from Austin (1975, p. 8), which highlights the relation between the circumstances and the appropriacy of the utterances:

Speaking generally, it is always necessary that the *circumstances* in which the words are uttered should be in some way, always, *appropriate*, and it is very commonly necessary that either the speaker himself or other persons should also perform certain *other* actions, whether 'physical' or 'mental' actions or even acts of uttering further words.

Culpeper (2021) also notes that sociopragmatics deals with roles, activities, social dimensions, which are roughly discussed in Austin's (1975) work. Although there are such discussions on several scholars who signal sociopragmatics earlier, the initial explicit discussion on sociopragmatics is frequently, if not mostly, attributed to Leech (1983). Leech (1983) provides a distinction within the field of pragmatics. In that, he uses the term '*general pragmatics*' above the other two sub-categories, pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics.¹

Leech (1983, p. 10) uses the term general pragmatics to denote "the general conditions of the communicative use of language." On the other hand, he describes sociopragmatics as the "sociological interface of pragmatics," while pragmalinguistics is what language resources supply for conveying certain illocutions (Leech, 1983, p. 10). According to Leech (1983), sociopragmatics is related to sociology, while pragmalinguistics is related to grammar. Leech (1983) asserts that general pragmatics excludes local conditions on language use and contends that sociopragmatics deals with these local conditions which vary in different cultures, in different social situations, and so forth.

One may be forgiven to be in hesitation about the need for the emergence of sociopragmatics as a separate field, since the traditional definitions of pragmatics are confusingly similar to that of sociopragmatics. For instance, Culpeper (2021) argues that if pragmatics is a "general cognitive, social, and cultural perspective on linguistic phenomena in relation to their usage in forms of behaviour" (Verschueren, 1999, p. 7), and if it is "societally oriented and societally bound linguistics" (Mey, 1998, p. 724),

¹ Leech (1983) articulates it with a hyphen between as *socio-pragmatics*. However, following the current trend as Culpeper (2021), we recognize the solid articulation as *sociopragmatics*.

then one may claim that sociopragmatics is redundant. In this sense, it is important to clear out these concepts and draw the demarcation between them. To this end, Holmes (2018) attempts to draw the boundaries between these fields. As a starting point, it is beneficial to distinguish pragmatics from sociolinguistics, as described by Thomas (1995, p. 185):

We could say that sociolinguistics is mainly concerned with the systematic linguistic correlates of relatively *fixed* and *stable* social variables (such as region of origin, social class, ethnicity, sex, age) on the way an individual speaks. Pragmatics, on the other hand, is mainly concerned with describing the linguistic correlates of relatively *changeable* features of that same individual (such as relative status, social role) and the way in which the speaker exploits his/her (socio)linguistic repertoire in order to achieve a particular goal.

Thomas (1995, p. 185) also argues that “pragmatics is parasitic upon sociolinguistics,” that is, sociolinguistics deals with the repertoire of linguistic resources that a speaker has, while pragmatics is concerned with what speakers do using these linguistic resources. Besides, it can be concluded that sociolinguistics dwells upon the static social variables, while pragmatics focuses on the dynamic matters which may change in relation to the shifts in context.

A recent discussion on the relationship between sociolinguistics, pragmatics, and sociopragmatics has been conducted by Holmes (2018), who asserts that sociopragmatics can fill the area where sociolinguistics and pragmatics overlap, as can be illustrated as in Figure 2.1.

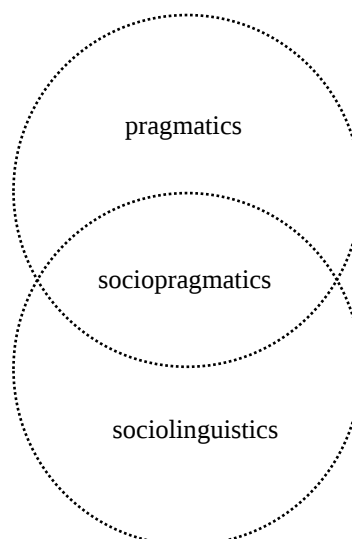


Figure 2. 1. Sociopragmatics at the intersection of sociolinguistics and pragmatics

The cognitive-oriented side of pragmatics (i.e., pragmalinguistics) is more interested in the encoding and inferencing processes, while the society-oriented side of pragmatics coincides with sociolinguistics, which generates the area of sociopragmatic research (Holmes, 2018). Indeed, Mey (2010) makes use of the term *societal pragmatics* to depict what we recognize as sociopragmatics today.

Sociopragmatics, in a broad sense, is the study of social conditions and variables in line with language use to mean things (Haugh, Kadar, & Terkourafi, 2021). One of the central points in sociopragmatics is the evaluation of inappropriateness and (un)acceptability of interactional actions (Haugh, Kadar, & Terkourafi, 2021). Elaborating on the previous definitions and discussing the current understanding of the phenomenon from several perspectives, Culpeper (2021, p. 27) suggests a possible definition of sociopragmatics:

Sociopragmatics is positioned on the more social side of pragmatics, standing in contrast to the more linguistic side. It is focussed on the construction and understanding of meanings arising from interactions between language (or other semiotic resources) and socio-cultural phenomena. It is centrally concerned with situated interaction, especially local, meso-level contexts (e.g., frames, activity types, genres). It often considers norms emerging in such contexts, how they are exploited by participants, and how they lead to evaluations of (in) appropriateness.

On a similar basis, sociopragmatic competence can be defined as the ability to “vary speech-act strategies according to the situational or social variables present in the act of communication” (Harlow, 1990, p. 328). In other words, sociopragmatic competence refers to the ability of selecting appropriate behaviour in line with the conventions of a society (Van Compernelle, 2014). According to Roever (2009), knowledge of the societal rules in language use, including appropriateness, content of the situation, facets of the participants, social traditions, and taboos, is one of the references of sociopragmatic competence.

In brief, sociopragmatic competence refers to the capacity of using linguistic properties in a “contextually appropriate fashion” (Delahaie, 2015, p. 255). Roever (2009) underlines that the breakdowns in sociopragmatic competence pose the danger of *sociopragmatic failure* for learners.

2.1.2.1. Sociopragmatic Failure

Thomas (1983) elaborates on sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics, approaching them on the grounds of pragmatic failure. In the same vein, Thomas

(1983) divides pragmatic failure into two categories, as pragmalinguistic failure and sociopragmatic failure. Thomas (1983) handles sociopragmatics with reference to culture, distinct from Leech (1983) who states local conditions while defining sociopragmatics. The following excerpt from Thomas (1983, p. 99) indicates that sociopragmatics research is intertwined with culture-specific motives:

While pragmalinguistic failure is basically a *linguistic* problem, caused by differences in the linguistic encoding of pragmatic force, sociopragmatic failure stems from cross-culturally different perceptions of what constitutes appropriate linguistic behaviour.

According to Thomas (1983), there are several cross-cultural sociopragmatic assessments essential to avoid sociopragmatic failure. These are the *size of imposition*, *tabus*, and *cross-culturally different assessments of relative power or social distance*.

The factor *size of imposition* denotes the perception of availability of goods. Using Goffman's (1967) terminology, Thomas (1983) asserts that the assessment of *free goods* and *non-free goods* leads speakers to employ different politeness strategies according to the relationships and situations. For instance, using the bathroom can be regarded as a free good in your family's house in most of the cases, that is, you do not need to seek permission or ask politely. However, this is not true if you are at someone else's house, as you are generally expected to ask '*Can I use the bathroom?*' in that situation. In different cultures, the assessment of what composes *free*, *non-free*, or *nearly free* goods differs. As Thomas (1983) exemplifies, cigarettes are regarded as free goods in the Soviet Union, so it means that a Russian can request a cigarette without concerning politeness, in that, the utterance '*give me a cigarette*' can be a usual expression. However, this behaviour may seem inappropriate and rude in other cultures. Based on Lakoff (1974), Thomas (1983) also notes that the concept of goods should not be restricted to materials, as requesting information can also be regarded as the goods in this matter. For instance, it may be viewed as a free good to ask married couples if they are planning to have a baby soon in Eastern cultures like Turkey, while this may sound inappropriate in other cultures where this information is regarded as non-free.

The other factor, as Thomas (1983) states, *tabus* are the topics which are not welcomed to discuss in a given culture, typically religious or sexual topics. These topics are not universal, in that it may be quite normal to talk about a certain topic in a given culture, while it may be a tabu topic for another culture. Tabu topics are serious

sources of sociopragmatic failure. For instance, age is an important matter for Chinese culture to maintain an appropriate attitude towards the other, while English speaking people highlight equality and do not welcome the questions about the age of people (Xiaowei & Zhengbing, 2020).

Cross-culturally different assessments of *relative power or social distance*, on the other hand, refers to the different perceptions of power and social distance between the interlocutors stemming from different cultural backgrounds (Thomas, 1983). In some cultures, the relationship between parents is more formal and parents expect their children to behave accordingly. However, in some other cultures, parents may be regarded as anybody else and children may behave without the concern of extra respect.

Thomas (1983) views it an essential division, as pragmalinguistic failure and sociopragmatic failure. Thomas (1983) suggests that pragmalinguistic failure is fundamentally a linguistic problem, caused by different linguistic encoding systems across languages, while sociopragmatic failure is about the miscalculation of socially appropriate language use. Gündüz (2016, p. 53) exemplifies this with a telephone conversation script in which one of the speakers performs a negative transfer from her native language while introducing herself, as excerpted in (3).

- (3) A: Hi, this is Mrs. Brown.
B: Hello, Mr. Brown. I am Hale.

The example by Gündüz (2016) in (3) can be regarded as a pragmalinguistic failure, since the speaker uses an incorrect linguistic expression while introducing herself instead of saying '*It is Hale*', which is a failure stemming from the negative transfer from the native language of the interlocutor. Not surprisingly, language learners' understanding and production of the target language are influenced by their native language pragmatic knowledge (Kasper, 1992).

On the other hand, sociopragmatic failure stems from the misjudgments of social conditions of language use, such as the social distance between the speakers, particular speech acts, or cost/benefit scale of acts (Marmaridou, 2011). Economidou-Kogetsidis (2011, p. 3200) notes the example excerpted in (4) to sample the sociopragmatic failure realized in email contexts written by Greek speakers of English to the academic faculty.

- (4) Mr. LN,
Did you talk to Dr....? what did she tell you?
Will she allow me to take sociolinguistics?
Thank you.
C.

In example (4) by Economidou-Koetsidis (2011, p. 3200), it can be seen that the student commits a sociopragmatic failure because of the high degree of direct language use, as a result of miscalculating the power distance between students and lecturers. Therefore, the directness of the request in the email can be perceived as rude and inappropriate behaviour by the receiver.

Sociopragmatics should be integrated into second/foreign language classrooms to prevent possible pragmatic failures (Gündüz, 2016). Otherwise, learners may transfer their native language norms to the target language, which may result in inappropriate situations while communicating in the target language.

2.1.2.2. Sociopragmatic Competence and Language Teaching

It has been a widely accepted opinion to integrate pragmatics into language teaching classrooms. As a sub-field of pragmatics, teaching sociopragmatics is no exception. Speech acts, conversational structure, conversational implicature, conversational management, discourse organization, and sociolinguistic aspects of language use, such as the choice of address forms are the six components of teaching sociopragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003).

The number of research on sociopragmatic competence in language teaching contexts has been growing recently, especially in interlanguage pragmatics literature. Apparently, requesting speech acts performed by language learners have been of particular interest to approach from a sociopragmatic point of view. For instance, Economidou-Koetsidis (2008) compares the modifications over the speech acts of requesting employed in asymmetrical social situations by Greek and British English students. Collecting the data through written discourse completion tasks, the study reveals that the two groups display significant differences between the use of *please* and consultative openers, as Greek learners use these devices less frequently than the native speakers do. Woodfield (2015) argues that this result is the cursor of sociopragmatic transfer. That is, while native learners of English tend to minimize the imposition of the request by several strategies in line with their sociocultural norms, Greek learners present different results in line with their own cultural norms.

In a Turkish EFL context, Göy, Zeyrek, and Otcu (2012) compare a group of Turkish EFL learners' requesting patterns to those of native speakers of English. The researchers design four hypothetical situations varying according to the sociopragmatic scales of power, distance, and imposition. According to the results of the study, learners suffer from the weak control over the language variation in tandem with the sociopragmatic demands of the situation in terms of the lexical selection. Although the participants exhibit unfavorable results in terms of the selection of lexical items, higher proficiency level of learners manage to perform situational variation in terms of syntactic modification.

Similarly, Lundell and Erman (2012) aim to explore the request modifications in unequal power situations employed by Swedish learners of English and French. In spite of the long residency in the target language, participants' use of syntactic and lexical strategies to minimize the imposition on the hearer has been found to be less in frequency than those of native speakers. This finding is interpreted in line with sociopragmatic competence, rather than pragmalinguistic competence. It is because of the finding that the learners have the knowledge of certain linguistic forms, however they are not competent enough to use these linguistic devices in tandem with the speech situation, which is related to sociopragmatic competence.

On the other hand, Hendricks (2008) examines the requests employed by Dutch learners of English. According to the results of the study, power distance between the speakers and the hearers is the primary factor in the modifications of requests. Considering the learners who employ less modification strategies than is sufficient, it is interpreted as the "experience problems in assessing how sociopragmatic factors determine the required level of politeness in the target culture" (Hendricks, 2008, p. 337). In other words, in cases where learners are not competent enough to assess the sociopragmatic factors appropriately, such as the power difference between the interlocutors, they may end up using less (or more) politeness strategies than is necessary (Hendricks, 2008).

Focusing on a less studied type of an act, Saleem, Anjum, and Tahir (2021) examine the Pakistani English as a second language (ESL) learners' responses to the apology speech acts with reference to the learners' sociopragmatic competence and compare the results to those of native English speakers. The results reveal that the Pakistani ESL learners perform sociopragmatic transfer from their own culture to the

target language while responding to the apology speech acts. It has been found that Pakistani ESL learners modify their speech by solidarity, conventions, religion, and rapport management more frequently than native English speakers do.

Eventually, the researchers suggest that the role of sociopragmatic competence in language teaching contexts should not be neglected. Similarly, Laabidi and Bousfiha (2020), who investigate the speech acts of complaining by Moroccan EFL learners from a sociopragmatic viewpoint, find out that the learners are affected by their own cultural norms while performing the speech acts in the target language.

Within the frames of language teaching and learning, discourse markers have also been viewed from a sociopragmatic perspective. Caliendo and Magliacane (2019) investigate the sociopragmatic competence development in Irish English of a number of university students who study abroad. The results of the study yield that studying abroad is beneficial to some extent for the development of sociopragmatic competence in terms of the use of discourse markers, however, the study reveals heterogeneous results. A small number of participants make progress in using certain discourse markers in a native-like way, while others reveal complicated results. The researchers argue that the reason for the underdevelopment of some participants may be related to the level of exposure to the target language and social entrepreneurship. That is, not every study abroad student may be socially active with the native speakers of that country, rather, they may be friends with the other international students. Caliendo and Magliacane (2019) argue that motivation, personality, and curiosity levels of the learners may influence the development of sociopragmatic and sociolinguistic competence of the language learners.

On a different basis, Lantz-Andersson (2018) focuses on the learners' sociopragmatic development through the learners' language use on social media. Zooming inside a social media group where learners post various contents, the study examines the learner language development outside the classroom and explores how this type of an environment affects the learners' sociopragmatic development through language plays. According to the results, Lantz-Andersson (2018) argues that social media posts include different types of discourse and communication, thus providing opportunities for learners to develop sociopragmatic competence, such as making jokes based on the trends over the world.

Pham and Yeh (2020) approach the sociopragmatic competence of Vietnamese EFL learners from a politeness-based viewpoint, and they examine the emails written by the learners. According to the results of the study, Vietnamese EFL learners suffer from native language transfer to the target language, as they are revealed to overuse certain lexical devices, and they use the honorific terms of address in an inappropriate way. Pham and Yeh (2020) argue that sociopragmatic knowledge is as important as linguistic knowledge, therefore, learners' awareness on the importance of sociopragmatic knowledge should be raised.

Using the address forms in a sociopragmatically appropriate way in the target language has also been of interest to several scholars. For instance, Mendes de Oliveira (2017) investigates the sociopragmatic failures by Brazilian learners of English. Exploring the views of the American teachers working in Brazil, the study reveals that the way Brazilian learners address their teachers has been perceived as inappropriate by the American teachers. Brazilian learners calling their teachers as *teacher* instead of Mr/Mrs + LN has been recognized as a rude behaviour by the teachers. It is because, as the author notes, Brazilian culture embraces the term *teacher* as an address form, since it both provides solidarity and respect at the same time in Brazilian culture. However, it is not typical to address teachers by their occupational titles in English language. Language learners may be aware of the address terms of deference and intimacy, however the way they use these terms is based on their calculation of the social roles, settings, and so forth, which are influenced by their own culture (Marmaridou, 2011). Besides, the role of sociopragmatics seems to be highlighted in language teaching materials in recent years as well, as Bababayli and Kızıltan (2020) examine the dialogues in Turkish and Azerbaijani EFL textbooks and provide a comparative sociopragmatic perspective.

As it is presented, a number of studies examine sociopragmatic competence of the language learners from various points of views, such as using discourse markers, performing certain speech acts, using address forms, and its acquisition in a study abroad context. Besides, several researchers have begun to pronounce the concept of politeness in relation to sociopragmatic competence (e.g., Pham & Yeh, 2020). In fact, Leech (2014) also discusses sociopragmatics within the framework of politeness in recent years, and he proposes a set of scales to assess the appropriate degree of sociopragmatic politeness.

2.2. Politeness

Politeness is the act of speaking or behaving in a way to give benefit or value to the other people, especially to those with whom we are interacting (Leech, 2014). Although there have been many debates on the definition of politeness and its acclaimed universality (Brown and Levinson, 1987) has been questioned from numerous aspects, it has been one of the central topics within the pragmatics literature and its nature has been viewed from various viewpoints.

According to Leech (2014), polite behaviour operates on certain features, thus he lists eight characteristics of politeness. First and foremost, politeness is *not obligatory*. That is, people can choose to be polite or impolite, and people are not likely to try to be polite unless there is a reason. However, as Leech (2014) argues, being polite is perceived to be a good behaviour in society. Leech (2014) exemplifies this with the applause given by the audience to an artist who finishes the performance, underlining that this behaviour is not inherently obligatory but practiced anyway even if the performance is poor. Secondly, there are situational *gradations* of politeness. Leech (2014) continues to draw the performance of an artist to exemplify. The applause and the cheering are the signals of appreciation and good evaluation of the performance, just as a prolonged applause and louder cheering would signal a higher degree of appreciation. That is, individuals can act politely, and in certain cases, they can act more or less politely.

Thirdly, polite behaviour is influenced by the *sense of what is normal*. In a sense, the ways and the degree of being polite are generally determined by the society for particular occasions. As mentioned, it is a conventionalized behaviour to give an applause after a performance whether it is good or not. In respect to this, the fourth characteristic of politeness by Leech (2014) is that it *depends on the situation*. For instance, as Leech (2014) exemplifies, imagine a football player in the stadium who fails to score. In this case, the audience feels no regret booing the player, while it is not common to hear booing after a poor artistic performance.

Fifth, polite behaviour operates on *reciprocal asymmetry* between the interlocutors. In other words, giving high value to others, or attributing low value to self is considered as a polite behaviour. Back to the performance artist, the artist's bowing as a response to the applause indicates modesty and attributing low value to the artist's own performance, while the audience attributes high value to the

performance. The sixth characteristic of politeness is argued to be a kind of a *battle of politeness*. Leech (2014) argues that politeness can manifest itself in repetitive behaviour, and exemplifies this with a situation in which a person accepts an invitation from another person, finally after declining the invitation twice before.

Seventh, polite behaviour generally involves a *transaction of value* between the two parties. Leech (2014) states that linguistic politeness studies mainly focus on certain speech acts, which typically involve this kind of a transaction, such as requesting, thanking, and inviting. Lastly, Leech (2014) argues that politeness is concerned with preserving a *balance* of value between the participants. This can be exemplified with the speech act of thanking, that is, politeness occurs because of a kind behaviour performed by the other person before, thus the debt is paid by thanking (Leech, 2014).

The above-mentioned characteristics by Leech (2014) can be treated as the politeness in both verbal and non-verbal politeness in human interaction. Within the linguistics literature, politeness is predominantly viewed from the aspect of verbal polite behaviour, that is, linguistic politeness. The studies on politeness in the linguistics sense heavily draw on the linguistic politeness, including the models and the theories proposed to formulate its structure.

2.2.1. Theories of Politeness

Politeness phenomenon has gained remarkable interest within the last couple of decades, and it has become one of the mostly researched topics in pragmatics. A number of scholars have proposed theories or models formulating politeness, among whom Lakoff (1973), Leech (1983), and Brown and Levinson (1987) are the most frequently cited works. Before dealing with these prominent works on politeness, it is beneficial to understand the underlying concepts, such as the notion of *face* by Goffman (1967) and *the Cooperative Principle* by Grice (1975). It is because most of the ensuing works on politeness are connected to these concepts in some way, even the definitions of politeness, e.g., “irrespective of its specific aspects, ‘politeness’ has become a cover term in pragmatics for whatever choices are made in language use in relation to the need to preserve people's face in general, i.e., their public self-image” by Verschuren (1999, p. 45), which bears the traces of Goffman’s (1967) notion of face.

Indeed, Wardhaugh (1998) notes that the growing body of research on politeness today owes a great deal to the notion of face put forward by Goffman (1967). What Goffman (1967, p. 5) refers to as face is “the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself” on the occasion of a particular contact. In other words, in face-to-face interaction, people are like the actors in a play who attempt to boost their image seen by the audience. The countless number of social interactions people encounter in the world require them to take a *line* eventually, which is “a pattern of verbal and nonverbal acts by which he expresses his view of the situation and through this is evaluation of the participants, especially himself” (Goffman, 1967, p. 5). In this sense, the term face means the way people behave according to their lines. Goffman (1967) argues that the maintenance of the face is a condition of social interactions.

On the other hand, Eelen (2001) states that Lakoff (1973) can be considered as one of the preliminary scholars of modern politeness theory, notably because of her pragmatic perspective to the phenomenon. Lakoff’s (1973) politeness model is one of the models which embrace the Gricean school of thought, that is, it is associated with the conversation maxims proposed by Grice (1975).

Supposing that conversations normally subsume the succession of connected talk exchanges, thus rational, which bear the same direction and cooperative effort recognized by each participant, Grice (1975) introduces a general principle which is expected to be followed by the participants of a conversation, which is called the Cooperative Principle (CP). This principle addresses the speech participants who are expected to make conversational contribution as required, in the context it takes place, and in the same direction as the mutual purpose. Expanding the CP into a more sub-categorical constitution, Grice (1975) composes four specific categories which are *Quantity*, *Quality*, *Relation*, and *Manner*, all of which include sub-maxims.

The amount of the information to be supplied is labelled as the category of Quantity, which suggests that the informativeness should be as is required and not more informative than is necessary. Grice (1975) highlights that the latter one is disputable, since over-informativeness is not a violence against the CP, but a waste of time. The category of Quality refers to the truth value of the transaction, i.e., it suggests that one should make conversational contribution as long as it is believed to be true, and those which are false or lacking evidence should not be said. The category of Relation simply denotes what the name suggests, that is, being relevant to the topic of

the conversation while making conversational contribution. Finally, the category of Manner deals with *how* the contribution is made, rather than *what* contribution is made, which mainly suggests that the contribution should be made briefly, orderly, clearly, and unambiguously. Grice (1975) notes that the CP may be augmented by the addition of further maxims, such as the maxim of politeness, which is an advice taken into consideration by Lakoff (1973).

Lakoff (1973) emphasizes the importance of pragmatics, which she views as important as semantic and syntactic rules. Therefore, she advocates the idea that semantic and syntactic rules should be complemented by the addition of pragmatic rules, as well as the addition of politeness rules into Grice's CP. To this end, Lakoff (1973) lists two components under the rules of pragmatic competence which are to *be clear* and *be polite*. The former rule relies on the CP proposed by Grice (1975) under the name *rules of conversation*, and she views herself "lucky," since the rules of this maxim have been already formulated (p. 297). The latter rule, which concerns politeness and social factors, covers three sub-rules. These are listed as '*Don't impose*', '*Give options*', and '*Make A feel good – be friendly*'. The model proposed by Lakoff (1973) can be drawn as in Figure 2.2.

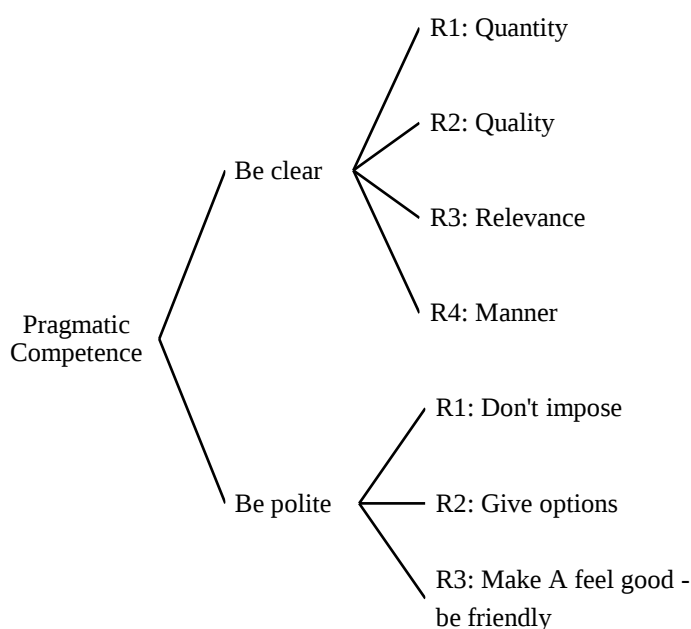


Figure 2. 2. Lakoff's (1973) model of pragmatic competence

Analogous to Lakoff's (1973) mentality, Leech (1983) approaches the politeness phenomenon from a pragmatic point of view with an attempt to set up a model of general pragmatics. However, in contrast with Lakoff (1973), Leech (1983) does not attempt to formulate a strictly rule-based pragmatic competence, as he argues that "semantics is rule-governed (= grammatical); general pragmatics is principle-controlled (= rhetorical)" (Leech, 1983, p. 5). The distinction between the two is that the rules are descriptive, while principles are normative and dependent on their application (Eelen, 2001). Therefore, Leech's (1983) approach to the study of general pragmatics is rhetorical, which means primarily the use of language in a general sense and everyday conversation. Indeed, he construes general pragmatics as "the general conditions of communicative language use" (Leech, 1983, p. 10). Leech (1983) distinguishes two types of rhetoric, one of which is the *textual rhetoric* and the other one is the *interpersonal rhetoric*. Textual rhetoric includes *the Processability Principle*, *the Clarity Principle*, *the Economy Principle*, and *the Expressivity Principle*; interpersonal rhetoric, on the other hand, includes the CP, *the Politeness Principle* (PP) and *the Irony Principle*. A visual representation of Leech's (1983) model is shown in Figure 2.3.

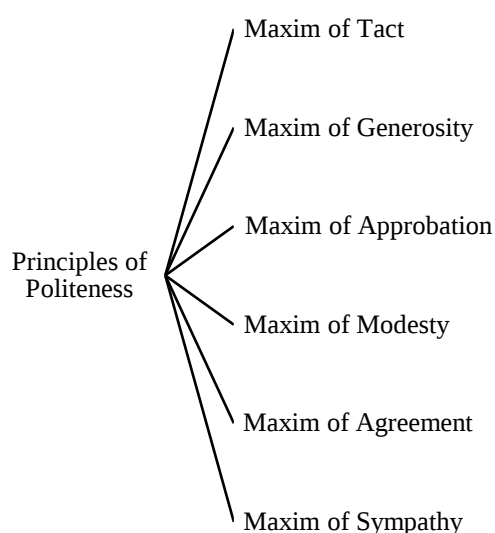


Figure 2. 3. Principles of politeness by Leech (1983)

As it is seen in Figure 2.3, Leech (1983) considers the CP and the PP (i.e., rules of conversation and rules of politeness in Lakoff's sense) as the principles of interpersonal rhetoric, while Lakoff (1973) views them as forming pragmatic

competence. The reason why Leech (1983) adds the PP to the CP is similar to that of Lakoff's (1973), i.e., it helps the interpretation of the conversation where the CP alone is not sufficient (Watts, 2003).

Leech's (1983) PP includes six maxims which are all related to the cost/benefit scale between the speakers and the hearers. In fact, according to Leech (1983), politeness is centered upon the act of minimizing the cost and maximizing the benefit to the speakers or hearers. Firstly, *the Tact Maxim* suggests minimizing the cost to the other, thus maximizing the benefit to the other, and it is applicable to Searle's directive and commissive illocutions. The example in (5) can be observed to understand the operation of the Tact Maxim.

- (5) *You know, I think you should* get a new computer. This one is so slow and it is making you waste a lot of time.

It can be argued that the speaker of the utterance in (5) minimizes the cost to the hearer with the help of pragmatic markers, namely, *you know* which provides solidarity, and an attitudinal predicate, *I think*; and the modal verb *should*. Besides, the speaker maximizes the benefit to the hearer by indicating that buying a new computer would be a good thing for him in terms of saving time.

Secondly, *the Generosity Maxim* suggests minimizing the benefit to the self, thus maximizing the cost to the self. The example in (6) can be given to demonstrate the Generosity Maxim.

- (6) Hey, why don't you *let me do laundry*?

Third, *the Approbation Maxim* suggests minimizing the dispraise of the other, and maximizing the praise of the other. The example in (7) can be given to present the Approbation Maxim.

- (7) I know *you're a genius*, if you can't solve this problem, then *nobody would*!

Fourth, *the Modesty Maxim* suggests minimizing the praise of the self and maximizing the praise of the other. Consider the example in (8).

- (8) You have such a lovely voice. *I wish I had such a voice*.

Fifth, *the Agreement Maxim* suggests minimizing the disagreement between the speakers and hearers, as the example in (9).

(9) *Yeah, you certainly have the right to do this. Aren't you missing a point...*

Sixth, *the Sympathy Maxim* suggests minimizing the antipathy between the speakers and hearers, as in (10).

(10) *Although I said all those things before, I am really sorry for what happened.*

Leech (1983) also states several scales which should accompany each of the maxims of the PP. These are *the Cost-Benefit Scale*, which corresponds to the cost or the benefit the utterance grants for the hearer; *the Optionality Scale*, which deals with the degree of choice the speaker gives to the hearer by the utterance; *the Indirectness Scale*, which measures the effort by the hearer to decode message sent by the speaker; *the Authority Scale*, which is related to the speaker's right to impose on the hearer; *the Social Distance Scale*, which measures the familiarity and sincerity between the speaker and hearer.

Watts (2003) argues that Leech's (1983) model is primarily concerned with the speech act types, which are inherently polite or impolite, but it suffers from the problem that participants are not always aware of the degree and the type of politeness required for a particular speech act, a case which is partially compensated in Brown and Levinson's (1987) approach to politeness.

The theory of politeness proposed by Brown and Levinson's (1987) is frequently referred to as *face-saving* theory, as it heavily carries the traces of Goffman's (1967) notion of face, which has been discussed earlier in this chapter. It also follows the path paved by Grice (1975) with the CP, as do Lakoff (1973) and Leech (1983). Eelen (2001) argues that Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory is absolutely the most influential theory composed on politeness, regarding its applications, critiques, revisions, or reactions it has received.

Brown and Levinson (1987) postulate a universal person model who is able to choose an optimal linguistic style which leads him to his communicative goal, namely, a Model Person (MP). In other words, the MP means the speaker in Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory, therefore, the focus is the speaker in this theory. The MP is

supposed to measure the threats to the participants' (and his own) face, and he is supposed to minimize these face threats by choosing appropriate strategies.

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), there are two types of face a person can have, which are *positive face* and *negative face*. Positive face symbolizes the desire to be appreciated and approved of in society, while negative face refers to the desire to be free and away from imposition. Therefore, as Watts (2003) notes, the purpose of politeness strategies is to enhance the hearer's positive face and to avoid threatening the hearer's freedom. Thus, the MP has to measure the threats of what he is about to say and decide to deploy an appropriate strategy or avoid saying it entirely. As Eelen (2001) outlines, the theory posits that most speech acts are naturally a face threat to either the speaker's or the hearer's face, and redressing these face-threats is the key point of being polite. In this vein, Brown and Levinson (1987) compose a set of strategies that the MP can choose while performing a face threatening act (FTA). Figure 2.4 demonstrates the strategies proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987).

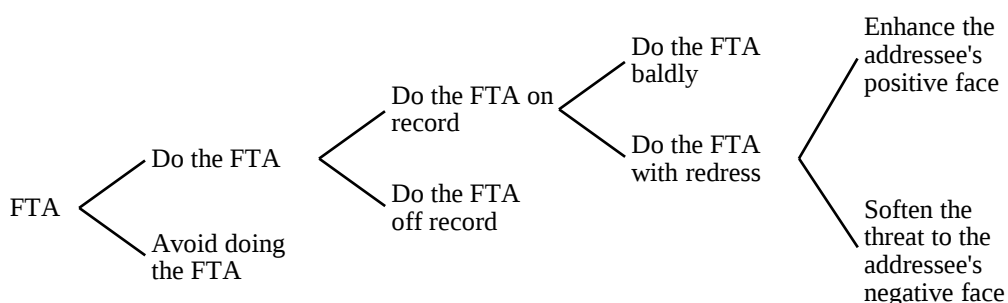


Figure 2. 4. Politeness strategies by Brown and Levinson (1987)

As Figure 2.4 demonstrates, when the MP is about to perform the FTA, s/he is first to decide whether to do it or avoid doing it at all. After deciding to do it, the MP can do it in an explicit way (i.e., going on record), or in an implicit way (i.e., going off record). Doing the FTA off record means letting the addressee infer the meaning that the MP encodes in an implicit way, rather than saying it explicitly. On the other hand, doing the FTA on record means encoding the message explicitly in words, which provides two options for the MP. One of these options is to do the FTA baldly, which means doing it directly without redress or politeness concerns. Imperatives can be regarded as baldly performed FTAs. The other option is to modify the FTA, that is, redressing it with politeness enhancing devices. In specific, doing the FTA with

redressing actions includes two options, *positive politeness* and *negative politeness*. Employing positive politeness strategies refers to the act of enhancing the positive face (i.e., the image of people which seeks for social appreciation) of the addressee, such as modifying the act with compliments. Negative politeness strategies, on the other hand, refer to the acts of minimizing the threat to the negative face (i.e., the face which seeks freedom and avoidance of imposition) of the addressee. An application of Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness strategies on a sample situation is in Figure 2.5.

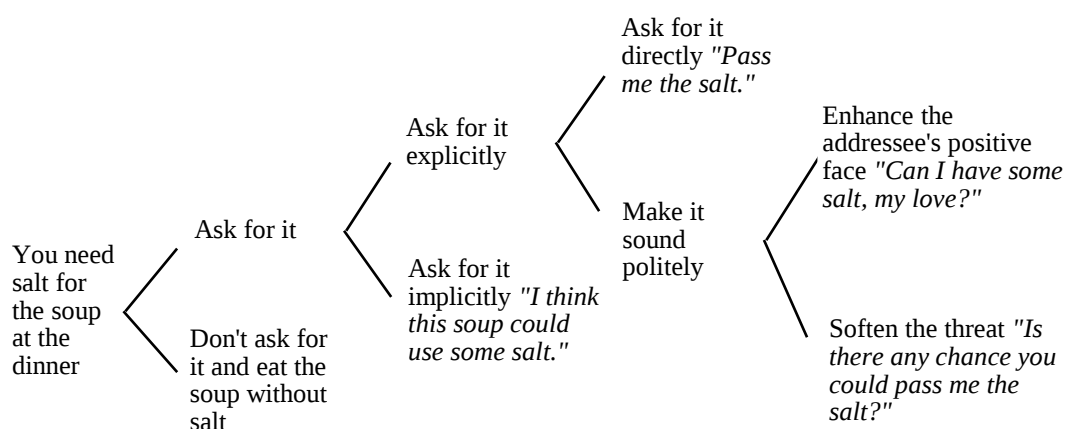


Figure 2. 5. An application of politeness strategies by Brown and Levinson (1987)

Employing positive and negative politeness can be done by several linguistic modifiers. Predominantly, the syntactic modifications to lessen the directness of the utterance are frequently used in negative politeness strategies. On the other hand, lexical modifiers to enhance solidarity in positive politeness or lessen the degree of imposition in negative politeness are quite helpful, such as the use of pragmatic force modifiers as in example (5) above. Noted by Lin (2020), the intensifying and weakening functions of pragmatic force modifiers have been associated with positive and negative politeness, as pragmatic force modifiers are the “linguistic devices, such as *actually*, *sort of*, or *you know* that can be used to strengthen or weaken the force with which propositions are expressed while at the same time realizing manifold social pragmatic purposes” (Lin, 2010, p. 1173).

In terms of being polite, Brown and Levinson (1987) elaborate on the social factors which they argue to have impacts on the choice of politeness strategies in interactions. These are the power relations between the interlocutors (i.e., the P factor),

the social distance between the interlocutors (i.e., the D factor), and the rank of imposition (i.e., the R factor) of the FTA on the addressee. Brown and Levinson (1987) generate a formula to assess the weightiness of the FTA, which gives clues about the degree of politeness strategies to be employed. In the equation, the X represents the FTA:

$$W_X = D(S, H) + P(H, S) + R_X$$

The equation suggests that the seriousness of the FTA increases in direct proportion to the D, P, and R factors. That is to say, the weightiness of the FTA is lower in a situation where the D and P distances are low than in a situation where there is a high D and P relationship between the interlocutors. However, this type of computation has been criticized on the grounds of several aspects by a number of scholars (e.g., Watts, Ide & Ehlich, 1992; Holtgraves & Yang, 1990; Fraser, 1990).

Although such computation seems to be found deficient from several aspects, the social factors included in Brown and Levinson's (1987) model appear to be cited in many studies, thus it can be argued that they are useful in understanding the dynamics of politeness variation in different circumstances. In fact, a recent model of politeness including the variants of Brown and Levinson's (1987) P, D, and R factors proposed by Leech (2014), which concerns the appropriate degree of sociopragmatic politeness.

2.2.2. Sociopragmatic Politeness

Sociopragmatic politeness is the evaluation of politeness regarding the context in which the interaction occurs (Leech, 2014). On the contrary, pragmalinguistic politeness is concerned with the meanings of the utterances out of context, i.e., their semantic interpretations (Leech, 2014).

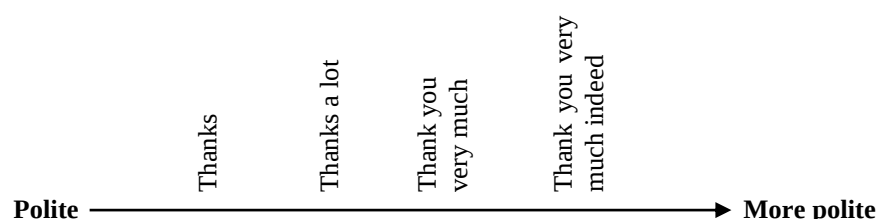


Figure 2. 6. Thanking expressions on a politeness axis

Leech (2014) provides a more comprehensible distinction between pragmalinguistic politeness and sociopragmatic politeness with the speech act of thanking. The politeness degree of thanking expressions, also mentioned by Leech (2014, p. 12), can be illustrated as in Figure 2.6.

From the pragmalinguistic point of view of politeness (i.e., context-free politeness), as Leech (2014) argues, *'Thank you very much'* is more polite than *'Thanks'* based on their semantic contents. However, Leech (2014) argues that an expression like *'Thank you very much'* can be an impolite expression in line with the context of the utterance as well, highlighting the position of sociopragmatic politeness. For instance, imagine yourself thanking your friend ironically for spilling coffee over your jacket, or consider the dialogue in (11).

- (11) A: I think I just broke one of your trinkets.
B: Thank you very much, Sarah.

It is clear that the thanking expression in the dialogue (11) is not intended to be more polite and signal appreciation, on the contrary, it is used to indicate irony without concerning politeness. Leech (2014) also argues that besides the use of polite expressions to cause offense, some expressions can sound more polite than necessary, thus over-politeness may occur in certain situations, for instance, consider a situation where someone borrows a pen to write something and another situation where someone is lent a holiday home to stay for a month. In the former case, saying *'Thank you very much'* may sound over-polite given the low transaction of the value, whereas in the latter case it may sound quite appropriate, yet again hinting at the role of sociopragmatic politeness (Leech, 2014).

The degree of appropriate politeness varies according to several contextual parameters of the interaction. Leech (2014) proposes a set of sociopragmatic scales to assess the appropriate degree of politeness which includes five parameters. These scales are vertical distance, horizontal distance, cost/benefit, rights/obligations, and self-territory and other-territory. The set of sociopragmatic scales to assess the appropriate degree of politeness proposed by Leech (2014) includes several relabellings of the previously discussed parameters in politeness research. In addition, Leech (2014) expands the conventional view of social variables of polite behaviour by including two more parameters in the model.

2.2.2.1. Vertical Distance

What Leech (2014) labels as *vertical distance* is similar to the P factor of Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory. In fact, it should be remembered that the power dimension has been referred to as *vertical* long before Leech (2014), by Brown (1965, p. 57) who puts it as "if status is the vertical of social relationship, solidarity is the horizontal." Similarly, Spencer-Oatey (1996) occasionally uses the term *vertical* for this factor to denote its broad dimensions and to avoid restricting it with specific concepts, such as power, status, or authority. Indeed, Leech (2014) also uses the term vertical distance to cover several dimensions including status, power, role, age, and so forth. Nevertheless, literature presents that this dimension has been popularly referred to as power, as well as social power and status in many studies (Spencer-Oatey, 1996).

According to Brown and Gilman (1960), power is the degree of one's ability to control the behaviour of one another, and wealth, age, sex, and institutionalized roles can be the source of power. Brown and Gilman (1960) examine this dimension with its relation to the use of pronominal address forms, and they present various examples on the issue. They basically note that a higher status person uses *T forms* (singular *you*) and receives *V forms* (polite plural *you*) of address. Brown and Gilman (1960) present many examples of this practice, including the way noble class gives T forms to the common people and receive V forms in return in medieval Europe. In fact, address practice has been frequently studied in relation to power dimension. One of the recent contributions to the field, Bresin (2021) considers the power dimension as a key concept in investigating the address forms in Italian service encounters, noting that it greatly helps to understand the asymmetrical relationships. On the other hand, Formentelli and Hajek (2015) reveal that the perception of power distance between students and academics leads to the non-reciprocal use of address forms, in that, students use V forms, while they receive T forms in return.

Likewise, Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 77) contend that power is the degree of one's ability to "impose his own plans or self-evaluation (face)" at the cost of the interlocutor's plans or self-evaluation. Analogous to Brown and Gilman (1960), they underline the controlling aspect of power. Furthermore, they even exemplify this controlling ability by dividing it into two sections as material control and metaphysical control, where the former one refers to the economic distributions and physical force and the latter one to the control of the actions of one another. Similar to Cansler and

Stiles (1981), Brown and Levinson (1987) also hold the view that power may be absolute or context-dependent, giving the example that a bank manager normally is ranked as higher than a worker in terms of the power axis. However, this situation is reversed when the low ranked worker pulls a gun. They assume that power is more related to the roles or role sets, rather than individuals.

Cansler and Stiles (1981) focus on the *status* or *social rank* aspect of the vertical distance scale. The authors state that people's relative status or social rank can be high or low in accordance with the status of the interlocutor, while their absolute status is stable. For instance, a teacher's relative status is high when he speaks with one of his students, however, it is low when he interacts with the headmaster of the school, although the rank of being a teacher holds true in both situations. Cansler and Stiles (1981) contend that presumptuous language use by the higher status person towards the lower status person in a dyad is regarded as socially appropriate, while the opposite of this situation is not accepted. For instance, a trainee teacher may receive criticism, judgements, or advice about his way of teaching by the supervising teacher who observes the lesson, while this is unlikely to happen when the trainee teacher observes the lesson taught by his supervisor teacher.

Leech (1983), on the other hand, construes the vertical axis to the *authority* of one interlocutor over the other interlocutor. Instead of mentioning concepts like higher status or lower status as Brown and Gilman (1960) do, Leech (1983, p. 126) expresses the pronoun address exchange with the example of "someone in authority." He also notes that the limits of being in authority are determined by the recognized roles and duties in society. He exemplifies this with a lecturer who might reasonably ask one of his students to submit the essay by the due date. However, it would be unreasonable if he asked one of the students to make a cup of coffee for him, for this request being not a part of his recognized role.

Thomas (1995) also makes use of the concept of authority while discussing power in interactions and relates this phenomenon to indirect language use. People tend to use a more indirect language when they complain to their employers about them being late all the time, while they do not do so in a similar case with their brothers (Thomas, 1995). It is because there is an authority difference between them and their employers, which is a higher difference than there is with their brothers. In that, anything that damages the hierarchical position of the former may result in an

undesirable situation for people. Likewise, as Spencer-Oatey (1996) notes, Leachy and Applegate (1991) are among the authors who mention the concept of authority while discussing the vertical dimension.

It is justifiable to claim that all these conceptions are often related to each other, if not identical. Referring to them with an umbrella term, vertical distance has been cited to influence human interactions in several areas of language use. It manifests itself while requesting (e.g., Byon, 2004), apologizing (e.g., Holmes, 1990), refusing (e.g., Honglin, 2007), as well as addressing. In the light of the discussed points, vertical distance scale seems necessary in such a model to assess the appropriate degree of sociopragmatic politeness.

2.2.2.2. Horizontal Distance

Distance has been cited as one of the important factors affecting human relations and language use. Several scholars have contributed to the field by examining this dimension in relation to language use, although they use different expressions referring to it. Several researchers use the term solidarity, while others use distance, and some others use intimacy or familiarity. Horizontal distance in Leech's (2014) model is a scale which embraces many of these conceptions.

Brown and Gilman (1960, p. 257) refer to this dimension as *solidarity* which they claim to use for "general relationship." Brown (1965, p. 57) attempts to create an understanding of what solidarity is by stating the question "*Who are the people whose welfare is of great importance to you and who are the people for whom you are less concerned?*" (italics added). Several grounds may lead people to solidarity, such as similar education and occupation, kinship, age, and nationality (Brown, 1965). Similarities between people can be the ground of certain solidarity, however, it should be noted that not every similarity can achieve this. Similarities which make people like-minded are the grounds of solidarity, while eye color is not (Brown and Gilman, 1960). Brown and Gilman (1960) focus on how this dimension affects the use of address forms, and they assume that a certain level of solidarity leads people to use mutual T forms. When there is no solidarity between the interlocutors, the address forms become more formal and V formed.

In contrast with Brown and Gilman (1960), Leech (1983) holds the opposite perspective to express the horizontal axis, as he calls it *social distance*. In line with

this, Brown and Levinson (1987) also attribute this dimension to social distance, as known as the D factor in their theory of politeness. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), social distance is related to the frequency of interaction and exchanging materialistic or non-materialistic goods. They also contend that this dimension is context-dependent. For instance, two American people who do not know each other probably keep their distance towards the other when they encounter each other in the streets of New York, while they may even give a hug to each other if they meet in another country (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 80) give an example to demonstrate the effect of social distance factor on language with the coding of the same question:

- (12) 1. Excuse me, would you by any chance have the time?
2. Got the time, mate?

In example (12), we see that when social distance is reduced between the interlocutors, as in the second question in example (12), the language use appears to be more informal with an additional endearment address form, in contrast with the first question. Thomas (1995, p. 129) presents another example which demonstrates the difference in language use between talking to a close friend and a stranger when we need change for the coffee machine:

- (13) 1. Got change of fifty pence, DB?
2. Excuse me, could you change fifty pence for me? I need tens or fives for the coffee machine.

In example (13), it is noticeable that when the social distance between the interlocutors increases, the request becomes more indirect, thus sounding more polite. However, the first question in example (13.1) demonstrates the highly direct and informal language use, since the social distance between the interlocutors is supposedly low.

Dimension of social distance has witnessed its variants being labelled as *high* or *low* frequently to express the degree of closeness or distance between the interlocutors. For instance, Brown and Levinson (1987) use *high distance* to express a relationship where interlocutors are not close, and they use *low distance* for cases where there is a close relationship. In parallel with this, in Roever's (2015) terminology, *high social distance* means unfamiliarity between the interlocutors, such as the strangers on a bus or the customers in a shop, while *low distance* refers to the relationship in which the

interlocutors know each other well, such as housemates. Roever (2015) also adds another degree of social distance, which is *medium social distance*, referring to the interlocutors who vaguely know each other, such as a distant relative.

It is clear that the definitions and examples by Roever (2015) are controversial and far from being certain for most of the situations. In fact, Spencer-Oatey (1996) notes that role relationship illustrations are frequently used by the researchers, a case which aids understanding but somewhat bears dangers because these relationships are perceived and classified differently by different researchers. For instance, as stated by Spencer-Oatey (1996), friends are cited as having a close relationship by Olshtain (1989), while as intermediate by Holmes (1990).

On the other hand, drawing from Cody and McLaughlin (1980), Baxter (1984) underlines the concept of intimacy, while Leichthy and Applegate (1991) mentions the concept of familiarity. Although different expressions are used by different researchers, it can be said that these concepts are interrelated, and they refer to the same dimension. Bearing all these interrelated concepts, Leech (2014) includes this dimension as horizontal distance in his model of sociopragmatic politeness. As well as vertical distance, horizontal distance plays a key role while using the language in many areas, such as addressing (e.g., Keshavarz, 2001).

2.2.2.3. Cost/Benefit

Leech (2014) suggests that the value of the transaction between the interlocutors partly binds the assessment of politeness. That is, people tend to be polite in parallel with the degree of the value of the thing they ask for. Leech (2014) states that cost/benefit scale is defined by cultural and situational norms. In this regard, Thomas (1995) makes use of Goffman's (1967) concepts of free and non-free goods and reminds us that the scope of free and non-free goods can be extended to information rather than just materials, an idea based on Lakoff (1974). In that, asking questions about someone's income, religion, or marital status may rank high imposition on the hearers in some countries like Britain, while in other countries it may not (Thomas, 1995). Leech (2014) also states that umbrellas in Japan, cigarettes in Russia, and cars in the US are not regarded as valuable as they are in other cultures, therefore they can be easily borrowed or given.

Thomas (1995) also relates this scale to the direct and indirect use of language. She contends that people are generally more polite and indirect when they ask for ten pounds than they do for ten pence, or they are more indirect when they ask someone to do a translation than they are when they ask someone to pass the newspaper. In this regard, Thomas (1995, p. 130) illustrates:

- (14) 1. Shut the windows, Jen.
2. Do you think you could find the time to take those invitations to the printers?

In example (14), the directness of the utterance varies in line with the cost it poses for the hearer. In that, closing a window is much easier than dealing with the printing work that the interlocutor asks for in the second question in example (14.2). Since the value of the transaction in the second question in example (14.2) is greater, the interlocutor uses a more indirect, thus polite, language.

Brown and Levinson (1987) include the R factor in their theory, which corresponds to the cost/benefit scale by Leech (2014). Brown and Levinson (1987) also note that this dimension is culturally and situationally defined. There are two types of ranking: “a ranking of impositions in proportion to the expenditure (a) of services (including the provision of time) and (b) of goods (including non-material goods like information, as well as the expression of regard and other face payments)” (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 77). Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 81) illustrate the effect of rank of imposition on the language style used by holding the P and D scales constant as in example (15).

- (15) 1. Look, I’m terribly sorry to bother you but would there be any chance of your lending me just enough money to get a railway ticket to get home? I must have dropped my purse and I just don’t know what to do.
2. Hey, got change for a quarter?

In example (15), it can be seen that when the imposition is greater, the speaker uses a more polite and indirect language. Since asking for a quarter change imposes the hearer to a lesser degree when compared to asking for money to get home, the indirectness and the politeness of the language vary in these two situations.

Leech (1983) also provides a framework for the cost/benefit scale. Viewing the dimension from another perspective, Leech (1983) states that there are two distinctive

approaches to the cost/benefit scale, one from the aspect of the speaker, and one from the hearer. In other words, it means that the cost/benefit scale can vary according to the utterance. There may be utterances which pose a cost to the speaker while posing a benefit to the hearer, or there may be utterances which pose a benefit to the hearer while keeping the speaker neutral. Leech (1983, p. 124) uses arrows for the cost/benefit scale as ($\uparrow$) meaning beneficial and ($\downarrow$) meaning cost as in (16).

- (16) Would you like to use my electric drill? ($\uparrow h$, $\downarrow s$)
I'd use an electric drill if I were you. ($\uparrow h$)

Leech (1983) states that the second case in example (16) which the hearer gets the benefit while no cost at all occurs for the speaker can be described as an advice, supported by Trosborg (1994, p. 15) who states that “the purpose of a request is to involve the hearer in some future action which has positive consequences for the speaker and may imply costs to the hearer, whereas a piece of advice or a warning is intended to be in the sole interest of the hearer.” Speaking of requests, Vine (2004) asserts that requests and directives generally provide benefit for the speaker, while “a request or an order is more or less at cost to the addressee” (Bax, 1986, p. 675).

Leech (1983) also underlines that impositives and commissives typically result in a transaction between the speaker and the hearer, a case in which one of the interlocutors would be at cost and the other at benefit, inevitably. Therefore, in such cases, it is not necessary to distinguish the scales, as $\uparrow h$ would inevitably lead to $\downarrow s$ and $\uparrow s$ would lead to $\downarrow h$.

Roever (2015) argues that what is meant by cost can be money, time, effort or inconvenience, and asserts that an imposition can be high or low. Asking for help with something that is time consuming, borrowing a good deal of money, or asking for a ride to a distant place can be viewed as high imposition, while the request in example (17) scenario can be regarded as low imposition (Roever, 2015, p. 390).

- (17) You need to print out a letter but your printer is not working. You decide to ask your housemate Jack if you can use his printer. Jack is in his room reading a book as you walk in.
[Jack: Hey, how are you?]
You:
[Jack: Sure, go for it.]

One would agree that the way we use the language (how politely we speak) varies according to the greatness of the thing we ask for. In fact, cost/benefit scale, or the rank of imposition, has been cited as a major dimension while determining the degree of the politeness strategies we use when interacting with others. Rahayuningsih, Saleh, and Fitriati (2020) reveal that the rank of imposition affects the degree of politeness strategies used by the teachers and the students in classroom interaction. As Alabdali (2020) cites, Bella and Sifianou (2012) reveal that the students write longer texts to their instructors when requesting through email, in relation to the rank of imposition. Similarly, Hamiloğlu and Emirmustafaoğlu (2017) find out that indirect language use is more preferred by the students when requesting. The size of imposition also triggers speakers to use address forms to minimize the cost they pose to the interlocutor. Gagne (2018, p. 8) investigates the service encounters and requests and records the dialogue in example (18) between a butcher and a customer:

- (18) Cu what sausages have you got ↑
 Bu we've got the vinery the herby ones the Newmarket which are =
 Cu =give us two pounds of the Newmarket then mate

According to Gagne (2018), in example (18), the customer tries to be in rapport and tries to minimize the social distance to lessen the effect of imposition by using the address form *mate*.

As it is presented, rank of imposition is one of the factors impacting the language use in society and the strategy of politeness between interlocutors. Relabelling the R factor by Brown and Levinson (1987), Leech (2014) includes the cost/benefit scale in his model of sociopragmatic scales of politeness.

2.2.2.4. Rights/Obligations

Following the central dimensions which constitute the core of many conducted studies on linguistic politeness, Leech (2014) adds another dimension to his model of sociopragmatic politeness scales. Righteously, literature suggests that people tend to show variants in their language use in situations where the vertical distance, horizontal distance, and cost/benefit dimensions are constant. To set an example, Ogiermann (2015, p. 69) asserts that people “use different types of requests despite all these variables being constant,” referring to the power, social distance, and rank of imposition dimensions. In this context, it should be considered that there may be other

factors affecting the linguistic politeness in society, among which rights and obligations can be taken into account.

People possess certain defined roles in society and they typically are aware of these roles while interacting with each other, as friend-friend, teacher-student, employer-employee are some examples of these defined roles (Spencer-Oatey, 2004). Along with the dimensions of power and distance, these roles also specify the rights and obligations of each member towards the other (Spencer-Oatey, 2004). For instance, a customer at the coffee shop has the right to ask the waiter to bring him a cup of coffee, while the waiter has the obligation to serve what the customer asks for. However, there are certain limits to these rights and obligations (Spencer-Oatey, 2004). Neither the same customer has the right to ask the waiter to wash his car parked outside while he is drinking his coffee, nor the waiter has the obligation to do so, at least in most typical cases. It is assumed that this dimension in society affects the way people use the language. Thomas (1995, p. 131) shares an anecdote representing this dimension affecting the language use:

On country routes the driver stops only when requested to do so. The first woman wanted to get off at a scheduled stopping place, and as the bus approached it she simply called out: 'Next stop, driver!' Her companion wanted to get off where there was no official stop, and asked the driver, 'Do you think you could possibly let me out just beyond the traffic lights, please?'

Thomas (1995) notes that the dimensions of power, distance, and the size of imposition are the constants in this anecdote. The difference between the two cases is related to the rights and obligations of the actors. In the first case, the woman has the right to ask the driver to stop at a scheduled bus stop, and the driver is obliged to do so. However, in the second case, the woman has no legitimate right to ask the driver to stop at an unscheduled stop, as the driver has no such obligation. Therefore, it is seen that the woman uses a more polite and indirect language in the second event. As Thomas (1995) notes, this dimension can be regarded as the explanation of the use of minimal degree of indirectness when performing a major size of imposition towards the interlocutor. On the other hand, the results of the study by Gagne (2018) reveal that people tend to be more polite when the dimension of rights and obligations is not evoked in the context. Investigating the service requests, it has been found that the most frequently used requesting form is '*can/could I have x*' format, followed by '*I'll have x*' format. Interestingly, as Gagne (2018) clears out, the less polite '*I'll have x*'

format is generally preferred when the service provider initiates a service offer. For a better understanding, following examples (19, 20) between a butcher and a customer from Gagne (2018, p. 6) can be examined:

- (19) Bu good morning madam
Cu good morning (.) can I have two cuts of ham please
- (20) Bu what can I do for you ↑
Cu I'll have 3 fillet steaks please

In both scenarios, both customers know that they have the right to buy what they want at the butcher's, and the butcher is obliged to provide what they ask for. Despite this fact, customers show up to use more polite forms while requesting when the butcher does not remind them that he is there for them and he is obliged to provide what they need, as in example (19). However, in example (20), the butcher initiates the speech by asking the customer, thus reminding the customer that s/he does not have to be polite. The presented examples so far illustrate that there are more than three dimensions, which are P, D, and R factors in Brown and Levinson's (1987) terminology, which may have impacts on the language and the degree of politeness we use. Therefore, the dimension of strength of socially defined rights and obligations is one of the components of the model proposed by Leech (2014).

2.2.2.5. Self-territory and Other-territory

Politeness “manifests itself in different terms in different languages/cultures” (Leech, 2005, p. 4). What motivates Leech (2005) to write these words is probably the criticism he has been facing for his earlier theory of politeness, a shared destiny with the politeness model by Brown and Levinson (1987). As it has been discussed by several authors (e.g., Ide, 1989), the politeness models proposed by Leech (1983) and Brown and Levinson (1987) have been criticized on the grounds of the assumption that they maintain a Western bias which highlights individualism by neglecting the collectivist-oriented cultures. In the light of the criticism, Leech (2014) adds another dimension to his model called ‘*self-territory and other-territory*’.

This dimension is related to the perception of in-group and out-group membership which is distinctive in different cultures. “An illustration of in-group membership is the strong group association, in some Eastern cultures, between members of a family” (Leech, 2005, p. 21). A comparative example of this situation is

stated in an anecdote by Tanaka (1991). It is about an Australian teenager who caused an accident which damaged a Japanese visitor's car in Australia. When the teenager's parents were at the Japanese visitor's house to compensate for the situation, the Japanese visitor was surprised that the parents did not regard an apology as necessary on behalf of their child. Leech (2014) remarks that the dimension of 'self-territory and other-territory' should be taken into account in this situation, as in Eastern cultures the child is regarded as a member of the self-territory of the parents, which means that the parents are also responsible for the actions of their children. This perception is quite common in Eastern cultures, not only for the faults as in the previous example, but also for the accomplishments. As a person who grew up in one of the Middle-Eastern countries, Turkey, I have witnessed many occasions that verify the dichotomy between Eastern and Western cultures on this issue. To recount one of them, I remember that after I graduated from the university and succeeded in one of the exams important for my career, my relatives did not only call me to congratulate me, but they also called my parents to express their congratulations to them too, in order to pose a polite behaviour. It is because I am still regarded as a member of my parents' extended self-territory although I am regarded as an adult but not a child.

This aspect of different cultures may have strong impacts on the language use and the strategy of politeness. Therefore, it is one of the components of the model by Leech (2014). All in all, sociopragmatic politeness scales by Leech (2014) can be summarized in Figure 2.7.

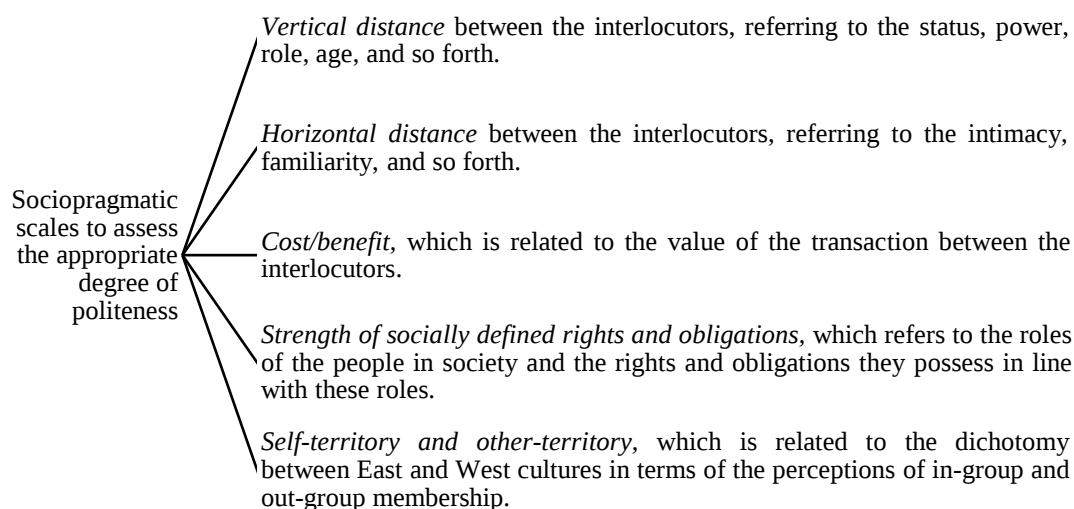


Figure 2. 7. Sociopragmatic politeness scales by Leech (2014)

2.2.3. Politeness and Language Teaching

Teaching the aspects of pragmatics has been dealt with meticulously, including the teaching of politeness which is an important component of language teaching (Bou-Franch & Garcés-Conejos, 2003). Teaching polite behaviour has been generally conducted through teaching certain speech acts, such as refusing, requesting, and complaining (Félix-Brasdefer & Mugford, 2017).

For instance, Behnam and Niroomand (2011) examine the politeness strategies employed by Iranian EFL learners in disagreements and compare them to the proficiency levels of the learners. The researchers collect the data through a discourse completion task with several scenarios, in which the learners write their expressions of disagreement with higher status, equal status, and lower status individuals. According to the results, learners are more sensitive to be polite when disagreeing with a superior person and they employ different politeness strategies in line with the power relations with the interlocutor, however, they are limited due to the lack of competence even in the high proficiency group. Similarly, Wijayanto, Laila, Prasetyarini, and Susiati (2013), who investigate the politeness strategies used by Indonesian EFL learners while performing complaint speech acts, question the competence of the learners in terms of being aware of the social context and linguistic resources for polite behaviour. On the other hand, Economidou-Kogetsidis (2015) focuses on the emails written by Greek EFL learners from a politeness-based point of view, and finds out that the learners are not much aware of the politeness strategies while writing emails. Similar results have been found out by numerous studies (e.g., Kurdghelashvili, 2015; Kreishan, 2018). Thus, the researchers underline the importance of teaching linguistic politeness in language teaching contexts. In line with this, there have been several researchers who elaborate on the methodology of teaching politeness in language classrooms.

Meier (1997) elaborates on teaching politeness in language classrooms and challenges the universality claims proposed in the earlier models of politeness (e.g., Brown & Levinson, 1987). According to Meier (1997), the focus of teaching politeness in EFL/ESL classrooms should be the teaching of appropriateness, since the rules of being polite proposed in the earlier models of politeness may vary in different cultures. In that, Meier (1997) argues that the teaching of politeness based on the prescribed rules, such as the more indirect the more polite and the more direct the less polite, may

fail in practice. It is because being direct may be perceived as more polite in one culture, whereas it may not in another. Therefore, Meier (1997) suggests that teaching politeness should be based on the appropriateness of language use, rather than the prescribed rules of polite behaviour.

Bou-Franch and Garces-Conéjos (2003, p. 17) propose a methodological approach to teach politeness, which they call an “awareness-raising task.” According to this awareness-raising model, the first step should be to teach learners what politeness means. That is, students should be aware of what politeness is and what we aim to teach. Secondly, the learners should be introduced to the lexico-syntactic and prosodic realization of linguistic politeness by Brown and Levinson (1987). Bou-Franch and Garces-Conéjos (2003) argue that if the learners are aware of these structures, they can start thinking about the functions and operations of politeness. Thirdly, the learners should be taught the politeness systems by Scollon and Scollon (1995) (i.e., *deference politeness systems*, *solidarity politeness systems*, and *hierarchical politeness systems*), in addition to the social variables by Brown and Levinson (1987). Thus, learners can recognize the system that suits them. Next, some texts should be examined in the target language, including ordinary conversations or academic writing. By this way, the learners can recognize the language use by the interlocutors in the dialogues in accordance with the social variables. Finally, the learners should understand the fact that politeness is perceived differently by different cultures. Bou-Franch and Garces-Conéjos (2003) suggest that this could happen with introducing the cultures which employ positive politeness strategies dominantly and some other cultures which generally employ negative politeness strategies. In this way, learners can reflect on the fact that different cultures use different types of politeness strategies to achieve the same end. Bou-Franch and Garces-Conéjos (2003) note that teachers can present several activities after completing the awareness-raising tasks, such as role-plays or discussions.

On the other hand, Félix-Brasdefer and Mugford (2017) propose another model for teaching politeness, or as they call it as the current trend, *(im)politeness*. The first step of their model is similar to that of Bou-Franch and Garces-Conéjos (2003), as it suggests teachers to start with an awareness-raising task with the meaning of politeness. At this stage, as the researchers argue, teachers can provide brain-storming activities, such as listing the synonyms that the learners think of politeness or

impoliteness, after introducing what politeness means. Secondly, the learners should be provided with the input which displays polite and impolite behaviour. Presenting the learners with a set of texts which demonstrate the contextual and co-textual features can help them to realize polite and impolite behaviour, and then the teacher can let them discuss the other types of polite and impolite events they encounter in the target language experiences or in their textbooks. The next step deals with the introduction of pragmatic meanings of several linguistic structures. Félix-Brasdefer and Mugford (2017) explain this step with the speech act of refusing, and they list a number of refusing answers. The researchers suggest that the pragmalinguistic devices in the refusals should be realized by the learners, such as solidarity markers, epistemic expressions, expressions of apology, and so forth. After presenting the information in the earlier steps, the last step is concerned with the practice of what has been taught before. In this regard, Félix-Brasdefer and Mugford (2017) list several situations which can be used in role-plays in the classroom. The teacher is supposed to let learners review the information learned before and perform the role-play in the classroom. After the performance, the learners in the classroom are expected to discuss the answers in the role-play in small groups. According to Félix-Brasdefer and Mugford (2017, p. 511), this guideline of teaching politeness “reflects an ethnographic, self- and group-discovery approach where learners and teachers discuss the effectiveness and use of pragmalinguistic resources.”

As it is presented, teaching politeness in EFL/ESL classrooms has been paid a certain amount of attention in the literature. Earlier traditions of teaching politeness seem to deal with teaching polite behaviour. However, in recent years, the concept of impoliteness comes into prominence, as the concept (im)politeness is preferred by a number of researchers (e.g., Félix-Brasdefer and Mugford, 2017; Schepers, 2014; Haugh & Chang, 2015). Thus, it can be argued that teaching politeness is seen as an important part of a language classroom, and there are many dynamics of this practice to explore, including the politeness of using address forms, as it is the focus of the current study.

2.3. Address Theory

After several decades in which linguists view the language in isolated sentences, scholars have become more aware of the role of the context while interpreting the language. Specifically, sociolinguists have grown considerable interest in explaining

why people use the language differently in different contexts (Keshavarz, 2001). Given the fact that sociolinguistics is primarily the study of the relation between language and society, addressing can be said to be an important social act which may reveal crucial data of the language use in a community. Therefore, the study of addressing people has been a popular topic in sociolinguistics, as noted by Martiny (1996), especially after Roger Brown and his colleagues published their influential papers, including “The Pronouns of Power and Solidarity” by Brown and Gilman (1960). Many papers have been published on the issue, and conceptions, frameworks, and formulations on the address theory have been generated by many scholars.

Modern study of address theory dates back to the influential paper by Brown and Gilman (1960) who have investigated the two types of pronominal address forms for second person singular. These are abbreviated as T and V forms of address, T from Latin ‘*tu*’ and V from Latin ‘*vos*’. They have focused on the use of these address forms and its relation to power and solidarity. There are many languages which employ such a distinction for second person singular address forms, such as Turkish (*sen – siz*) and French (*tu – vous*). Focusing on this type of languages, Brown and Gilman (1960) reveal that the use of these forms is based on the degree of social closeness, which they refer to as solidarity, and also the power difference between the interlocutors.

Following Brown and Gilman (1960), Brown and Ford (1961) aim to find out the norms of the address forms in American English. To this end, they have investigated several databases, such as American plays, the actual usage of address forms collected by field notes in a business setting, reported usage of business executives, and the recordings of speech in an American town. Brown and Ford (1961) find out that the FNs and Title + LNs are the mostly used address forms in American English. The usage of these has three variants, as the mutual use of FNs, the mutual use of Title + LNs, and the non-reciprocal use of FNs and Title + LNs. The mutual use of address forms is based on the intimacy level between the interlocutors, as the mutual use of FNs indicates high intimacy between the interlocutors. The nonreciprocal use of these terms, on the other hand, has been found to be based on the status difference between the interlocutors, in that, the higher status interlocutor uses FNs, while receiving Title + LNs from the lower status interlocutor.

Ervin-Tripp (1972) is also one of the earlier theoreticians of address practices. Ervin-Tripp (1972) focuses on the addressing in American English and attempts to

formulate it with a different methodology, providing a diagram chart which presents the variations and rules governing the choice of address forms in American English. Ervin-Tripp (1972) notes that her diagram should be read as a computer flow chart with the entrance on the left followed by the binary selections. The author also notes that her diagram represents the norms of a competent adult Western American speaker from an academic community. Although the study by Ervin-Tripp (1972) has been mentioned in many address research as one of the pioneers in the field, it has also been heavily criticized because of its clear-cut selectors of address forms ignoring many other factors in language use. Braun (1988, p. 20), for instance, calls it an “unrealistic model.”

These studies have been frequently cited as the pioneers of the modern study of address theory. Along with and after those, many other studies have been devoted to the address phenomenon, and many conceptions have emerged. In this section, the purpose is to introduce the nature of address theory which has advanced dramatically after the above-mentioned studies, including its terminology, components, and its use in social contexts depending on sociopragmatic factors.

2.3.1. Terminology of Address Theory

Along with the growing body of research on addressing, it has been inevitable for a certain group of concepts to emerge which are frequently used in address research. Braun (1988) provides a general perspective to the terminology of address theory, which includes the concepts of address, address forms, pronouns of address, verb forms of address, nouns of address, bound forms of address, free forms of address, address inversion, the system of address, address behaviour, reciprocity, and asymmetry.

Address is one’s “linguistic reference to his/her collocutor(s)” (Braun, 1988, p. 7). As a basic related concept, *address forms* are the words or phrases used when addressing a collocutor. Address forms are frequently referred to as *address terms*, which are “words or linguistic expressions that speakers use to appeal directly to their addressees” (Jucker & Taavitsainen, 2003, p. 1).

Address forms are closely related to the study of deixis, in particular, social deixis. Social deixis can be performed by several linguistic means, such as personal pronouns, address forms, affixes, and so forth (Huang, 2015). Address forms fall under

the realm of three main categories according to their linguistic properties, namely, *pronominal address forms*, *verbal address forms*, and *nominal address forms* (Braun, 1988).

Pronominal address or *pronouns of address* are simply the pronouns addressing the collocutors. This concept is mainly concerned with the second person pronouns, such as German *du* and *ihr* (Braun, 1988). This category of address forms primarily manifests itself in the dichotomy between a familiar person pronoun and politely distant pronoun, such as the pronouns *tu* and *Usted* in Spanish language (Jucker & Taavitsainen, 2003). The distinction between second person pronouns as familiar and distant are conventionally symbolized as *T/V distinction*, following Brown and Gilman (1960).

Brown and Gilman (1960) have used the symbols T and V to refer to the language systems which contain more than one second person pronoun. The symbol T has been generated from Latin *tu* and V from Latin *vos*, and they can be used to describe languages with contrasting second person pronouns, such as French, German, Spanish, and Dutch (Braun, 1988).

In that, T refers to the familiar ‘you’, while V represents the deferential ‘you’. In languages which employ T/V distinction for address pronouns, such as Persian (Keshavarz, 2001), interlocutors are supposed to choose the appropriate ‘you’ form according to their intimacy or deference towards each other. Huang (2015, p. 211-212) lists several examples of languages with a T/V system as shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2. 1. Languages with T/V distinction
Adapted from Huang (2015, pp. 211-212)

	T	V
French	tu	vous
German	du	Sie
Italian	tu	Lei
Spanish	tu’	usted
Romansh	ti	vus
Russian	ty	vy
Slovenian	ti	vi
Danish	du/I	De
Swedish	du	Ni
Dutch	jij	u
Norwegian	du	De
Greek	esi	esis
Welsh	ti	chwi

Braun (1988) notes that the T/V symbol tag is useful despite the fact that there may be more complex systems which cannot be described adequately with T/V symbols. Indeed, Helmbrecht (2003), who presents the systems of one hundred languages over the world, contends that there are actually four types of languages according to the use of second person pronominal address. The vast majority of the languages in question, seventy-four languages turn out to employ no distinction with their personal address pronouns. English, Mongolian, Rama, Imonda, and Zulu languages are among the examples of this group. The second group is the languages with a T/V distinction, such as the languages in Table 2.1, and additionally, Finnish, Turkish, Chinese, and so forth. Thirdly, several languages arise to show two or more degrees in their T/V distinction, unlike the European type of T/V system. Helmbrecht (2003) states that this third group is rare to encounter, however, it is frequent in the languages of the Indian area. The fourth group includes the languages with a strategy of pronoun avoidance. Indonesian, Japanese, Korean, Thai, and Vietnamese are considered as the members of this ‘pronoun avoidance group’. Helmbrecht (2003) states that people who speak these languages avoid using pronominal address forms while addressing a superior. Instead, they tend to use status terms, titles, or other nominal expressions. Second person pronouns are used when addressing equals or inferiors in this type of a language system.

Verb forms of address, as another type of address forms, are the verbs which bear a reference to the collocutor by linguistic means, such as inflectional suffixes (Braun, 1988). Braun (1988) states that such a form of address is redundant, since in many languages, pronouns are typically used. However, in languages with no obligation to use pronouns, verb forms of address are the only means to address the collocutor. In Turkish, for instance, the sentences (i) ‘*Nereye gidiyorsun?*’ and (ii) ‘*Nereye gidiyorsunuz?*’ bear important codes for addressing by the suffixes *-sun* (i) which is the T form, and *-sunuz* (ii) as the V form.

Lastly, *nouns of address* or *nominal address forms* include the most diverse types (Braun, 1988). These address forms are the adjectives and the noun phrases which can be used to address the collocutor. This category of address forms is of great importance for the purposes of this study, since these are the only available forms to investigate in the English language which does not have T/V distinction (Dickey, 1997). Nominal address forms are also known as *vocatives*, as Levinson (2008, p. 71) defines vocatives

as “noun phrases that refer to the addressee.” Sonnenhauser and Hanna (2013) support their ideas with Betsch and Berger’s (2009, p. 1023) consideration of the vocatives as “a traditional means of marking nominal forms of address.” As noted, this category of address forms has the most diverse types, which is discussed in section 2.3.2.

Apart from the linguistic categories of the addressing devices, their relation to the syntax of the utterance has also been under investigation. In this regard, *bound forms of address* and *free forms of address* denote the distinction between address forms which are syntactically bound into a sentence and those which are not. Pronouns of address are typically bound forms of address (as in 21.1) unless they are used as a vocative (as in 21.2). On the other hand, nouns of address are likely to be free forms of address, as not being one of the arguments of the sentence (as in 21.3).

- (21) 1. Do *you* work as a waitress here?
 2. *You!* Do you work as a waitress here?
 3. *Sweetie*, do you work as a waitress here?

On the other hand, *address inversion* is a special pattern of address where a speaker addresses the interlocutor by his own role in the dyad, rather than the interlocutor’s role (Braun, 1988). For instance, the dialogue in example (22) can be observed in Turkish language. The child addresses her mother as ‘anneciğim’ (meaning *mummy*), and the mother addresses her child by the same address form.

- (22) Anneciğim, bir bakar mısın? [*Mummy, can you help me with something?*]
 Söyle anneciğim, ne oldu? [*Tell me mummy, what happened?*]

Reciprocity and *symmetry* of address refer to the mutual use of address forms between the interlocutors. If both of the interlocutors use the same or equivalent address forms (for instance both using T forms), then it is the reciprocal use of address forms. If not, for instance, if one of the interlocutors gives V forms and receives T forms, then it is called the nonreciprocal use. When there is a reciprocal use of address forms, the address relationship is called symmetrical; when the use of address forms is nonreciprocal, the address relationship is asymmetrical (Braun, 1988).

As it is presented, there are a number of concepts related to the theory of address, as a result of the devoted studies on address practices. In line with a number of languages which do not employ T/V distinction, including English, these languages have been investigated in terms of the types of nominal address forms.

2.3.2. Types of Address Forms

Classifying the address forms into categories is of the utmost help for the researchers who survey the address practices in particular contexts, since it helps summarize the overall data. In this regard, several taxonomies have been generated for the address forms (e.g., Chaika, 1982; Braun, 1988; Dunkling, 1990; Fitch, 1998), however, a consensus has not been reached. Therefore, each researcher either adopts an earlier classification or generates another one, thus resulting in a complex literature on the issue.

As long as the current study is concerned, the classification proposed by Leech (1999) seems to be the most comprehensive one, and it seems suitable for research on English address forms. In fact, Leech (1999) generates this taxonomy based on a corpus study on British English and American English, therefore, it reflects the norms of the English language, and it can be the most beneficial one to use in terms of the purpose of this study. Leech (1999) classifies the address forms into eight categories according to their semantic functions, as endearments, family terms, familiarizers, familiarized FNs, FNs, title and surname, honorifics, and others. Examples of these types of address forms are shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2. 2. Categories and examples of address forms
(Adapted from Leech, 1999, pp. 110-111)

	Examples
A. Endearments	baby, (my) darling, honey, hon, love, sweetie (pie)
B. Family terms	mummy, mum, mommy, mom, ma, daddy, dad
C. Familiarizers	guys, bud, man, dude, buddy, mate, folks, bro
D. Familiarized FNs	Marj, Paulie, Jackie, Tom
E. First names	Marjorie, Paul, Jennifer, Thomas
F. Title and surname	Mrs. Johns, Mr. Graham, Ms. Morrissey
G. Honorifics	sir, madam, ma'am
H. Others	boy, red dog, lazy! everyone, you, Uncle Joe

Endearments are generally used to address the intimate family members, sexual partners, and other loved ones (Leech, 1999). Leech (1999) notes that endearments are not typically used between male-to-male encounters. The words *baby*, *darling*, *honey*, *hon*, *sweetie* are the examples of endearment terms. The examples in (23) can be observed to see the use of endearment terms.

- (23) 1. *Sweetie*, you don't have to worry about that.
 2. *Hon*, where on earth were you?
 3. Ah, *darling*, I can't see why not.

Family terms, or *kinship terms*, are the words used when addressing a blood relation or affinities (Braun, 1988). However, Braun (1988) notes that kinship terms can be used for people who are not actually the relatives of the speaker. This use of kinship terms is called *fictive use*. This case is common in the Turkish language. It is common to see two strangers addressing each other with the kinship terms in Turkish language, such as *amca* [uncle], *abi* [brother], and *abla* [sister]. According to the findings by Braun (1988), the fictive use of kinship terms in Turkish language is mostly employed by the less educated people. The examples in (24) demonstrate the use of family terms.

- (24) 1. *Dad*, these are not your shoes.
 2. *Mum*, is that door open?
 3. So I say, *ma*, don't go there.

Familiarizers are used when there is intimacy between the interlocutors. Leech (1999) states that these are the complementary distribution of endearments, in that they are frequently used among males to maintain solidarity. However, Leech (1999) notes that there is a recent tendency to ignore sexual borders. That is, women also use the term *guys* to refer to all-female or mixed-gender groups in the USA. The examples in (25) can be considered as the use of familiarizers.

- (25) 1. What are you doing, *man*?
 2. *Dude*, get out of my room.
 3. Got a minute *mate*?

First names are the given names of the speakers and these are justifiably the mostly used type of address. Furthermore, there is a growing tendency in the USA to use FNs as address forms towards as many people as possible (Chaika, 1982). Leech (1999) also points out that the use of FNs for addressing is not restricted to friends and family members, besides, it is becoming normal between colleagues or casual acquaintances nowadays. According to Wardhaugh (1998), mutual use of FNs is a sign of equality and familiarity between the speakers. The sentences in (26) exemplify the use of FNs in addressing.

- (26) 1. Ah, for god's sake, *Alice*!
 2. You see, *Jacobs*, I have no other choice.
 3. *Vanessa*, come here.

Familiarized FNs are either the short form or a pet form in -y of a given name (Leech, 1999) as in (27). Examples can be given from the popular familiarized names, such as *Charlie* for *Charles*, *Kathy* for *Katherine*, *Joe* for *Joseph*, and *Pat* for *Patricia*. What Leech (1999) calls familiarized FNs are referred to as nicknames by Chaika (1982), who states that the use of nicknames is a sign of intimacy and it is common for *Charles* to become *Charlie* between close friends. That is, the use of familiarized FNs not only signals familiarity between the speakers, but it also signals intimacy (Nalendra et al., 2018).

- (27) 1. *Susie*, come here and take a look at this.
 2. I'm not gonna let you get away with this, *Gaby*.
 3. So, *Phil*, is this really your new look?

Title and surname, on the other hand, is the indication of a polite distance between the speakers. This type of address is usually referred to as Title + LN (TLN) in the literature (e.g., Chaika, 1982; Wardhaugh, 1998). What is meant by title covers a wide range of possible variations from the typical *Mr./Mrs.* to occupational titles, such as *waiter* or *officer* (Terzi, 2014). The examples in (28) demonstrate the use of title plus surname address.

- (28) 1. Is everything alright, *Mr. Williams*?
 2. I think you already signed that, *Professor Geller*.
 3. *Dr. Green*, I can't thank you enough.

Honorifics are the terms that people use to show their respect and politeness to whomever they address. According to Leech (1999), honorific vocative use is relatively rare in the present English language when compared to other languages. However, he continues that there may be exceptional cases where there is an asymmetrical relation between the speakers, such as formal service encounters. That is, in a restaurant a waiter may address the customer as *sir* or *madam*. The examples in (29) can be regarded as the use of honorific address forms.

- (29) 1. I'm sorry, *sir*, we sold all the tickets.
 2. Can I please see your passport, *madam*?
 3. You can't park here, *sir*.

The rest of the address forms, which Leech (1999) groups under the category of others, include a wide variety of expressions which can be used as vocatives, such as pronouns, nicknames, and kinship term plus first name, and other complex address

phrases. The examples in (30) present some of the address forms which can be grouped under the category of others.

- (30) 1. *Those of you who sit in the parking lot area*, please leave.
2. Thank you, *uncle Carlos*.
3. Hey *moose*! Watch out!

Leech (1999) states that a vocative is a nominal constituent which is hardly integrated with the rest of the expression. Similarly, Zwicky (1974) views vocatives as being set off from the rest of the sentence and not serving as an argument of the verb. Indeed, nominal address forms or vocatives have been conventionally regarded as a separate element from the other constituents of an utterance, contributing the utterance only from a pragmatic aspect (Shormani & Qarabesh, 2018). The examples in (31) can be examined to realize the same noun functioning as a vocative (31.1) and as an internal argument of the verb (31.2).

- (31) 1. Jason, you forgot your jacket.
2. Tell Jason that he forgot his jacket.

According to Shormani and Qarabesh (2018), this is the reason why vocatives have been a neglected area in linguistic research, that is, because they are not viewed as an integral part of an utterance. However, the interest in the study of address forms has been growing recently, especially in terms of the use of address forms in social encounters regarding sociopragmatic factors.

2.3.3. Sociopragmatic Scales and Addressing

The selection of address forms while interacting with others has been documented to be affected by several social factors by many studies. As Yang (2010) notes, addressing people appropriately requires addressers to take several factors into consideration, such as the status of the other, sex, age, family relationship, and so forth. Although there are certain general rules for addressing people in each language, the use of address forms may differ in different situations and contexts. Brown and Yule (1989, p. 54) put it as “in different social contexts different terms of address will be used.” Similarly, Keshavarz (2001) argues that the choice of address terms is mostly related to the social context. Along with these, the assessment of social distance and power difference are among the most important factors which affect the address strategy used by the individuals.

2.3.3.1. Vertical/Horizontal Distance and Addressing

Address behaviour in academic and educational contexts has gained remarkable attention in the field. Many researchers attempted to understand the dynamics of addressing in educational contexts, among whom Formentelli (2009) aims to shed light on the factors affecting the address strategies in academic encounters, such as the level of formality, power, and hierarchical relations. The study was conducted in the University of Reading in Berkshire, following an ethnographic approach with the integration of the researcher in the daily activities on campus, but with a special focus on lectures, seminars, and tutorials. The data were collected in a nine month-period, utilizing more than one method: participant observation, semi-structured interviews, and video-recordings of teaching activities. Findings suggest that students mostly prefer addressing their lecturers with formal forms of address, with an honorific term or title. Participants also report that they tend to avoid using any address forms when they do not know the name of the interlocutor. As for the instructors with whom students frequently contact in practical classes or labs, the situation is reversed. According to the results, students tend to address instructors with their FNs, while formal forms of address are reported to be used by a minor group. On the other hand, members of the teaching staff mostly call their students by their FNs. When they do not know the name of the students, they tend to avoid using any terms of address. Few participants report that some members of the teaching staff use familiarizer terms of address, such as *mate*, *young lady*, *young chap*, *young man*, however, this is not common. It may be because of the power difference between the interlocutors as one of the determiners of address choice. When the vertical dimension decreases between the students and the teaching staff, the address forms become more informal.

On the other hand, Formentelli (2018) aims to explore the address patterns used in a multilingual and multicultural context where English is chosen as the medium of instruction and communication. With this aim in mind, the study was conducted at an Italian university focusing on the address strategies used by the students and the teaching staff in English as a Lingua Franca master's degree program. Participants of the study were from various European and non-European regions and they used English as the main lingua franca for both academic and social contexts. The students and the lecturers, as participants, were asked to fill in a questionnaire as the data gathering tool in which they were expected to select one or more address strategies

they would use towards students/lecturers. The results indicate that the students generally prefer addressing the lecturers with formal forms, if they are to address by any form, since the results show that the majority of the students use avoidance strategy. Furthermore, the majority of the students are not comfortable with addressing their lecturers by their FNs, even if they are allowed to do so. As for the teaching assistants, some students tend to use more informal address forms, such as FNs, nevertheless, the majority of the students again use avoidance strategy. On the other hand, the lecturers and the teaching assistants mostly prefer addressing the students as their FNs. Formentelli (2018) argues that the fact that some students are not comfortable with informal address with their teachers is related to the cultural values, as South Asian, Middle Eastern, and African students have a background with a view of strict hierarchical organization of society. Therefore, it can be concluded that cultural background is one of the factors affecting the address strategies used by communicators. Besides, the study again reveals the importance of vertical dimension for addressing, as high vertical distance leads the lower status person to use more formal address forms, while receiving informal ones from the superior.

Parkinson (2020), who states that addressing investigations in educational contexts mostly focus on university contexts, examines the use of familiarizer address forms in a vocational education context in New Zealand. According to the results, the most frequently used familiarizer address forms are *guys* and *mate*. Other familiarizer terms, such as *man*, *bro*, and *boys*, are used less frequently. The findings also suggest that there are different functions of using *guys* and *mate*. While the address term '*guys*' seems to be used to gain attraction, *mate* seems to be used to create affective domains, such as solidarity. Parkinson (2020), with reference to Wilson (2010), argues that the term *guys* does not indicate the youngness of the addressee as the term *boys* do, thus, it does not emphasize any power difference between the interlocutors. Parkinson (2020) notes that this situation is justifiable given the fact that New Zealand society puts great emphasis on equality even in the contexts where there is power difference.

Wright (2009) takes attention to the informalization of the address terms in many contexts in American English. As Hook (1984) and Murray (2002) note, address practices have been changing in American English with FN address becoming overtly common. From this point of view, Wright (2009) holds the purpose of investigating academic settings where address terms are likely to become more informal by

examining what terms of address college students use and why. The findings suggest that the selection of address terms vary in line with the mode of communication, the level of familiarity, the personality of the instructor, and the type of course. Students generally prefer employing formal addressing towards their lecturers, with the title *professor* as the default address, along with generic titles and the academic title *doctor*. Students tend to not address the lecturers by their FNs in general, however a minor group of students report that they would use lecturers' FNs if they have a friendly personality. In spite of this general view, most of the students report that at some point in their life they addressed one of their lecturers by their FNs, which may be the sign of a gradual change towards informality in American academic contexts. The fact that several students reported that they would use FNs to address their lecturers if the lecturer displays a friendly attitude highlights the importance of horizontal dimension. When students feel closer and more intimate to the lecturer, they tend to shift their mode of address towards a more informal attitude.

Another scholar who focuses on the address forms in American educational contexts, Burt (2015) collects data from direct observation and focus group interviews at a state university in the American Midwest. The findings indicate that formal address forms, such as academic or generic titles, are likely to be the most preferred type of address for the students to address the lecturers. In fact, especially for the undergraduate students, this formal address orientation is promoted by the lecturers to assist and maintain a social distance and power difference. On the other hand, the graduate students may be welcomed to address the lecturers as their FNs because of their intermediate position in the context, however, not all of them are comfortable with deploying such an informal practice. From the other perspective, students are usually addressed as their FNs by the teaching staff.

Dickey (1997) conducts a study dealing with forms of address and terms of reference in American and British universities. Informants of the research report that the students are generally addressed by their FNs, although there are rare very formal occasions where students may receive Title + LNs. Addressing the teaching staff seems to be variable and shaped by several factors, such as the status of the teacher, personal preference, or institutional norms. FN address was reported to be used by undergraduates to graduate student teachers. However, it was seen as more appropriate

to address professors by a Title + LN, rather than FNs. On the other hand, graduate students were likely to use FN address forms to address the lecturers.

Formentelli and Hajek (2016) focus on the three variations of English to examine and compare the address practices in academic interactions, namely, Australian English, American English, and British English. In all varieties, it seems a common practice to call students by their FNs, while addressing lecturers show differences among the three varieties of English. In American English, as the authors of the study note, formal forms are preferred to address teachers regardless of their position, indicating that the expansion of informal address practices in American contexts has not reached the academic contexts yet. British students show a varied practice, addressing the teachers with formal forms, but shifting to more informal forms when they start evolving a familiar rapport. On the other hand, Australian English seems to employ the most informal address behaviour in academic contexts, with a default use of informal forms to address lecturers and teaching assistants. The researchers argue that this finding indicates the role of cultural values on the address behaviour even when the same language is spoken. In fact, culture has been frequently cited as a determiner of the linguistic items used by the speakers, as well as address forms.

Political contexts and addressing have been of great interest in a number of studies. Rendle-Short (2007) investigates the address terms used in political interviews between political entities and the journalists. The researcher collects data from a number of radio and television interviews in Australia. The results reveal the great effect of vertical distance on address practices. According to the results, the journalists overwhelmingly address the politicians by formal forms of address, either with their institutional role or Title + LNs. On the other hand, politicians tend to address the journalists as their FNs. Thus, the address relationship between the politicians and the journalists is asymmetrical.

Karifianto (2021) investigates the use of address forms among Australians in daily interaction. Karifianto (2021) aims to find out how frequently and in which circumstances Australians use the address forms *mate*, *babe*, *dude*, *love*, *buddy*, *darling*, *sweetie*, and *honey/hon*. According to the results, *mate* is the mostly used address term by both males and females, followed by *love* and *dude*. Interestingly, Australians do not seek solidarity to use the term *mate*, as the data reveals that they report to use it for both close friends and casual acquaintances. However, some other

address terms like *love* and *dude* seem to be used among close friends, and some others like *babe* and *darling* seem to be used towards partners. On the other hand, from a gender-focused perspective, some of the address forms are reported to be used by dominantly males, such as *mate*, *buddy*, and *dude*; while some others by women, such as *darling*, *sweetie*, *honey*, *babe*, and *love*. Not surprisingly, gender may be one of the important determiners of address choice and it has been documented that gender of both speakers and listeners may be a factor in address practices.

2.3.3.2. Gender and Addressing

Gender is one of the frequently cited factors in the choice of address terms between locutors. This factor has been viewed from different angles by several researchers and it has been documented that there are differences in the use of address terms according to the gender of both the speaker and the hearer.

Kramer (1975) aims to explore the effects of sex-related points on the preference of address forms in United States. Kramer (1975) not only claimed that sex of the speaker and the sex of the addressee are important factors in the choice of address terms used, but also men and women in the United States have different series of choices of address forms which they would use in certain occasions. Kramer (1975) asserted that women have a more restricted ground of choice of address forms when compared to men, and exemplified this situation with a cab driver, a case where a man is socially permitted to call a cab driver as ‘Thanks, Mac’, while a woman would probably avoid addressing a cab driver with any forms of address at all. With a purpose of exploring this type of varieties in address use, the researcher has examined a number of novels written by American men and women, the cartoons in the three issues of the New Yorker, and a compilation of actual address forms given to men and women during the initial encounter between salesperson, waiter, waitress, and customer. In addition to these, opinions about the address practice in clerk-customer relations of a number of men and women have been gathered. According to Kramer (1975), women are more likely to receive familiar address terms compared to men. Furthermore, women tend to show respect to men more than they are likely to get from men by the use of address terms.

One side of the study by Rubin (1981) aims to discover if gender is a factor in the choice of address forms by college students with their professors. The study has taken the age of the professors into account while investigating the use of address

forms by the students. Students were given contexts and they were asked to point out the form of address they would use in that context. One of the contexts given was a private context in which they were asked what form of address they would use if they were to stop by the professor's office, and the other one was a public one, asking the form of address they would use during a class session. The results indicated that the gender difference in forms of address use was more prominent with the younger professors. In that, professors in the 26-33 age group were more likely to be addressed by FN in the private context, while male professors in the same age group were more likely to receive title and last name address. From a wider perspective, as Rubin (1981) noted, younger female professors were likely to be called by their FNs, while younger male professors and older professors were called by a title and their last names.

Takiff, Sanchez, and Stewart (2001) conduct a two-dimensional study in which they sought answers to the questions whether there were any differences between the male and the female professors in terms of the address terms they received, and whether this differential use of address terms had impacts on the perceptions of the students in terms of professors' status and accessibility. In Study 1, researchers investigated the address forms used by a sample of college students to address their male and female professors. Researchers hypothesize that women were perceived to be lower in status compared to men even though they all were professors. As a result of this, the female professors were likely to receive FN address, while the male professors were likely to receive professional titles. As Slobin, Miller, and Porter (1968) report that the use of title instead of FN for addressing signals the higher status of the addressee. Study 1 was conducted in a private liberal arts college in the United States with the participation of 243 students, which was equal to 23% of the total population of the college. The participants were asked to fill in a questionnaire about the courses they took that semester and the teachers of those courses. Along with several filler questions, the questionnaire included the target question "What do you (or would you be most likely to) call this teacher (i.e., term of address)?" (Takiff, Sanchez, & Stewart, 2001, p. 137). The results of Study 1 were in line with the hypothesis of the researchers, that male professors were more likely to receive professional titles rather than their female colleagues.

In Study 2, Takiff, Sanchez, and Stewart (2001) aim at discovering the relationship between students' choice of address terms and the way they perceive the

status and accessibility of the professors. They examined if there was a relationship between the title address form and the perceived higher status of the professor, and also the relationship between the FN address form and the accessibility of the professor. This dimension of the study was conducted with the participation of 120 students in the same college in Study 1. A scenario was created that the faculty was planning to open a new course, History of Psychology, and they wanted to assess if the students would be interested. The participants were told that they would read a transcript of the first session of History of Psychology course taught in another college and they were asked to answer the questions after reading. Four transcripts which only differ from each other in terms of the gender of the professor and the students' address terms for the professor were designed and they were distributed randomly to the participants. After reading the fictional transcripts, participants filled in a questionnaire. Along with several filler statements, the questionnaire included target statements, which were about the accessibility and the status of the professor. The results indicated that the female professors who were addressed by title were perceived as high in status. However, this high-status perception by professional title address forms for the female professors came at a price. The female professors addressed by FN were perceived to be more accessible than those who were addressed by professional title. The researchers argued that the female professors were positioned as being either accessible or high in status. In contrast, the male professors were perceived as both high in status and accessible at the same time. The researchers proposed that the reason for this situation might be related to the students' unconscious expectation that the female professors should exhibit stereotypically feminine traits, such as warmth and interpersonal sensitivity, rather than professional achievement.

Files et al. (2017) has sought to examine the forms of address used during the speaker introductions at Internal Medicine Grand Rounds, a formal academic medical conference, associating the results with gender differences between the introducers and the speakers. According to the researchers, Internal Medicine Grand Rounds manifest a formal context where most of the participants hold MD, PhD or MD/PhD degrees. Therefore, they note that it is ideally expected for each speaker to be addressed by a professional title while being introduced in such a professional setting. However, the researchers hypothesized that female speakers were likely to receive more FN address forms or equivalent than male participants while being introduced. In this context, they

examined the use of forms of address during speaker introductions by the help of a number of retrospective video recordings of the Internal Medicine Grand Rounds presentations. Consequently, a total of 321 address forms used between introducers and speakers during speaker introductions have been analyzed. According to the results in general, female introducers used professional titles more than their male counterparts did when introducing any speaker. Specifically, 97.8% of the female dyads (female introducers introducing female speakers) employed professional title use, while the male dyads (male introducers introducing male speakers) utilized professional title use with a rate of 72.4%. As for the mixed-gender dyads, 95% of the female introducers utilized professional titles when introducing the male speakers. On the other hand, only 49.2% of the male introducers used professional titles when introducing female speakers. The researchers argue that not using a woman's professional title indicates the subtle assumption that women are lower in status.

Bayyurt and Bayraktaroğlu (2001) put the effect of gender in service encounters under analysis in terms of the address forms used. The researchers examined the service encounters in several places including open markets, supermarkets, clothing shops, and food kiosks. The participants were asked to complete a questionnaire with shopping situations, such as “You are shopping at the market place. You want to ask for a kilo of aubergines from the seller. How would you word it?” (Bayyurt & Bayraktaroğlu, p. 236). According to the overall results, the men use the familiar pronoun more than women do, even when there is no familiarity. Women tend to use the polite V form in more contexts than men do. The researchers argue that the reason for this may be the willingness of women to keep a distance between the service provider/trader, who is generally a man in Turkey.

As it is presented, gender is one of the factors individuals take into account consciously or unconsciously while addressing. Along with social parameters, such as horizontal distance and vertical distance, gender plays a role in language use in society, as well as culture.

2.3.3.3. Social Identity and Addressing

The concept of identity has been of particular interest within the past few decades, as several studies have been conducted related to the concept of identity and its subfields. It is not easy to provide an adequate definition of the current meaning of identity in a short expression, however, several descriptions by different scholars can

be cited to express the notion (Fearon, 1999). Norton (1997, p. 410) describes identity as the way that “people understand their relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how people understand their possibilities for the future.” On the other hand, Gee (2000) describes identity in terms of the way people are recognized as a certain ‘kind of person’ when they act and interact in a certain context. It can be argued that what Gee (2000) means by ‘kind of person’ is identity. Similarly, Woodward (2004) views identity as the combination of how people see themselves and how they are seen by others, highlighting the aspect of ‘recognized position’ of identity. At this point, it is beneficial to argue that this definition can be modified with the pluralization of ‘recognized position’ as the ‘recognized positions’, regarding the fact that the recognized position of a person is not static in each context. Individuals bear multiple identities corresponding to their performances in society (Gee, 2000). Being members of groups, having certain roles, or having discrete personal characteristics may form the basis of these multiple identities (Burke, 2003). Social identity, cultural identity, ethnic identity, professional identity and many more can be considered as the examples of the multiple identities that people possess in their lives.

Social identity, in specific, can be described as the identity that a person represents in a certain group or membership in a particular context. As Deaux (1993, p. 6) puts it, “*social identities* are those roles or membership categories that a person claims as representative.” Deaux (1993) notes that this could be reflected in being an Asian-American or the role of being a mother. In psychology, Augoustinos et al. (2014) generates a scheme for the types of social roles, as the roles which are achieved by the will of the individual (e.g., an artist or writer) and the inherently present roles based on the individual traits (e.g., an adult or a teenager). These roles can vary from family roles to occupational roles (Mac Kim, Wan, & Paris, 2016).

Several studies are concerned that these roles affect the language use of individuals. “In different contexts, particular social roles or identities can be foregrounded by language users drawing upon their verbal repertoires in different ways” (Nurmi & Pahta, 2010). In fact, most of the studies which investigate the effects of power and distance scales on language variation, including addressing, also investigate the reflections of role relationships on language variation.

Formentelli (2009; 2018), for instance, investigates the use of address forms in relation to power and social distance, hence with reference to the social identities of the interlocutors, such as learner-learner, instructor-learner, and lecturer-learner relationships. Similarly, Parkinson (2020) gives references to the relationships between social identities as teacher-student and address forms used between these parties. Karifianto (2021), while investigating the address forms in Australia, finds out that certain address forms are dominantly used between partners, some of them are used in friend-friend dyads. Therefore, rather than being a separate part from the other sociopragmatic scales which affect the language use, social identities are integrated to them all of which together have impacts on the language variation, as well as addressing.

2.3.3.4. Culture and Addressing

The fact that culture and language are the two components which affect each other is the elephant in the room. In this sense, address forms are no exception. Braun (1988, p. 66) notes that “there appears to be few universals in address behavior.” That is, each culture has its own norms of address behaviour. Studies revealed that there is a certain diversity in using address forms especially in East-West divide. Literature presents many studies comparing English and Chinese address forms, as well as other studies comparing different languages. It can be said that the difference stems from the different assessments of social relations and priorities of social assessments which are linked with culture.

Chunrong (2015) investigates the address forms in English and Chinese and presents the differences stemming from the cultural differences. First and foremost, a very basic distinction between Chinese and English addressing is the order of the names of the individuals. As it is known, a person typically has a given name and a family name and, in many cultures, the given name is followed by the family name. However, As Chunrong (2015) notes, the order of these names is reversed in Chinese, as the surname precedes the given name. The author states that this is related to the fact that Chinese is a patriarchal society and family relations are of great importance. Therefore, Chunrong (2015) notes that Chinese people prefer to give their surnames primarily in an introductory interaction, in comparison, people typically introduce themselves with their FNs in English speaking cultures. Asymmetric and symmetric use of address forms are another topic distinguishing the two cultures. English

speaking countries hold the view of equality and this view grows the popularity of using symmetrical FN address between the speakers regardless of the asymmetric social status. In contrast, Chinese culture emphasizes social status, resulting in using asymmetric forms of address indicating the asymmetric relations between speakers.

Chunrong (2015) also mentions the differences in using professional titles as address forms in Chinese and English. In English, a few titles can be used as address forms, such as *doctor* and *professor*. However, the term 'teacher' is not used as an address form in English, while in Chinese it is possible. After all, one of the most important differences in two languages is the use of kinship terms. There are more kinship terms in Chinese than there are in English. It is because Chinese culture gives more importance to family relations, whereas in English speaking cultures the family relations are loose. Chunrong (2015) states that people tend to treat their relatives in law as if they were their own family, whereas western cultures tend to keep it formal.

Okamura (2005) investigates and compares the address forms used between colleagues in a business discourse in English and Japanese. Similar to the findings by Chunrong (2015), Okamura (2005) finds out that English speaking environments of business contexts put less importance on power and gender differences, with the use of FNs of address as the most common. According to the study, English speakers use formal address forms when they are not familiar to interlocutors. However, it has been found out that familiarity does not override the power sense in Japanese, since Japanese culture is more hierarchical. Furthermore, as opposed to the English-speaking contexts of business, FN address is hardly used in Japanese business contexts.

Qin (2008) examines the use of address forms in several movies in English and Chinese with a purpose of comparing the norms of addressing in these languages. The results reveal that the factor of age plays a key role in the Chinese dyads while it seems not so as important in English discourse. The author stated that friends and colleagues used FN address forms to each other in English regardless of their age, whereas in Chinese the use of last names was considered as more polite if there was an age difference between the interlocutors. The use of kinship terms also portrayed differences between Chinese and English. In Chinese, it was found that kinship terms were used between friends, while not in English. Chunling (2015) also underlines that using kinship terms of address to non-relatives is very common in Chinese culture. Wu

(1990) provides a detailed discussion of kinship terms in Chinese and how their usage is expanded beyond the relatives.

Chunling (2015) also notes that English culture and Chinese culture fall under opposite views, since Western cultures are individualistic while Chinese culture is dominated by the idea of Confucianism and clanism. Therefore, there are many differences in terms of address used in these cultures stemming from the different cultural views. Wang (2021) discusses the differences in addressing between Korean and English. Not surprisingly, kinship address terms are more complex and varied in Korean compared to English. Wang (2021, p. 30-31) provides a table which demonstrates the kinship terms in Korean and English, as in Table 2.3.

Table 2. 3. Family terms in Korean and English (*Adapted from Wang, 2021, p. 30-31*)

Korean Item	English Item
아버님 / 아버지	Father
어머니 / 엄마	Mother
할아버지 father's father 외할아버지 mother's father	Grandfather
할머니 father's mother 외할머니 mother's mother	Grandmother
아들, 딸	Son, Daughter
형 older brother (male speaking)	Brother
오빠 older brother of girl (female speaking)	
남동생 younger brother	
누나 older sister (male speaking)	Sister
언니 older sister (female speaking)	
여동생 younger sister	
남편, 아내	Husband, Wife
큰아버지 father's older brother	Uncle
삼촌 father's younger brother	
고모부 the husband of father's sister	
이모부 the husband of mother's sister	
외숙 mother's brother	
Uncle	
큰어머니 the wife of father's older brother	Aunt
숙모 the wife of father's younger brother	
고모 father's sister	
이모 mother's sister	
외숙모 the wife of mother's brother	

Table 2.3 (Wang, 2021, pp. 30-31) demonstrates how the different assessments of social and relative relations affect the diversity of address forms. In Korean, there are many more variables for which English uses only one term, as in the case with ‘uncle’. The author gives reference to the fact that Korean society is collectivist while discussing the differences between English.

An interesting cultural difference regarding the use of kinship terms has been documented by Ubanako (2021). Ubanako (2021) examines the address forms used between students and lecturers in a university milieu in Cameroon. According to the results, the students turned out to use several types of address forms to their lecturers, including kinship terms. It is well known that kinship terms are used for non-relatives in certain cultures, however, it is not very common to encounter cultures in which addressing the lecturers with a kinship term is a usual behaviour. As it was found out, it is quite usual for students to address their lecturers with a kinship term, such as ‘*daddy*’ and ‘*pa*’ for male faculty and ‘*ma’a*’ for female faculty, in Cameroon culture. Ubanako (2021, p. 338) notes the example in (32) between a lecturer and a student.

- (32) Student: Ralph, what style sheet are you using here?
Lecturer: *Daddy*, I am using the APA style sheet.

There are several studies which compare the same language spoken in different areas which differs in addressing, let alone different languages. Norrby et al. (2015) compare the address practices in Swedish spoken in Sweden and Finland in the context of medical consultations. Although it is the same language, geography seems to take part in shaping the address practices. The results of the study reveal that it is more common to use informal T form and direct address in Sweden-Swedish compared to Finland-Swedish. Overall, it has been contended that Sweden-Swedish is characterized by a more informal register in addressing, while Finland-Swedish is more formal. This difference has been interpreted as the outcomes of socio-cultural preferences of the society.

There seems a consensus that culture is closely related to language use and both concepts are intertwined in practice. It is expected for culture to have remarkable impacts on the use of address terms in a given language, as many studies have revealed.

3. METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the framework of methodology of the current study will be presented. The research design, the materials, the data collection instrument, and the procedure of the data analysis will be introduced.

3.1. Research Design

The study has been conducted utilizing the method of content analysis. “Content analysis is a research method that uses a set of procedures to make valid inferences from text” (Weber, 1990, p. 117). This method can be applied to any written material, including documents, interview transcriptions, and so forth (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). The study aims to identify the statistical relationship between the address forms in the textbook dialogues and the sociopragmatic scales of politeness, therefore, it embraces a quantitative approach.

3.2. Materials

The data of this study have been extracted from the address forms in the dialogues in the following EFL textbooks which are approved by MoNE to be used in high schools in Turkey.

1. *Teenwise 9 Student's Book (A1/A2)*, written by Ebru Bulut, Funda Baydar Ertopçu, Seda Umur Özadalı, Sibel Şentürk and published by MoNE in 2019.
2. *Ortaöğretim İngilizce 10 Ders Kitabı (A2+/B1)*, written by Çiler Genç Karataş and published by Gizem Yayıncılık in 2018.
3. *Silver Lining 11 Student's Book (B1+/B2)*, written by Ebru Akdağ, Funda Baydar Ertopçu, Kader Uyanık Bektaş, Seda Umur Özadalı, Tuğba Kaya and published by MoNE in 2019.
4. *Count Me In 12 Student's Book (B2+)*, written by Fethi Çimen, Bilgen Taşkiran Tiğin, Ayten Çokçalışkan, Nihan Özyıldırım, Mustafa Özdemir and published by MoNe in 2019.

3.3. Data Collection Instrument

Al-Qudah (2017) asserts that the address forms can be viewed from the perspective of politeness theory, given the fact that the selection of a certain address term is based on how polite it sounds in a given context. In fact, the politeness

phenomenon should be taken into consideration while studying any linguistic expression related to social interaction (Clyne, Norrby, & Warren, 2009). Specifically, address behaviour has been discussed to be in relation with sociopragmatic politeness. Therefore, this study aims to analyze the address forms in Turkish high school EFL textbook dialogues depending on the elements of sociopragmatic politeness. To this end, a rubric based on the sociopragmatic scales of politeness proposed by Leech (2014) is designed by the researchers of this study (Appendix 2). Leech (2014) lists five headings under the *Sociopragmatic Scales to Assess the Appropriate Degree of Politeness*:

1. *Vertical Distance* which involves the asymmetric distance between the speakers in terms of status, power, role, age and so forth. Basically, this scale corresponds to the P (power) factor proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987).
2. *Horizontal Distance* is related to the social intimacy or social distance of the interlocutors, which corresponds to the D (distance) factor by Brown and Levinson (1987).
3. *Cost/Benefit* scale is related to the extent of the favor, benefit, service or burden transacted by S to H, or vice versa. This scale corresponds to the R (rank of imposition) factor by Brown and Levinson (1987) and it was put as ‘size of imposition’ by Thomas (1995).
4. *Strength* is about the socially defined rights/obligations between speakers and hearers, such as the rights of customers towards service providers, or vice versa, the obligations of service providers to customers, the obligations of a bus driver to the passengers who would like to get off the bus.
5. *Self-territory vs other-territory* scale is related to the conception of in-group or out-group membership.

Leech (2014) argues that the fifth scale is specific to certain non-Western cultures, thus it is irrelevant to the current study. Although it is not used in the analysis of the data in this study, the data collection instrument (Appendix 2) still includes the fifth scale with the hope that it would assist future research which may be conducted on non-Western languages. In addition to the scales of sociopragmatic politeness by Leech (2014), the data collection instrument includes the scales of gender for both the speaker and the hearer, which are abbreviated as *S* and *H*. It also includes the

identification of the social identities of the interlocutors, the speech situation, the speech event, and the speech act of the utterance.

3.4. Procedure

The procedure has been conducted by following the steps of content analysis proposed by Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007). Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007) provide a model for content analysis which consists of eleven steps. These steps are listed below and followed as the procedure of this study, as explained in each step.

a. *Defining the research questions to be addressed by the content analysis:*

This step includes the purpose of analyzing the content of the selected material. The study aims to analyze the address forms in Turkish high school EFL textbook dialogues with reference to sociopragmatic politeness and seeks answers to the questions depicted in section 1.4.

b. *Defining the population from which units of text are to be sampled:* High school EFL textbooks (grades 9, 10, 11, and 12) which are approved by MoNE constitute the population of the study, as stated in section 3.2.

c. *Defining the sample to be included:* *Purposive sampling* strategy is deployed to sample the texts from the population. This strategy is used when there is a certain expectation or a certain characteristic is sought in the text (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). Given the fact that this study aims to analyze the address forms in the textbook dialogues, the researchers have purposefully sampled the dialogues involving two interlocutors from the population.

d. *Defining the context of the generation of the document:* EFL textbooks typically involve three types of dialogue presentation as written, auditory, and audio-visual material. Therefore, all the dialogues involving two interlocutors have been included. Audio texts and audio-visual texts have been transcribed verbatim into written texts for a better perspective towards the analysis. All the dialogues which constitute the data sample of this study are in Appendix 1.

e. *Defining the units of analysis:* Units of analysis can be variable, such as words, phrases, people or themes (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). The primary units of analysis of this study are the address forms that the interlocutors use towards each other in the textbook dialogues. In addition, the social characteristics of the interlocutors in the textbook dialogues have been taken into

consideration while analyzing the use of address forms. These include the genders of the interlocutors, their social identities during the interaction, the speech situation of the interaction, the speech event of the conversation, the speech act of the utterance, the vertical distance between the interlocutors, the horizontal distance between the interlocutors, the cost/benefit relationship between the interlocutors, and the rights/obligation relationship between the interlocutors.

f. Deciding the codes to be used in the analysis: A word or abbreviation can be a code for the researcher to understand what it means at a glance (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). The codes of this study involve both words, abbreviations, and symbols. After identifying the target address form in the dialogue, the first step is to determine the gender of the speaker and the hearer. The gender variable is coded in the rubric as the words “Female” or “Male” in the area provided. The second step is to determine the identities of the interlocutors, such as “teacher – student”, “friend – friend” or “colleague – colleague.” The social identities of the interlocutors are coded in the rubric with words. Thirdly, the speech situation of the dialogue is determined and coded in the rubric with words, such as “on the street”, “on the phone”, or “at the school.” Next, the speech event of the utterance accompanied by the address form is determined and coded in the rubric in words. The coding of the speech events is built on the speech event categories, i.e., “competitive”, “convivial”, “collaborative”, and “conflictive” (see section 2.1.1.2). After coding the speech event, the speech act accompanied by the address form is coded in the rubric with words, such as “thanking”, “agreeing”, “disagreeing”, and so forth.

The scales of sociopragmatic politeness are coded in the rubric with several symbols, including “<”, “>”, and “=” symbols. The vertical distance between the interlocutors is coded as “S > H” if the speaker is vertically higher than the hearer, “S < H” is coded if the speaker is vertically lower than the hearer, and “S = H” is used when the speaker and the hearer are vertically equal. The horizontal distance between the interlocutors is coded as “S + H” if there is high social distance between the speaker and the hearer, and “S – H” is used when they are socially close and intimate. The cost/benefit relationship between the interlocutors is coded as “S > H” if the speaker gets the benefit and the hearer

gets the cost, while “S < H” is used if the speaker gets the cost and the hearer gets the benefit. The rights/obligations relationship between the speaker and the hearer is coded as “S > H” if the speaker has rights and the hearer has obligations, while “S < H” is coded if the hearer has rights and the speaker has obligations towards the hearer. If there is no rights/obligations relationship between the interlocutors, “S – H” is coded. Finally, the identified address form is coded in the rubric according to its semantic category proposed by Leech (1999) (see section 2.3.2), such as “endearments”, “family terms”, “honorifics”, and so forth.

g. Constructing the categories for analysis: Categories are the further groupings of the specific codes according to the relationship between them (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). Instead of creating further categories for the data, the specific codes are more beneficial to use in terms of the purpose of the current study.

h. Conducting the coding and categorizing of the data: Coding is the procedure of ascribing a label to a piece of data and these labels can be determined in advance (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). The rubric designed in advance by the researchers is used to conduct this step of content analysis. Each address form in the dialogues is coded in the rubric with the accompanying variables by providing intercoder reliability.

i. Conducting the data analysis: When the coding of the address forms is completed, the coded data have been transferred to the software “The R Project for Statistical Computing” for statistical analysis. Fisher’s Test has been operated to compute the statistical relationships between the address forms and the other variables with 95% reliability of the results.

j. Summarizing: After the statistical computation of the data, results of the tests are presented in cross tables with frequencies and percentages.

k. Making speculative inferences: This step is significant, since it allows researchers to propose explanations for the current situation or the possible causes of the situation (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). Based on the test results and the revealed *p* values, a discussion is provided on the findings. The results of the study have been discussed from several aspects and suggestions have been made accordingly.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the analysis of the data has been presented in line with the research questions of the study. To this end, cross tables have been generated followed by a related discussion on the findings. The study incorporates the analysis of a total of 148 address forms used in the dialogues in the textbooks involved in the study. Table 4.1 presents the frequency distribution of the data within the textbooks.

Table 4. 1. The Distribution of the Cumulative Data

Textbook	N	%
9 th Grade	28	18.9
10 th Grade	51	34.5
11 th Grade	29	19.6
12 th Grade	40	27.0
Total	148	100

As Table 4.1 indicates, 18.9% of the address forms collected as the data are obtained from the 9th grade EFL textbook, 34.5% from the 10th grade textbook, 19.6% from the 11th grade textbook, and 27.0% from the 12th grade textbook. The distribution of the types of address forms within the collected data is presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4. 2. The Distribution of the Types of Address Forms

Address Forms	N	%
Endearments	10	6.8
Family Terms	10	6.8
Familiarizers	-	-
Familiarized FNs	23	15.5
First Names	78	52.7
Title + Surname	16	10.8
Honorifics	7	4.7
Others	4	2.7
Total	148	100

According to Table 4.2, the study incorporates the analysis of endearments (6.8%), family terms (6.8%), familiarized FNs (15.5%), FNs (52.7%), title and surname (10.8%), honorifics (4.7%) and other (2.7%) types of address forms. Apparently, the most frequently recurring address forms throughout the textbook dialogues are FNs, constituting 52.7% of the entire data. FN address is followed by familiarized FNs, though as not frequent as them, constituting 15.5% of the data. Following that, title and surname form of address is encountered at 10.8%, while endearments and family terms are encountered in equal distribution, both indicating

6.8% of the data. Finally, honorifics and other types of address forms hold relatively small quantities within the data, indicating 4.7% and 2.7% respectively.

4.1. Findings of the Gender and the Address Forms

The first research question aims to find out if gender is reflected as a factor in the use of address forms in the dialogues in Turkish EFL textbooks, which has been viewed from three different perspectives. Firstly, the relationship between the gender of the speakers and the address forms they use has been examined. Secondly, the relationship between the gender of the hearers and the address forms they receive in the dialogues has been taken into consideration. Finally, the address forms used in male-to-male, female-to-female, and mixed gender dialogues have been compared to reveal if there is a statistically significant difference between the gender groups of the dialogues in terms of the address forms they include.

The primary approach to the first research question centers the gender of the speakers at the core. Table 4.3 depicts and yields comparison of the address forms used by the speakers regarding their gender variability. According to the analysis, there is a statistically significant relationship between the gender of the speakers and the address forms they are presented to use in the textbook dialogues ($p < 0.05$).

Table 4. 3. Crosstabulation of the Gender of the Speakers and the Address Forms

Address Forms	Gender of the Speakers			
	Female		Male	
	N	%	N	%
Endearments	7	9.5	3	4.3
Family Terms	4	5.4	6	8.6
Familiarized FNs	13	17.6	10	14.3
First Names	41	55.4	37	52.9
Title + Surname	1	1.4	11	15.7
Honorifics	5	6.8	2	2.9
Others	3	4.1	1	1.4
Total	74	100	70	100

$p = 0.037$ ($p < 0.05$)

A growing body of literature embodies research on gendered language, which has become considerably popular in recent decades. Many differences in language use between males and females have been documented by a number of studies. Even the fillers ‘*um*’ and ‘*uh*’ have been documented to be used differently by males and females (Tottie, 2011; Acton, 2011), let alone address forms. Therefore, it is beneficial to import the gender variable into linguistic investigations to understand the dynamics

of language use and the social perceptions of genders represented via language. Accordingly, examining the address forms in the textbooks within the gender framework is of great importance, since addressing in the textbooks can create social information in learners' minds while they use them to learn the language (Behravan & Vosoughi, 2020).

The variable of the genders of the speakers has been scrutinized with the account of 144 address forms, eliminating the 4 address forms from the cumulative sample because of the uncertainty of the speaker gender in one of the dialogues which is a magazine interview. The excerpt in (33) is a part of this dialogue which gives no clue about the gender of the interviewer.

(33) Teen Focus: Mr. Brown, first of all, would you please tell us about the social lives of people in the past?²

Among the 144 address forms analyzed, 74 of these address forms are used by the female speakers, while the remaining 70 are used by the male speakers. Hence, the distribution of using any address forms is disclosed to be roughly balanced with respect to the gender of the speakers. However, statistical analysis results reveal that the type of address forms is what depends on the gender of the speaker.

Although results of the analysis grant significant difference, both of the genders predominantly prefer using FNs, followed by using familiarized FNs. Table 4.3 shows that 55.4% of the female speakers and 52.9% of the male speakers use FN address forms. Familiarized FNs are used by the female speakers at 17.6% and by the male speakers at 14.3%. The female speakers are revealed to use familiarized FNs slightly more frequently than the male speakers. This finding is reminiscent of what several scholars (e.g., Tannen, 1990) assert that females tend to create a language of connection and intimacy, while males focus on status and independence.

For instance, consider the example in (34), where the female speaker (F) uses the diminutive form of James, Jamie, while the male speaker (M) uses the full name of the female interlocutor.

(34) F: *Jamie*, guess what? I have found lots of photos for our presentation which is for the friendship day. Come and have a look.

² Excerpted from *Ortaöğretim İngilizce 10 Ders Kitabı* (pp. 56).

M: Good job, *Phoebe*. Wow! Henry Ford and Thomas Edison, huh? Were they really close friends? I know their great inventions, but I never heard that they had a sincere friendship.³

Within the addressing framework, Rubin (1981) also finds out that female speakers use more familiar terms of address when compared to male speakers. Likewise, endearment terms are used by the female speakers more than the male speakers in the textbook dialogues. While 9.5% of the female speakers use endearment terms, 4.3% of the male speakers benefit from the endearment terms. For instance, the examples in (35) and (36) demonstrate “mother (M) – son (S)” and “father (F) – son (F)” dyads. While the mother uses endearment terms, the father uses family terms.

- (35) M: Don't get me wrong *dear*, but in order to help with our budget you must initially unplug your mobile phone charger then. I never see it unplugged. Don't you think so?
S: Come on, *mom*. You're exaggerating. It cannot be the only reason for high electricity bills.
M: OK, OK, just kidding, *honey*. What can be done individually? What are the other things we should focus on? Any recommendations?⁴
- (36) S: I can't stand people staring at my face, *dad*. I hate my pimples. They're so embarrassing.
F: Tell me about it, *son*. When I was at your age my face was full of pimples and scars.⁵

Honorific terms of address are the other types of address forms which are used by the female speakers more frequently than the male speakers. The female speakers use honorifics at 6.8%, while 2.9% of the male speakers use them.

Contrasting with the finding that honorifics are used by the female speakers more frequently, title and surname address forms are used by the male speakers more frequently than the female speakers. While 15.7% of the male speakers use title and surname address forms, only 1.4% of the female speakers use titles. Title and surname forms of address indicate the high status of the hearer. Supporting Tannen (1990), theoretically, the male speakers underline status and independence more frequently than the female speakers who value connection and intimacy in the textbook dialogues. On the other hand, family terms are revealed to be used by the male speakers more frequently than the female speakers, however, it is a slight difference as the males use

³ Transcribed from Track 54, *Silver Lining 11 Student's Book*.

⁴ Transcribed from Tapescript 8.1, *Count Me In 12 Student's Book*.

⁵ Transcribed from Track 20, *Silver Lining 11 Student's Book*.

family terms at 8.6%, while the females at 5.4%. As exemplified in (35) and (36), the female speakers are likely to use endearment terms to address their offspring, while the male speakers make use of family terms more frequently than the female speakers.

As is presented, the gender of the speaker has been found to have impacts on the choice of the address forms in the textbook dialogues. In line with what literature suggests, female and male speakers exhibit different styles of speech in communication. Thus, it can be argued that the textbook dialogues present address forms in a parallel way to the related literature, which suggests that there are differences between males and females in using address forms. Literature on address theory also suggests that besides the gender of the speaker, the gender of the hearer should be accounted for while investigating address behaviour (Dunkling, 1990).

The second approach to the first research question deals with the relation between the gender of the hearers and the address forms they receive in the dialogues. According to the findings in Table 4.4, there is no statistically significant relationship between the gender of the hearers and the address forms they receive from the speakers in the textbook dialogues ($p > 0.05$).

Table 4. 4. Crosstabulation of the Gender of the Hearers and the Address Forms

Address Forms	Gender of the Hearers			
	Female		Male	
	N	%	N	%
Endearments	6	7.4	4	6.0
Family Terms	7	8.6	3	4.5
Familiarized FNs	9	11.1	14	20.9
First Names	44	54.3	34	50.7
Title + Surname	11	13.6	5	7.5
Honorifics	2	2.5	5	7.5
Others	2	2.5	2	3.0
Total	81	100	67	100

$p = 0.333$ ($p > 0.05$)

Table 4.4 shows that the most frequently received address forms are FNs in both genders. Not surprisingly, 54.3% of the female hearers and 50.7% of the male hearers receive FNs. Although the results of the analysis yield no statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$), it can be argued that some of the address forms are considerably used for one gender more than they are used for the other. For instance, the female hearers receive family terms more frequently than the male hearers, who receive 4.5%, while the female hearers receive 8.6% of them. Similarly, title and surname address

forms are used for the female hearers more frequently than the male hearers, as 13.6% of the female hearers receive title and surname address forms, while 7.5% of the male hearers do. Interestingly, literature suggests that titles are used for males more frequently than females, due to the assumption that females are perceived as lower in status than males (e.g., Files et al., 2017). Therefore, it may be a sign that the stereotypic perceptions of genders are avoided in the textbook dialogues regarding the address forms. Although honorifics, on the other hand, are used for the male hearers more frequently than the female hearers, at 7.5% and 2.5%, respectively.

Males are rarely addressed as their FNs in full in American English, rather, their names are either abbreviated or familiarized in general, while female FNs are used more frequently in their full forms (Brown & Ford, 1961). Correspondingly, familiarized FNs are used for the male hearers (20.9%) more frequently than the female hearers (11.1%) in the textbook dialogues. For instance, the excerpt in (37) is from a dialogue between a male and a female friend. While the female speaker (F) uses the familiarized form of the name Steven, Steve, the male speaker (M) does not use the familiarized form of Jane, such as Janie.

- (37) F: Hey, *Steve*! How is it going?
M: Hi, *Jane*. Not bad, thanks. And you?⁶

Besides these notable differences, the remaining types of address forms are used for both genders with approximately similar ratio, as presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4. 5. Crosstabulation of the Gender Pairs and the Address Forms

Address Forms	Gender Pairs					
	Male - Male		Female - Female		Mixed	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Endearments	-	-	3	10.3	7	7.2
Family Terms	3	16.7	4	13.8	3	3.1
Familiarized FNs	3	16.7	2	6.9	18	18.6
First Names	12	66.7	19	65.5	47	48.5
Title + Surname	-	-	-	-	12	12.4
Honorifics	-	-	-	-	7	7.2
Others	-	-	1	3.4	3	3.1
Total	18	100	29	100	97	100

p = 0.034 (p < 0.05)

The third approach to the first research question on gender focuses on the gender pairs of the dialogues, and it aims to explore if there is a significant difference between

⁶ Transcribed from Video 1.1, *Ortaöğretim İngilizce 10 Ders Kitabı*.

the address forms used in male-to-male, female-to-female, and mixed gender dyads. According to the results in Table 4.5, there is a statistically significant difference in the distribution of address forms regarding the gender pairs of the textbook dialogues ($p < 0.05$).

According to the findings in Table 4.5, address forms in mixed gender dialogues are more diverse than in male-to-male or female-to-female dialogues. It is observable that mixed gender dialogues present all the types of address forms either in low or high frequency, while there are several address forms which are not presented in male-to-male and female-to-male dialogues at all. In male-to-male dialogues, only three types of address forms are presented. Namely, they are FNs (66.7%), familiarized FNs (16.7%), and family terms (16.7%). The example in (36) demonstrates the use of family terms between males, as (38) demonstrates the use of FN address in male-to-male dyads in the textbook dialogues. Besides, the example in (39) projects an excerpt from a male-to-male conversation in which familiarized FNs are used by both interlocutors (i.e., *Sam* for *Samuel*, and *Jack* for *Jackson*).

- (38) Hakan: Where are you from, *Rodas*?
 Rodas: I'm from Greece. What is your job?
 Hakan: I'm a student. And you?
 Rodas: I'm a student too. Nice to meet you, *Hakan*!⁷
- (39) Jack: Hey, *Sam*. Could you do me a massive favor?
 Sam: I'm not sure, *Jack*. What is that?⁸

Male-to-male dialogues hold no presentation of the remaining types of address forms, i.e., endearments, title and surnames, honorifics, and others. Likewise, female-to-female dyads ignore the presentation of title and surname address forms and honorifics. Nevertheless, they include more types of address forms than male-to-male dyads, which are endearments (10.3%), family terms (13.8%), familiarized FNs (6.9%), FNs (65.5%), and others (3.4%). The example in (40) can be given to demonstrate the use of endearment terms in female-to-female dialogues from the textbooks.

- (40) F: Oh, I see. She's wearing a headscarf.
 F: Yes, *dear*. She's my favorite sportswoman. And do you see Steve Jones?⁹

⁷ Excerpted from *Teenwise 9 Student's Book* (p. 15).

⁸ Transcribed from Tapescript 6.5, *Count Me In 12 Student's Book*.

⁹ Transcribed from Track 20, *Teenwise 9 Student's Book*.

On the other hand, mixed gender dialogues present the use of all the types of address forms, namely, FNs (48.5%), familiarized FNs (18.6), title and surname (12.4%), endearments (7.2%), honorifics (7.2%), family terms (3.1%), and others (3.1%).

In line with Leech (1999), who notes that endearment terms of address are typically not used between males, textbook dialogues demonstrate similar results, as no endearment terms are used in male-to-male dyads. Males use the address forms like ‘*dude*’ to create a masculine solidarity with other males, as well as to satisfy heterosexism (Kiesling, 2004).

A possible reason for the males not using endearment terms to address each other in the textbook dialogues is argued to be related this proposition, as using endearments to address each other would evoke homosexual atmosphere which may not be welcomed by heterosexual men. Instead, the results reveal that the endearment terms of address are used only in either female-to-female dialogues or mixed gender dialogues.

Eventually, it has been found that gender is represented as a factor in the choice of address forms in the textbook dialogues. The results of the analysis reveal that there is a statistically significant difference in using the forms of address regarding the gender of the speakers and the gender pairs of the dialogues.

Although the results of the analysis yield no statistically significant difference regarding the gender of the hearers, several points in the findings show differences which are worth mentioning, as it has been discussed. Males and females make use of language in quite different ways, and apparently addressing in the textbook dialogues is no exception.

4.2. Findings of the Social Identities and the Address Forms

The second research question aims to find out if the social identities of the interlocutors are reflected in the address forms they use. According to the data analysis in Table 4.6, there is a statistically significant relationship between the social identities of the interlocutors and the address forms they use ($p < 0.05$). Besides, it has been found that the textbook dialogues represent many encounters of social identities, as can be observed in Table 4.6.

Table 4. 6. Crosstabulation of the Social Identities and the Address Forms

Social Identities (S – H)	Address Forms															
	Endearments		Family Terms		Familiarized FNs		First Names		Title + Surname		Honorifics		Others		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Applicant - Manager	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	100	-	-	-	-	2	100
Colleague - Colleague	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	100
Daughter - Mother	-	-	4	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	100
Father - Son	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100
Friend - Friend	-	-	-	-	20	52.6	17	44.7	-	-	-	-	1	2.6	38	100
Husband - Wife	3	60.0	-	-	-	-	2	40.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	100
Int.wee – Int.wer	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	100
Int.wer – Int.wee	2	8.0	-	-	-	-	18	72.0	5	20.0	-	-	-	-	25	100
Manager - Applicant	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	100
Mother - Daughter	1	50.0	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	50.0	2	100
Mother - Son	2	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	100
Neighbor - Neighbor	1	25.0	-	-	1	25.0	2	50.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	100
Niece - Uncle	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	100	2	100
Official – Passenger	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	1	100
Operator - Caller	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	1	100
Patient - Doctor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	1	100
Receptionist - Guest	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	100	-	-	2	100
Roommates	1	12.5	-	-	-	-	7	87.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	100
Son - Father	-	-	2	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	100
Son - Mother	-	-	3	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	100
Student - Student	-	-	-	-	2	13.3	13	86.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	15	100
Student - Teacher	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	100	-	-	-	-	8	100
Teacher - Student	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	100
Ticket agent – Cust.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	100	-	-	3	100
Uncle - Niece	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	100
Wife - Husband	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	100

p < 0.001 (p < 0.05)

When people take part in an interaction as the participants, they are bound with certain social roles in line with their social identities, the context, and the setting. Furthermore, we establish social role relationships while interacting with the others, and we adjust our speech in line with our social identities during the interaction, such as the role relations between “friend – friend”, “teacher – student”, or “husband – wife” dyads. That is, Jack is a husband and he talks like a husband when he is interacting with his wife, while he is the son of his mother and talks like a son when interacting with her mother. It is likely that Dr. Smith, for instance, talks like a doctor but not a father when he is discussing new drugs with his colleagues (Brown & Fraser, 1979). In fact, Brown and Fraser (1979) argue that many occupational roles, such as lawyers, clergymen, advertisers, have their distinct speech registers, and interestingly, another role-related speech variation is argued to be the speech of mothers (Fraser & Roberts,

1975; Snow & Ferguson, 1977). Therefore, it is important to take speech roles into consideration while investigating language variation, as well as the use of address forms.

The textbook dialogues involve the presentation of many speech role relations, among which the most frequently recurring ones are “friend – friend”, “interviewer – interviewee”, and “student – student” dyads. In “friend – friend” dialogues, familiarized FNs are the most frequently used address forms (52.6%), followed by the use of FNs (44.7%). Since friendships typically involve familiarity and intimacy, it is an expected result that the familiarized FNs are mostly used. However, in “interviewer – interviewee” dialogues, there have been found no instances of familiarized FNs. Rather, the most frequently used address forms are the FNs (72.0%), followed by titles (20.0%) in “interviewer – interviewee” dyads. The example in (41) is from an interview, in which the interviewer addresses the interviewee by a title.

- (41) Interviewer: Today, we have guest to discuss seven principles of the great philosopher, Mevlana Jalal ad-Din Rumi. Welcome, *Professor Olsen*.
Interviewee: Thank you. It's a pleasure to talk about these golden pieces of advice.¹⁰

The possible reason for not seeing any familiarized FNs in “interviewer – interviewee” dyads is the supposed distance between the two in such a formal interview setting. On the other hand, in “student – student” dialogues, the most frequently used address forms are FNs (86.7%), followed by familiarized FNs (13.3%).

It can be argued that the addressing in the textbook dialogues represents the speech role relationships in a classical way. That is to say, FNs are the most frequently used type of address in most of the dialogues. In addition, formal role relationships are generally marked with formal forms of address, while informal ones are marked with less formal address forms. Specifically, titles and honorifics forms of address are introduced only in formal encounters, such as “applicant – manager”, “interviewer – interviewee”, “patient – doctor”, “student – teacher”, “official – passenger”, “operator – caller”, receptionist – guest”, and “ticket agent – customer” role relations. More informal forms of address are embedded in informal role relationships, such as endearments, which are used mostly in informal relationships like “husband – wife”,

¹⁰ Transcribed from Track 61, *Silver Lining 11 Student's Book*.

“mother – daughter”, “mother – son”, “neighbor – neighbor”, and “roommate – roommate” relationships. Similarly, familiarized FNs are used only in “friend – friend”, “mother – daughter”, “neighbor – neighbor”, and “student – student” relations. Not surprisingly, all the offspring roles are presented to use family terms to address their parents, i.e., “daughter – mother”, “son – father”, and “son – mother” roles. Some of the examples of different social identities and the address forms involved in the dialogues can be observed in (42), (43), (44), and (45).

- (42) Friend: Oh, *Jake*. Are you jealous of him?
 Friend: Who? Me? Don't be ridiculous, *Kate*. I'm telling the truth.¹¹
- (43) Student: Good afternoon, *Mrs. Williams*.
 Teacher: Good afternoon, *David*. You look so unhappy. What is the matter with you?¹²
- (44) Customer: Good morning. I'd like to book a flight, please.
 Ticket agent: OK, *madam*. What city would you like to fly to?¹³
- (45) Guest: Good afternoon.
 Receptionist: Good afternoon, *sir*. How can I help you?¹⁴

After all, textbook dialogues seem to reflect the use of address forms in line with what vast of the literature suggests. Besides the norms of traditional use of address forms, new perspectives in address research are puzzled with the growing tendency towards the use of informal address forms even in formal relations in English speaking cultures (e.g., Wright, 2009). Thus, it can be argued that the inclusion of several informal address terms in formal relationships, such as a student who addresses teachers as their FNs, would arguably reflect the current orientations in the culture of the target language.

4.3. Findings of the Speech Situations and the Address Forms

The third research question aims to find out if there is a statistically significant relationship between the speech situations and the address forms used. According to the results shown in Table 4.7, there is a statistically significant difference between the address forms regarding the speech situations ($p < 0.05$).

The situation of the speech is one of the important factors which affect the language use, as well as the use of address forms. It is of great importance to examine

¹¹ Transcribed from Track 30, *Teenwise 9 Student's Book*.

¹² Transcribed from Audio 1.3, *Ortaöğretim İngilizce 10 Ders Kitabı*.

¹³ Transcribed from Audio 5.4, *Ortaöğretim İngilizce 10 Ders Kitabı*.

¹⁴ Transcribed from Audio 5.5, *Ortaöğretim İngilizce 10 Ders Kitabı*.

the setting and context of the dialogue, i.e., speech situation as referred to as in this study. Situation is the context in which the speech event or the interaction is realized, involving several components among which the setting is first to cross minds (Brown & Fraser, 1979). Norms of the institutions are important factors determining the appropriate language choice in different contexts, such as law courts, schools, and the media (Holmes, 2018).

Table 4. 7. Crosstabulation of the Speech Situations and the Address Forms

Speech Situations	Address Forms															
	Endearments		Family Terms		Familiarized FNs		First Names		Title + Surname		Honorifics		Others		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
At home	2	17.2	4	13.8	6	20.7	10	34.5	-	-	-	-	4	13.8	29	100
At the airport	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	1	100
At the hospital	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	1	100
At the office	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	60.0	-	-	2	40.0	-	-	5	100
At the reception	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	100	-	-	2	100
At the school	-	-	-	-	2	10.0	10	50.0	8	40.0	-	-	-	-	20	100
Job interview	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	60.0	2	40.0	-	-	-	-	5	100
Media interview	2	7.1	-	-	-	-	21	75.0	5	17.9	-	-	-	-	28	100
On the phone	-	-	-	-	2	18.2	7	63.6	-	-	2	18.2	-	-	11	100
On the street	1	14.3	-	-	1	14.3	5	71.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	100

p < 0.001 (p < 0.05)

The way individuals handle language use varies not just according to who they are, but also according to the context of the situation they are involved in (Montgomery, 1986). Each situation requires speakers to adjust their speech accordingly, a phenomenon which is called *register* or *stylistic variation* (Montgomery, 1986). Individuals can speak very formally or informally according to the situation. For instance, answering the questions by a judge at the court room requires a high level of formality, while having a casual conversation with a friend in the classroom does not. The use of address forms is no exception, that is, one would expect to hear a lot more title forms of address in the atmosphere of a hospital than of a birthday party. It is appreciable to have these stylistic differences when we consider “the stylistic appropriateness of *What do you intend to do, your majesty?* and the inappropriateness of *Waddy intend doin’, Rex?*” (Wardhaugh, 1998, p. 48). In that, what are the factors making the former speaker address the interlocutor as *your majesty*, while the latter one uses the FN of the interlocutor, let alone the other informal structures in the utterance? Undoubtedly, one of them is the speech situation, i.e., the

context and the setting. As Brown and Fraser (1979, p. 48) put it, the use of address forms is “sensitive to scene-based definitions of formality.”

One critical point to be mentioned before discussing the results is the unfortunate finding that a considerable number of dialogues do not present any clue about the situation of the speech. Therefore, 39 address forms have been eliminated from the data because of the uncertainty of the speech situation, leading the research question to be answered with the account of 109 address forms. This aspect of the textbook dialogues is not appreciated, since it is impossible for communicative events to “occur by themselves standing away from what so-called context” (Meiristiani, 2011, p. 43). There are ten different speech situations identified which can be listed as the contexts of home, airport, hospital, office, reception, school, job interview, telephone conversation, and street conversation.

According to the findings in Table 4.7, there is a statistically significant relationship between the speech situations and the address forms they involve ($p < 0.05$). The most frequently recurring speech situation is the context of home, in which the most frequently used address forms are FNs (34.5%), followed by familiarized FNs (20.7%), endearments (17.2%), family terms (13.8%), and others (13.8%). Properly, home settings do not involve any instances of formal address forms, such as titles or honorifics. For instance, a conversation between a wife and a husband at home can be cited as in (46), in which they talk about the repairs that the house needs.

- (46) Mary: We cannot lock this room. The lock set needs changing.
Robert: OK, *dear*. I'll get it changed.
Mary: And these chairs, honey. We cannot sit on them because they are not steady.¹⁵

Media interviews are the second most recurring speech situation in the data. In media interviews, the mostly encountered address form is the FN address (75.0%), followed by title and surname address (17.9%) and endearments (7.1%). On the other hand, school contexts are the third mostly recurring speech situation. In school situations, FNs are the most frequently used address forms (50.0%), followed by title and surname forms of address (40.0%) and familiarized FNs (10.0%).

¹⁵ Transcribed from Tapescript 9.1, *Count Me In 12 Student's Book*.

Telephone conversations are the fourth mostly recurring speech situation. The most frequently used address forms FNs (63.6%) in telephone conversations, followed by familiarized FNs (18.2%) and honorifics (18.2%). Street encounters come to be the fifth mostly recurring speech situation in the data, in which FNs are the most frequently used address forms (71.4%), followed by familiarized FNs (14.3%) and endearments (14.3%).

The remaining speech situations are all formal contexts, which are job interviews, office conversations, hospitals, and airports. Justifiably, FNs, titles and surnames, and honorifics are the types of address forms used in these formal speech situations. From a general perspective, it can be argued that the textbook dialogues present the use of address forms according to the speech situations. As the findings reveal, formal speech situations are accompanied by formal forms of address, while more informal speech situations involve the use of more informal address terms in a statistically significant way.

4.4. Findings of the Speech Events and the Address Forms

The fourth research question aims to find out if there is a significant relationship between the speech events and the address forms used in the textbook dialogues. According to the analysis in Table 4.8, there is no statistically significant relationship between the speech events and the address forms used ($p > 0.05$).

Table 4. 8. Crosstabulation of the Speech Events and the Address Forms

Address Forms	Speech Events					
	Competitive		Convivial		Collaborative	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Endearments	2	3.8	8	8.9	-	-
Family Terms	7	13.5	2	2.2	1	16.7
Familiarized FNs	10	19.2	12	13.3	1	16.7
First Names	28	53.8	46	51.1	4	66.7
Title + Surname	3	5.8	13	14.4	-	-
Honorifics	1	1.9	6	6.7	-	-
Others	1	1.9	3	3.3	-	-
Total	52	100	90	100	6	100

$p = 0.204$ ($p > 0.05$)

The data present the involvement of three speech events which are competitive speech events, convivial speech events, and collaborative speech events. Among the three speech events, convivial speech events are the most frequently encountered speech event, followed by competitive speech events, and lastly, collaborative speech

events which are used relatively low in frequency. Of all the address forms collected as the data, 90 of them are used in convivial speech events, 52 in competitive speech events, and 6 in collaborative speech events. After all, there are not any conflictive speech events encountered in the data.

In each speech event, the most frequently used type of address forms are FNs, as 53.8% of the competitive speech events, 51.1% of the convivial speech events, and 66.7% of the collaborative speech events make use of FNs as addressing. In competitive speech events, FNs are followed by familiarized FNs at 19.2%. In convivial speech events, FNs are followed by title and surname address forms at 14.4% and familiarized FNs at 13.3%. In convivial speech events, endearments, title and surname, and honorifics are used more frequently than in competitive speech events. In competitive speech events, family terms, familiarized FNs, and FNs are used more frequently than in convivial speech events.

The example in (47) is a sample from the textbook dialogues. Specifically, the speaker Kate firstly performs a convivial speech event by greeting the interlocutor. In line three, she performs a competitive speech event by questioning the interlocutor. In both speech events, the speaker uses FNs to address the interlocutor.

- (47) Kate: Oh, hi, *Jennifer*, how are you doing?
Jennifer: Hi, *Kate*. I'm fine.
Kate: Um... *Jennifer*, have you got a minute?¹⁶

Besides the minor differences in frequencies, as the results of the analysis reveal, the speech events are not reflected as a factor in the use of address forms in the textbook dialogues.

4.5. Findings of the Speech Acts and the Address Forms

Speech events embody speech acts, as they can involve one speech act or several speech acts. Therefore, speech acts are the indispensable elements of a conversation. The fifth research question aims to find out if the types of speech acts are reflected in the address forms in the textbook dialogues. According to the findings in Table 4.9, there is no statistically significant relationship between the speech acts and the address forms ($p > 0.05$). In other words, the types of speech acts have not been reflected as a factor in the choice of address forms.

¹⁶ Excerpted from *Count Me In 12 Student's Book* (p. 64).

Table 4. 9. Crosstabulation of the Speech Act Types and the Address Forms

Types of Speech Acts	Address Forms															
	Endearments		Family Terms		Familiarized FNs		First Names		Title + Surname		Honorifics		Others		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Accepting	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	100
Admiring	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100
Advising	1	33.3	-	-	-	-	2	66.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	100
Agreeing	1	9.1	1	9.1	-	-	4	36.4	4	36.4	-	-	1	9.1	11	100
Answering	2	25.0	1	12.5	1	12.5	3	37.5	-	-	-	-	1	12.5	8	100
Apologizing	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100
Asking	-	-	1	9.1	2	18.2	6	54.5	2	18.2	-	-	-	-	11	100
Asserting	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	100
Authorizing	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100
Commanding	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100
Commiserating	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100
Complaining	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	66.7	1	33.3	-	-	-	-	3	100
Complying	1	14.3	-	-	-	-	2	28.6	2	28.6	2	28.6	-	-	7	100
Congratulating	1	50.0	-	-	-	-	1	50.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	100
Criticizing	-	-	-	-	1	50.0	1	50.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	100
Disagreeing	-	-	2	28.6	2	28.6	3	42.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	100
Greeting	-	-	-	-	9	27.3	18	54.5	3	9.1	3	9.1	-	-	33	100
Joking	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	1	100
Lamenting	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100
Offering	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100
Praising	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100
Questioning	2	11.8	1	5.9	2	11.8	11	64.7	-	-	1	5.9	-	-	17	100
Refusing	-	-	-	-	2	50.0	1	25.0	-	-	-	-	1	25.0	4	100
Reporting	-	-	1	33.3	1	33.3	1	33.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	100
Requesting	-	-	1	25.0	-	-	3	75.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	100
Thanking	1	11.1	-	-	1	11.1	4	44.4	3	33.3	-	-	-	-	9	100
Welcoming	1	10.0	-	-	-	-	7	70.0	1	10.0	1	10.0	-	-	10	100

p = 0.085 (p > 0.05)

Tagliamonte (2006, p. 3) states that “language exists in context, dependent on the speaker who is using it, and dependent on where it is being used and why.” After discussing the former ones in the previous research questions, the last factor *why* is reminiscent of speech acts. In other words, one of the factors that language variation is dependent on is the purpose of the discourse, i.e., requesting something, questioning, thanking, praising, or disagreeing. “Politeness of speech acts is a matter of their costs” (Kasher, 1986, p. 110).

Brown and Levinson’s (1987) politeness theory suggests that people use different politeness strategies to lessen the degree of FTAs in accordance with the speech act to be performed. In other words, the utterance a person produces when requesting something from the hearer is probably not the same when he is informing the hearer about something. Since requesting something threatens the speaker’s face

to a greater degree, the speaker is likely to sound more polite, while informing is more neutral, and it does not need to be candy-coated in a polite discourse. As Leech (1983) views, some illocutions (e.g., orders) are inherently impolite, while some others (e.g., offers) are intrinsically polite.

In line with this, it can be argued that different types of speech acts should accompany different types of address forms in an attempt to help speakers balance their positive and negative face. However, as the findings reveal, speech acts are not presented as a factor in the choice of address forms in the textbook dialogues ($p > 0.05$). For instance, the example in (48) involves three types of speech acts which are accompanied by the address forms. However, in all three of them, the address forms are the FNs.

- (48) Helen: Hi, *Sarah*. I've got a favor to ask. Would you mind cooking dinner tonight?
I will stay late at work.
Sarah: Sure, *Helen*. What would you like?
Helen: Could I trouble you to make some soup?
Sarah: That sounds good. Let's eat delicious soup tonight. What kind of soup should I cook?
Helen: Would it be too much trouble for you to cook tomato soup?
Sarah: No, that's easy. Yummy. Good idea.
Helen: Thanks, *Sarah*. That really helps me out.
Sarah: No problem. It would be my pleasure.¹⁷

In example (48), the speaker Helen firstly greets and asks for a favor from the interlocutor by the FN address. Secondly, the interlocutor performs the speech act of accepting it, by using FN address. Lastly, the speaker Helen performs the speech act of thanking, again using FN address.

The sample in (48) exemplifies the results which yield no statistically significant relationship between the speech acts and the address forms used. As far as this study is concerned, the types of speech acts should be reflected as a factor in the choice of address forms. In light of the related literature, it can be argued that interlocutors make use of linguistic resources in different ways according to their speech acts. Therefore, it can be said that the address forms that interlocutors use in daily conversations may vary in line with the illocutionary force they bear in mind while they perform the speech acts.

¹⁷ Transcribed from Tapescript 6.3, *Count Me In 12 Student's Book*.

4.6. Findings of the Vertical Distance and the Address Forms

The sixth research question of the study aims to find out if the vertical distance between the interlocutors is reflected in the address forms used. According to the results in Table 4.10, there is a statistically significant relationship between the use of address forms and the vertical distance dimension between the interlocutors ($p < 0.05$).

Table 4. 10. Crosstabulation of the Vertical Distance and the Address Forms

Address Forms	Vertical Distance					
	S > H		S = H		S < H	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Endearments	3	15.8	5	6.7	2	3.7
Family Terms	1	5.3	-	-	9	16.7
Familiarized FNs	-	-	23	30.7	-	-
First Names	14	73.7	46	61.3	18	33.3
Title + Surname	-	-	-	-	16	29.6
Honorifics	-	-	-	-	7	13.0
Others	1	5.3	1	1.3	2	3.7
Total	19	100	75	100	54	100

p < 0.001 ($p < 0.05$)

Vertical distance has been one of the grounds of address research ever since the publication of the influential paper by Brown and Gilman (1960). Although this dimension is associated with different terminology like power and status in several publications, most of the scholars refer to the same phenomenon, all together which Leech (2014) unites under the dimension of vertical distance. Power, or vertical distance relation between the interlocutors is one of the most influential factors in individuals' attitudes towards the other during communication, as well as addressing. When speakers are in a vertically higher position than the hearers, they tend to be more informal and less polite than the hearers. When they are in a vertically lower position than the hearers, they tend to be more formal and polite. Therefore, the way the textbook dialogues present this dimension as a factor in the choice of address forms is appreciable, given the address literature posits the same findings.

The results in Table 4.10 show that there are 19 instances in which the speakers are vertically higher than the hearers ($S > H$), 75 instances in which the speakers are vertically equal to the hearers ($S = H$), and 54 instances in which the speakers are vertically lower than the hearers ($S < H$).

In cases where speakers are vertically higher than the speakers ($S > H$), 73.7% of the speakers use FN address, followed by the use of endearments at 15.8%, family

terms and others, both at 5.3%. There are not any instances of familiarized FNs, title and surname, or honorific terms that speakers use when they are vertically higher than the hearers. In line with what address literature suggests, from the earliest modern studies (viz. Brown & Gilman, 1960), vertically higher people do not typically use formal forms of address to people who are in a vertically lower position. For instance, Formentelli (2009) and Formentelli (2018) find that teaching staff members call students by their FNs, while students address them as their titles or other formal address terms like honorifics. Similarly, Burt (2015) reveals that teaching staff members address the students as their FNs, while they promote them to address them by formal forms of address, such as their titles, to maintain a power and social distance between the undergraduate students. Dickey (1997), on a similar basis, finds out that students are generally addressed by their FNs, while they think addressing the lecturers by their titles is more appropriate. However, some students report using FN address forms in certain circumstances. This finding is related to the fact that the English address system is becoming more informal with the growing use of FNs in many situations as discussed by Wright (2009) and Murray (2002).

The literature on addressing suggests that FNs of address are very common when the speaker is vertically in a higher position. Titles or honorifics are frequently used when the speaker is vertically lower, however there is a growing tendency to switch from formal forms of address to informal forms in English. Indeed, the findings of the textbook dialogues reveal that FNs (33.3%) and title and surname address forms (29.6%) are the most frequently used address forms in the cases where the speaker is vertically lower than the hearer ($S < H$). These two forms are followed by the use of family terms (16.7%), which are used in family relations. Honorifics are used at 13.0%, while the least frequently used types of address forms are endearments (3.7%) and others (3.7%). Familiarized FNs, on the other hand, are not used at all.

For instance, the example in (49) demonstrates a conversation of asymmetrical vertical relationship, between a job applicant and a manager. In this dialogue (49), it can be observed that the vertically higher interlocutor uses the FN address, while the vertically lower interlocutor uses title plus surname.

- (49) Austin: Good afternoon, *Miss Brooks*. I'm Austin Hensley. I'm here for the position you advertised online.
 Miss Brooks: Nice to meet you, *Austin*. Please, come in and take a seat.
 Austin: Thank you.

Miss Brooks: So, *Austin*, looking at your CV, you are a student at Edinburgh College of Arts, aren't you?¹⁸

A similar asymmetrical case can be further exemplified with the excerpt in (50), where a student and a teacher are conversing. The vertically higher interlocutor, the teacher addresses the student as his FN, while the student uses title plus surname address.

- (50) Mrs. Williams: I'm sure you'll be successful, *David*. Please, let me know if you need any help.
David: Thank you very much, *Mrs. Williams*.
Mrs. Williams: You're welcome, *David*. You should hit the books as soon as possible.
David: Yes, *Mrs. Williams*. I'll study very hard this week. Have a nice day.¹⁹

Further examination of the results in Table 4.10 reveals that FNs (61.3%) and familiarized FNs (30.7%) are the most frequently used types of address forms when the speaker is vertically equal to the hearer (S = H). This is followed by the use of endearments at 6.7% and other types of address forms at 1.3%, which is relatively restricted in use. Furthermore, there are not any instances of family terms, titles and honorifics in equal vertical relations. The cases in which the speaker is vertically equal to the hearer are mostly "friend – friend" acquaintances in the dialogues. Therefore, it is quite expected for friends to use FNs or familiarized FN to address each other, rather than honorifics or titles.

- (51) Vincent: Hi, *Doreen*. There is a new Batman movie on at the cinemas. How about seeing it on Tuesday afternoon?
Doreen: Well, I'd love to, but I can't. I have a photography class.²⁰
- (52) M: *Mel*, I cannot believe your hobby is cooking. You've always been the odd man out. You know, I'm always a reluctant cook. I'd rather eat out than cook at home.
W: I hope you will be able to afford the luxury of eating out every day in the future. I've always cooked all my life. I simply enjoy it. When I was eight, I could cook nearly all sorts of cakes.²¹
- (53) Kate: Would you mind watering my plants while I'm away?
Jennifer: Yeah, that's fine. Sure.
Kate: Ah, *sweetheart*. Thank you so much.²²

¹⁸ Transcribed from Track 5, *Silver Lining 11 Student's Book*.

¹⁹ Transcribed from Audio 1.3, *Ortaöğretim İngilizce 10 Ders Kitabı*.

²⁰ Excerpted from *Teenwise 9 Student's Book* (p. 39).

²¹ Transcribed from Track 14, *Silver Lining 11 Student's Book*.

²² Excerpted from *Count Me In 12 Student's Book* (p. 64).

The examples in (51), (52), and (53) demonstrate the use of FNs, familiarized FNs, and endearments in vertically symmetrical dialogues (S = H). The example in (54), on the other hand, is an example of the use of other types of address form in a vertically equal dyad, between friends.

- (54) Kathy: I know but I don't feel like watching sci-fi.
 Eric: Let's see. What about *Me Before You* then?
 Kathy: Sounds great. I love romance films, you know.
 Eric: *You romantic princess*. Love is in the air again.²³

As the findings reveal, it can be argued that the textbook dialogues present the proper use of address forms according to the vertical relations between the interlocutors. The vertical distance between the interlocutors is reflected in the address forms used in the textbook dialogues.

4.7. Findings of the Horizontal Distance and the Address Forms

The seventh research question aims to find out if the horizontal distance between the interlocutors is reflected in the address forms in the textbook dialogues. According to the analysis in Table 4.11, there is a statistically significant relationship between the use of address forms regarding the horizontal distance between the interlocutors in the textbook dialogues ($p < 0.05$).

Table 4. 11. Crosstabulation of the Horizontal Distance and the Address Forms

Address Forms	Horizontal Distance			
	S + H		S - H	
	N	%	N	%
Endearments	2	3.5	8	8.8
Family Terms	-	-	10	11.0
Familiarized FNs	-	-	23	25.3
First Names	32	56.1	46	50.5
Title + Surname	16	28.1	-	-
Honorifics	7	12.3	-	-
Others	-	-	4	4.4
Total	57	100	91	100
p < 0.001 ($p < 0.05$)				

Social distance is said to be undoubtedly one of the critical points in language variation. Many researchers put this dimension under the scope, although they use many different words referring to it, such as familiarity, solidarity, intimacy, acquaintance, and so forth. As it is with vertical distance, social distance is another

²³ Transcribed from Track 15, *Teenwise 9 Student's Book*.

concept underlying the early studies on address theory, although it has been referred to as solidarity by Brown and Gilman (1960). The consensus in the related literature is that people use more informal language as the social distance between the interlocutors is reduced, while the opposite is true when the social distance is greater between them (see Brown & Gilman, 1960; Brown & Levinson, 1987; Thomas, 1995).

According to the findings, in both situations where the distance between the interlocutors is high ($S + H$) and low ($S - H$), the most frequently used address forms are FNs. In high distance cases ($S + H$), FNs are used at 56.1% and in low distance cases ($S - H$) at 50.5%. Besides this common ground in two distinct social states, the use of other types of address forms manifests considerable variation. When the horizontal distance between the interlocutors is high ($S + H$), the most frequently used address forms (besides FNs) are titles and surnames (28.1%), followed by honorifics (12.3%). The least frequently used one is the endearments, at 3.5%.

The example in (55) is from a dialogue between a ticket agent and a customer, where the social distance is high ($S + H$). The address form used is an honorific term.

- (55) Ticket agent: Good morning. Heathrow Airlines. How can I help you?
Customer: Good morning. I'd like to book a flight, please.
Ticket agent: OK, *madam*. What city would you like to fly to?²⁴

On the other hand, when the horizontal distance between the interlocutors is low ($S - H$), the most frequently used address forms (besides FNs) are familiarized FNs (25.3%), followed by family terms (11.0%). It is also noticeable that when the horizontal distance is low, endearment terms of address are used more frequently (8.8%), while some other address forms are not used at all. Indeed, endearment forms of address indicate the maximum closeness and intimacy between the interlocutors (Wood & Kroger, 1991). For instance, there are justifiably not any instances of titles or honorifics used when the horizontal distance between the interlocutors is low. Likewise, family terms and familiarized FNs are not used at all when the horizontal distance is high.

The example in (56) can be considered to observe a dialogue where the interlocutors are in low social distance ($S - H$).

²⁴ Transcribed from Audio 5.4, *Ortaöğretim İngilizce 10 Ders Kitabı*.

- (56) Elsa: *Mom*, I've decided to apply for the talent show, prepared for the sports club in our university. I have to sign up first and then wait for them to call me.
 Mother: Oh, *my sweetheart*, I'm so glad to hear that. As you've been swimming so well since you were four.²⁵

From a general perspective, it can be argued that the presentation of the address forms is adequate, regarding the horizontal distance between the interlocutors. In line with what address literature suggests, more formal forms of address are used when there is high social distance between the interlocutors (S + H), while informal forms of address are more frequently used when the distance is reduced (S – H).

4.8. Findings of the Cost/Benefit and the Address Forms

The eighth research question aims to find out if the cost/benefit relationship between the interlocutors is reflected in the use of address forms. According to the findings in Table 4.12, there is no statistically significant relationship between the use of address forms and the cost/benefit scale between the interlocutors ($p > 0.05$).

Table 4. 12. Crosstabulation of the Cost/Benefit and the Address Forms

Address Forms	Cost/Benefit			
	S > H		S < H	
	N	%	N	%
Endearments	2	4.0	8	8.2
Family Terms	6	12.0	4	4.1
Familiarized FNs	10	20.0	13	13.3
First Names	27	54.0	51	52.0
Title + Surname	3	6.0	13	13.3
Honorifics	1	2.0	6	6.1
Others	1	2.0	3	3.1
Total	50	100	98	100

$p = 0.298$ ($p > 0.05$)

According to Leech (2014), the degree to which people are polite partly depends on the transaction between the interlocutors. That is, the degree of the imposition the speakers rank to the hearers is an important factor in how polite they are, which has been discussed under the R factor in Brown and Levinson (1987). In other words, people do not display the same degree of politeness when they are to borrow something from someone and when they are to offer someone something. The relationship of who gets the cost and who gets the benefit of the transaction should be mentioned while investigating language variation in society, as well as addressing. Gagne (2018) finds

²⁵ Transcribed from Track 10, *Silver Lining 11 Student's Book*.

out that the familiarizer address forms can be used to decrease the degree of imposition when the speaker is ordering something. Therefore, it may be expected to see a difference between the use of address terms regarding the cost/benefit relationship between the interlocutors. However, textbook dialogues are revealed to present no statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$).

According to the findings in Table 4.12, there are 50 instances of address forms in which the speaker gets the benefit and the hearer gets the cost ($S > H$), while 98 instances in which the speaker gets the cost and the hearer gets the benefit ($S < H$). In the former case ($S > H$), the most frequently used address forms are FNs (54.0%), followed by the use of familiarized FNs (20.0%) and family terms (12.0%). The remaining types of address forms are used in a relatively lower ratio, as title and surnames (6.0%), endearments (4.0%), honorifics (2.0%) and others (2.0%). In the latter case ($S < H$), similarly, the most frequently used address forms are FNs (52.0%), familiarized FNs (13.3%) and title and surnames (13.3%). These are followed by the relatively lower use of endearments (8.2%), honorifics (6.1%), family terms (4.1%), and others (3.1%).

The example excerpted in (57) samples a number of exchange structures with different cost/benefit values. For instance, in the first line, the speaker asks a question ($S > H$), in the second line, the interlocutor answers the question ($S < H$), in the fourth line, the speaker explains something to the hearer ($S < H$), and in the seventh line, the speaker asks a question again ($S > H$). Along with these different cost/benefit values, the same address forms are used throughout the dialogue.

- (57) Andy: *Sue*, can I come in?
Sue: Sure, *Andy*. Welcome.
Andy: It says 'don't enter' on the door.
Sue: It's not for you, *Andy*. For my parents. Come in and make yourself a home.
Andy: I have a 'keep out' sign for my little brother. Wow! What a nice room.
Sue: Thanks. This is my favorite place with my blue bed and wardrobe.
Andy: It's really big. What do you have in your wardrobe, *Sue*?²⁶

The same situation can be exemplified with another excerpt from the textbook dialogues. The example lines in (58) are from a magazine interview, which include different cost/benefit values. In the first line, the interviewer asks a question ($S > H$),

²⁶ Transcribed from Track 8, *Teenwise 9 Student's Book*.

then agrees with the interviewee (S < H), then asks a question again (S > H), and finally, thanks the interviewee (S < H), by using the same address form in each one.

- (58) Teen Focus: *Mr. Brown*, first of all, would you please tell us about the social lives of people in the past?

...

Teen Focus: Yes, *Mr. Brown*. Now can you give us some information about the educational lives of people in the past?

...

Teen Focus: So, do you think technology changed the teaching and learning process, *Mr. Brown*?

....

Teen Focus: Thank you very much for your time, *Mr. Brown*.²⁷

From a general perspective, the use of address forms seems to be distributed in a similar ratio in different cost/benefit cases, with the overt use of FNs followed by familiarized FNs in both cases. Eventually, as the results reveal, the cost/benefit relationship between the interlocutors is not reflected in the use of address forms.

4.9. Findings of the Rights/Obligations and the Address Forms

The ninth research question aims to find out if the rights/obligations relationship between the interlocutors is reflected in the address forms in the textbook dialogues. According to the findings in Table 4.13, there is a statistically significant relationship between the address forms used and the rights/obligations scale between the interlocutors ($p < 0.05$).

Table 4. 13. Crosstabulation of the Rights/Obligations and the Address Forms

Address Forms	Rights/Obligations					
	S > H		S < H		S - H	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Endearments	5	9.6	4	5.3	1	4.8
Family Terms	1	1.9	9	12.0	-	-
Familiarized FNs	-	-	20	26.7	3	14.3
First Names	38	73.1	25	33.3	15	71.4
Title + Surname	6	11.5	10	13.3	-	-
Honorifics	1	1.9	6	8.0	-	-
Others	1	1.9	1	1.3	2	9.5
Total	52	100	75	100	21	100

p < 0.001 ($p < 0.05$)

Fraser and Nolen (1981) point out that each interlocutor of a conversation brings about certain rights and obligations which identify the expectancy of the collocutors

²⁷ Excerpted from *Ortaöğretim İngilizce 10 Ders Kitabı* (pp. 56-57).

from each other. People have different roles in society and they are generally aware of these rules when they interact with others, such as a student interacting with a teacher, a patient interacting with a doctor, or a friend interacting with another friend (Spencer-Oatey, 2004). As a result of these defined roles, there exist certain rights and obligations the interlocutors hold towards each other, and these scales lead them to act accordingly. In line with this, people are likely to evaluate the degree of politeness strategies they use towards each other.

The collected data include 52 instances in which the speaker has the right and the hearer has the obligation ($S > H$), 75 instances in which the speaker has the obligation and the hearer has the right ($S < H$), and 21 instances in which there is no rights and obligations relationship between the interlocutors ($S = H$).

In “ $S > H$ ” situations, the most frequently used address forms are FNs (73.1%), followed by titles and surnames (11.5%), endearments (9.6%), family terms (1.9%), honorifics (1.9%), and others (1.9%). In “ $S < H$ ” situations, the most frequently used address forms are FNs (33.3%), followed by familiarized FNs (26.7%), titles and surnames (13.3%), family terms (12.0%), honorifics (8.0%), endearments (5.3%), and others (1.3%).

For instance, the excerpt in (59) involves a certain rights and obligations relationship between a guest and a receptionist. The address forms used by the receptionist indicate the “ $S < H$ ” relationship in terms of the rights and obligations. That is, the receptionist has some obligations and the guest has some rights on the occasion. It is noticeable that the obliged party of the dialogue uses honorific terms, while the other party does not use any address forms at all.

- (59) Guest: Good afternoon.
Receptionist: Good afternoon, *sir*. How can I help you?
Guest: I'd like to book a room, please.
...
Guest: Thank you very much.
Receptionist: You're welcome, *sir*.²⁸

A similar case can be exemplified as in (60). It is a dialogue from an emergency call, where the caller has the rights and the operator has certain obligations. As it is in (59), the obliged interlocutor selects highly formal address forms while addressing the

²⁸ Transcribed from Audio 5.5, *Ortaöğretim İngilizce 10 Ders Kitabı*.

interlocutor with certain rights. Even in such a case of emergency, the operator addresses the caller by an honorific form of address ($S < H$).

- (60) Operator: 911. What is the emergency?
Caller: I'm in the SEF Bank. There's a robbery happening right now.
Operator: What is the address of the bank, *sir*?²⁹

In “S – H” situations, the most frequently used address forms are FNs (71.4%), followed by familiarized FNs (14.3%), others (9.5%), and endearments (4.8%).

Besides the finding that in each case the most frequently used forms of address are FNs, it is noticeable that when there is no rights and obligations relationship, the speakers do not use any formal forms of address, such as titles and honorifics. This may be a sign that the interlocutors in the textbook dialogues are not likely to use polite forms of address when they do not have any rights or obligations towards the other.

Another interesting finding is that, when the speakers have rights over the hearer, they do not try to minimize the social distance between them by using familiarized FNs, as there are not any instances of familiarized FNs in “ $S > H$ ” situations. However, in the opposite situation, interlocutors try to minimize social distance between them when the speaker has obligations and the hearer has rights, as the second most frequently used address forms are familiarized FNs in “ $S < H$ ” situations. For instance, the example in (61) demonstrates a “friend – friend” dialogue in which one of the interlocutors asks for permission to get in the room. It can be said that the speaker has the obligation to ask if he could get in the room in case his friend is not convenient. Thus, the speaker tries to minimize the imposition by using his friend's familiarized FN.

- (61) Andy: *Sue*, can I come in?
Sue: Sure, *Andy*. Welcome.³⁰

From a general perspective, as the statistical results reveal and in light of the sample dialogues, it can be concluded that the rights/obligations relationship between the interlocutors is reflected as a factor in the choice of address forms in the textbook dialogues.

²⁹ Transcribed from Track 52, *Teenwise 9 Student's Book*.

³⁰ Transcribed from Track 8, *Teenwise 9 Student's Book*.

5. CONCLUSION

5.1. Summary of the Study

This study has been conducted with the aim of highlighting the importance of sociopragmatic competence, politeness, and address behaviour in EFL classrooms. It has been realized that the current trends in language education embrace the teaching of pragmatics, thus sociopragmatic competence which involves the appropriate language use in social settings, suffice it to say the teaching of the appropriate address behaviour in the target language should be one of the aims of the EFL contexts. With this aim in mind, the dialogues in EFL textbooks have been of particular interest to be analyzed in terms of the adequacy of the presentation of the address forms with reference to the scales of sociopragmatic politeness. The address forms have been extracted from the dialogues in four high school EFL textbooks approved by MoNE, and they have been coded in the data collection instrument designed by the researchers. Besides the address forms, the coding of the data has included the genders of the interlocutors, the social identities of the interlocutors, the speech situation of the conversation, the speech event and the speech act of the utterance, the vertical distance between the interlocutors, the horizontal distance between the interlocutors, the cost/benefit scale between the interlocutors, and the rights/obligations scale between the interlocutors. These variables have been coded in the data collection instrument with the help of the actual words, certain symbols (<, >, =) and abbreviations (S and H). The collected data have been analyzed quantitatively in the statistical computing software, and the significance of the relationship between the sociopragmatic politeness scales and the address forms has been released. Based on the statistical results, discussions and speculative inferences have been provided.

According to the results, several sociopragmatic factors have been reflected in the use of address forms in the textbook dialogues, while some others have not. The genders of the speakers have been found to be reflected in the address forms that the speakers use. The female speakers have been found to use endearment terms of address, honorifics, and familiarized FNs more frequently than the male speakers do. On the other hand, the male speakers have been revealed to use family terms and title plus surname address more frequently than the female speakers. The gender of the hearers, on the other hand, have been found to be statistically unrelated to the address forms they receive from the interlocutors. Although statistical test results yield no

significant relationship, it has been discussed that certain address forms have been noticed to be used for male speakers more frequently, namely, familiarized FNs. The gender pairs of the dialogues have also been of interest to analyze. According to the test results, the gender pairs of the dialogues have been found to differ from each other in terms of the address forms they involve. In specific, the male-to-male conversations have been found to employ only three types of address forms, which are FNs, familiarized FNs, and family terms, excluding the remaining types of address forms. On the other hand, the female-to-female conversations have been found to exclude the use of honorifics and title plus surname address forms. Finally, the mixed gender dialogues have been found to employ all the types of address forms.

The social identities of the interlocutors have been found to be reflected in the address forms in the textbook dialogues. It has been found that different social identity encounters use different address forms in line with their social roles in the dyad. That is, there have been found differences in the address forms used between a “student-teacher”, “interviewer-interviewee”, or “manager-job applicant” identities. Likewise, the speech situation of the conversation has been found to be reflected in the address forms involved. That is, the address forms that echo in the context of home are not the same as the ones in the context of an office or an airport. On the other hand, the address forms have been found to be statistically independent of the speech event and the speech act of the accompanying utterance. In other words, there has been found no significant differences between the use of address forms and the competitive, convivial, and collaborative speech events. Likewise, it has been found that the address forms used when performing different speech acts, such as thanking, questioning, complaining, asking, and so forth, are not significantly different from one another.

The vertical distance between the interlocutors has been found to be reflected in the address forms used in the textbook dialogues in a statistically significant way. It has been found that the speaker in a vertically lower position uses more formal address forms, such as titles and honorifics. On the other hand, there have been found no instances of formal address forms used by the speaker who is in a vertically higher position. Additionally, when the speaker and the hearer are vertically equal, they never use formal address forms. Familiarized FNs have been found to be used only when the interlocutors are vertically equal.

The horizontal distance between the interlocutors have been found to have statistically significant impacts on the address forms in the textbook dialogues. The formal address forms have been found only in the dialogues in which there is a high social distance between the interlocutors. When the interlocutors are in low social distance, they have been found to use mostly the FNs, familiarized FNs, and family terms. In high social distance cases, family terms and familiarized FNs are not used.

The cost/benefit relationship between the interlocutors have been found statistically insignificant to the address forms used. In that, it has been found that it does not matter which one of the interlocutors gets the cost and which one of them gets the benefit in terms of the address forms they use. Whether the interlocutors perform the acts which benefit to the hearer (e.g., greeting, offering, agreeing) or they perform the acts which cause cost to the hearer (e.g., questioning, asking, requesting), they have been found to use the address forms in a statistically indifferent manner.

The rights/obligations relationships between the interlocutors have been found to bind the address forms they use. When the speaker is obliged and the hearer has the rights, it has been found that the speakers use formal address forms more frequently than in the cases they have the rights. Besides, it has been found that when the speaker is obliged and the hearer has the rights, the speakers use familiarized FNs, while in the reversed case, none of them uses familiarized FNs. Additionally, it has been noticed that when there is no rights/obligations relationship between the interlocutors, they never use formal address forms.

5.2. Concluding Remarks and Suggestions

From a general perspective, it can be argued that the address forms in the textbook dialogues are used partly praiseworthy with reference to the sociopragmatic values. The finding that the address forms are affected by the variables of the genders, speech situations, social identities, vertical distance, horizontal distance, and rights/obligations is in line with what the address literature suggests. Thus, it can be argued that the reflection of these sociopragmatic scales in the language variation in terms of the address forms is felicitous. However, it would be more beneficial for the EFL learners if the variables of the speech events, the speech acts, and the cost/benefit scales were also reflected in the use of address forms, since the related literature suggests that these variables may be the grounds of language variation in society.

One critical point to be mentioned is that there have been found no instances of familiarizer address forms in the analyzed textbook dialogues. Familiarizers are among the most frequently used address forms in daily conversations. Therefore, it can be said that the absence of the familiarizers in the textbooks dialogues is a deficiency and it should be criticized on the grounds that the EFL learners are not presented with at least several instances of them.

Another point that should be underlined about the textbook dialogues is that a number of the dialogues are missing the necessary information about the context of the conversations. As mentioned before, the corpus taken from the dialogues has been decreased because of the uncertainty of the speech situations and the genders of the speakers in several dialogues. It can be argued that the conversations should be presented in a way that signals the interlocutors and the speech situations clearly.

The current study has been concerned with the use of the address forms in the textbook dialogues in relation to the sociopragmatic scales. Therefore, the dialogues which do not involve any address forms have not been a part of the data analyzed. However, while extracting the address forms, it was noticeable that many dialogues have been constructed without using any address forms, which results in an unnatural conversation. One would agree that address forms are frequently used, especially at the beginning of the conversations. Therefore, the writers of the textbooks should pay more attention to the use of address forms while constructing the textbook dialogues.

Regarding these results and suggestions holistically, there can be enhancements in the development of EFL materials and the functionality of the language education in terms of teaching the sociopragmatic politeness of addressing. Last but not least, foreign language education departments should train pre-service foreign language teachers to raise their awareness of pragmatic competence in order to prepare them to use sociopragmatic politeness of address forms not only in classrooms but also in society.

REFERENCES

- Acton, E. K. (2011). On Gender Differences in the Distribution of um and uh. *University of Pennsylvania Working Papers in Linguistics*, 17(2), 1-9.
- Ahmadian, M. J. (2020). Explicit and implicit instruction of refusal strategies: Does working memory capacity play a role? *Language Teaching Research*, 24(2), 163–188. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168818783215>
- Akdağ, E., Baydar Ertopçu, F., Uyanık Bektaş, K., Umur Özadalı, S., & Kaya, T. (2019). *Silver Lining 11 Student's Book*. Ankara: MEB.
- Aksoyalp, Y., & Toprak, T. E. (2015). Incorporating Pragmatics in English Language Teaching: To What Extent Do EFL Course Books Address Speech Acts? *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and Literature*, 4(2), 125-133.
- Alabdali, T. (2020). The Effect of Entitlement on the Calculation of the Rank of Imposition in University Students' Requests to their Instructors. In *Proceedings of the 18th International RAIS Conference on Social Sciences and Humanities* (pp. 15-22). Scientia Moralitas Research Institute.
- Al-Khadmi, A. Q. H., Mirza, M. B., & Al-Eryani, A. A. (2021). Pragmatic Competence of the Yemeni EFL Learners. *European Journal of Literature, Language and Linguistic Studies*, 5(3), 1-12.
- Al-Qudah, M. (2017). The Jordanian terms of address: A socio-pragmatic study. *SHS Web of Conferences*, 37, 01080. doi:10.1051/shsconf/20173701080
- Antonova, Y. S., & Travina, I. I. (2014). Study of Addressing (Vocative) as Linguistic Pragmatic Category (in the Context of Secondary School). *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 154, 374-380.
- Augoustinos, M., Walker, I., & Donaghue, N. (2014). *Social cognition: an integrated introduction*. London: SAGE.
- Austin, J. L. (1962). *How to do things with words*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Austin, J. L. (1975). *How to Do Things with Words* (2nd ed). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Bababayli, I., & Kızıltan, N. (2020). A comparative sociopragmatic analysis of the dialogues in Turkish and Azerbaijani B1-B2 EFL textbooks. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 16(3), 1500-1522. Doi: 10.17263/jlls.803869
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Hartford, B. S. (1990). Congruence in native and nonnative conversations: Status balance in the academic advising session. *Language Learning*, 40(4), 467-501.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Mahan-Taylor, R. (2003). *Teaching Pragmatics*. Washington DC.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1996). Pragmatics and language teaching: Bringing pragmatics and pedagogy together. In L. Bouton (Ed.), *Pragmatics and language learning* (Vol. 7, pp. 21–39). Urbana-Champaign: University of Illinois, Division of English as an International Language.
- Bax, I. P. (1986). How to assign work in an office. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 10(6), 673–692. doi:10.1016/0378-2166(86)90146-3
- Baxter, L. A. (1984). An Investigation of Compliance-gaining as politeness. *Human Communication Research*, 10(3), 427–456. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2958.1984.tb00026.x

- Bayat, N. (2013). A study on the use of speech acts. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 70, 213-221.
- Bayyurt, Y., & Bayraktaroğlu, A. (2001). The use of pronouns and terms of address in Turkish service encounters. In A. Bayraktaroğlu & M. Sifianou (Eds.), *Linguistic Politeness Across Boundaries: A Case of Greek and Turkish* (pp. 209-240). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Behnam, B., & Niroomand, M. (2011). An Investigation of Iranian EFL Learners' Use of Politeness Strategies and Power Relations in Disagreement across Different Proficiency Levels. *English Language Teaching*, 4(4), 204-220.
- Behravan, A., & Vosoughee, M. (2020). Gendered Language: Men's vs Women's Uses of Address Terms within New Interchange Series. *Journal of English Language Pedagogy and Practice*, 13(26), 182-204. doi: 10.30495/jal.2020.677787
- Bella, S., & Sifianou, M. (2012). Greek student e-mail requests to faculty members. In L. R. d. Zarobe & Y. R. d. Zarobe (Eds.), *Speech acts and politeness across languages and cultures* (Vol. 132, pp. 89-114). Bern: Peter Lang AG, International Academic Publishers.
- Betsch, M., & Berger, T. (2009). Anrede systeme. In S. Kempgen, P. Kosta, T. Berger, & K. Gutschmidt (Eds.), *Die slavischen Sprachen. Ein internationales Handbuch zu ihrer Struktur, ihrer Geschichte und ihrer Erforschung. Band 1* (pp. 1019–1028). Berlin, New York.
- Bou-Franch, P., & Garcés-Conejos, P. (2003). Teaching linguistic politeness: A methodological proposal. *IRAL - International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 41(1), 1–22. doi:10.1515/iral.2003.001
- Braun, F. (1988). *Terms of Address*. Berlin, Boston: De Gruyter Mouton.
- Bresin, A. (2021). *Address Variation in Sociocultural Context: Region, power and distance in Italian service encounters*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1989). *Discourse Analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Brown, H. D. (1994). *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. New York: Pearson.
- Brown, P., & Fraser, C. (1979). Speech as a marker of situation. In H. Giles and K. Scherer (Eds.), *Social Markers in Speech* (pp. 33-62). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Brown, P., & Levinson, S. C. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Brown, R., & Gilman, A. (1960). The Pronouns of Power and Solidarity. In T. A. Sebeok (Ed.), *Style in Language* (pp. 253-276). Cambridge MA: MIT Press.
- Brown, R. (1965). *Social Psychology*. London: Collier-Macmillan.
- Brown, R., & Ford, M. (1961). Address in American English. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 62(2), 375–385. doi:10.1037/h0042862
- Bulut, E., Baydar Ertopçu, F., Umur Özadağ, S., & Şentürk, S. (2019). *Teenwise 9 Student's Book*. Ankara: MEB.
- Burke, P. J. (2003). Relationships among multiple identities. In P. J. Burke, T. J. Owens, R. T. Serpe, & P. A. Thoits (Eds.), *Advances in identity theory and research* (p. 195–

- 214). Kluwer Academic/Plenum Publishers. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4419-9188-1_14
- Burt, S. M. (2015). 'There's not a lot of negotiation'. Address terms in an academic department. In M. Terkourafi (Ed.), *Interdisciplinary perspectives on im/politeness* (pp. 71-90). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Byon, A. S. (2004). Sociopragmatic analysis of Korean requests: pedagogical settings. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 36(9), 1673-1704.
- Caliendo, G., & Magliacane, A. (2019). Sociopragmatic competence and second language acquisition. In G. Caliendo, R. Janssen, S. Slembrouck, and P. Van Avermaet (Eds.), *Urban Multilingualism in Europe: Bridging the Gap between Language Policies and Language Practices* (pp. 167-190). Berlin, Boston: De Gruyter Mouton.
- Campbell, R., & Wales, R. (1970). The study of language acquisition. In J. Lyons (Ed.), *New Horizons in Linguistics* (pp. 242-260). Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1(1), 1-48.
- Canale, M. (1983). From Communicative Competence to Communicative Language Pedagogy. In J. C. Richards & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and Communication* (pp. 2-27). New York: Routledge.
- Cansler, D. C., & Stiles, W. B. (1981). Relative status and interpersonal presumptuousness. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 17(5), 459-471. doi:10.1016/0022-1031(81)90034-2
- Çapar, M. (2014). How do Turkish EFL learners say 'no'? *International Journal of Language Academy*, 2(3), 262-282.
- Celce-Murcia, M. (2007). Rethinking the role of communicative competence in language teaching. In E. Alcón Soler and M.P. Safont Jordà (Eds.), *Intercultural Language Use and Language Learning* (pp. 41-57). Dordrecht: Springer.
- Celce-Murcia, M., Dörnyei, Z., & Thurrell, S. (1995). A pedagogical framework for communicative competence: A Pedagogically motivated model with content specifications. *Issues in Applied Linguistics* 6(2), 5-35.
- Cenoz, J. (2007). The Acquisition of Pragmatic Competence and Multilingualism in Foreign Language Contexts. In E. A. Soler and M. P. S. Jorda (Eds.), *Intercultural Language Use and Language Learning* (pp. 123-140). Netherlands: Springer.
- Chaika, E. (1982). *Language, the social mirror*. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House Publishers.
- Chen, Y. (2010). Cultural Differences in Chinese and American Address Forms. *Asian Culture and History*, 2(2), 82-85.
- Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chong-yuan, Z. (2021). Explicit Speech Act Instruction for Developing EFL Students' Pragmatic Competence. *International Journal of English Language Teaching*, 9(4), 26-35.
- Chunling, G. (2015). Comparison Between Chinese Address Terms and English Address Terms. *Higher Education of Social Science*, 9(4), 1-4. 10.3968/7667
- Chunrong, L. (2015). Aspects of Address Forms in Chinese and English: A Comparative Study. *Cross-Cultural Communication*, 11(7), 79-86. DOI: 10.3968/7255

- Çimen, F., Taşkıran Tiğın, B., Çokçalışkan, A., Özyıldırım, N., & Özdemir, M. (2019). *Count Me In 12 Student's Book*. Ankara: MEB.
- Clyne, M., Norrby, C., & Warren, J. (2009). *Language and Human Relations: Styles of Address in Contemporary Language*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Cody, M., & McLaughlin, M. L. (1980). Perceptions of compliance-gaining situations: A dimensional analysis. *Communication Monographs*, 47, 132-148.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education*. New York: Routledge.
- Crystal, D. (2019). *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Çubukçu, F., & Atay, S. (2017). Yabancı Dil Olarak Türkçe ve İngilizce Ders Kitaplarının Edimsel Yeti Gelişimi Açısından Karşılaştırılması / A Comparison of Turkish and English Textbooks as a Foreign Language in Terms of Pragmatic Competence Development. *Gaziantep Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 1(1), 8-20.
- Culpeper, J. (2021). Sociopragmatics: Roots and Definition. In M. Haugh, D. Kádár, & M. Terkourafi (Eds.), *The Cambridge Handbook of Sociopragmatics* (Cambridge Handbooks in Language and Linguistics, pp. 15-29). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. doi:10.1017/9781108954105.003
- Deaux, K. (1993). Reconstructing Social Identity. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 19(1), 4-12. doi:10.1177/0146167293191001
- Delahaie, J. (2015). Sociopragmatic Competence in FFL Language Teaching: towards a Principled Approach to Teaching Discourse Markers in FFL. In K. Beeching and H. Woodfield (Eds.), *Researching Sociopragmatic Variability* (pp. 253-275). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Delen, B., & Tavil, Z. M. (2010). Evaluation of four coursebooks in terms of three speech acts: Requests, refusals and complaints. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 9, 692-697.
- Dickey, E. (1997). Forms of address and terms of reference. *Journal of Linguistics* 33(2), 255-274.
- Dunkling, L. (1990). *A Dictionary of Epithets and Terms of Address*. New York: Routledge.
- Economidou-Kogetsidis, M. (2008). Internal and external mitigation in interlanguage request production: The case of Greek learners of English. *Journal of Politeness Research*, 4, 111-38.
- Economidou-Kogetsidis, M. (2011). "Please answer me as soon as possible": pragmatic failure in non-native speakers' e-mail requests to faculty. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43(13), 3193-3215. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2011.06.006>.
- Economidou-Kogetsidis, M. (2015). Teaching email politeness in the EFL/ESL classroom. *ELT Journal*, 69(4), 415-424. doi:10.1093/elt/ccv031
- Eelen, G. (2001). *A critique of politeness theories*. Manchester, UK: St. Jerome Pub.
- El-Dakhs, D. A. S., & Amroun, F. P. (2021). The Relative Contributions of Explicit and Implicit Instruction in the Learning of EFL Apologies. *Humanities and Social Sciences Letters*, 9(2), 122-151.

- Ervin-Tripp, S. (1972). Sociolinguistic Rules: Alteration and Co-Occurrence. In J. Gumperz and D. Hymes (Eds.), *Directions in Sociolinguistics* (pp. 213-250). Cambridge: Basil Blackwell.
- Fearon, J. D. (1999). What is identity (as we now use the word) [Unpublished manuscript]. Stanford: Stanford University.
- Félix-Brasdefer, J. C., & DiBartolomeo, M. (2021). Developing advanced pragmatic competence in Spanish. In M. R. Menke and P. A. Malovrh (Eds.), *Advancedness in Second Language Spanish: Definitions, challenges, and possibilities* (pp. 324–348). John Benjamins.
- Félix-Brasdefer, J. C., & Mugford, G. (2017). (Im)politeness: Learning and Teaching. In J. Culpeper, M. Haugh, and D. Z. Kádár (Eds.), *The Palgrave Handbook of (Im)politeness* (pp. 489-516). London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Files, J. A., Mayer, A. P., Ko, M. G., Friedrich, P., Jenkins, M., Bryan, M. J., Vegunta, S., Wittich, C. M., Lyle, M. A., Melikian, R., Duston, T., Chang, Y. H., & Hayes, S. N. (2017). Speaker Introductions at Internal Medicine Grand Rounds: Forms of Address Reveal Gender Bias. *Journal of women's health* (2002), 26(5), 413–419. <https://doi.org/10.1089/jwh.2016.6044>
- Fitch, K.L. (1998). *Speaking relationally: Culture, communication, and interpersonal connection*. New York: Guilford.
- Formentelli, M., & Hajek, J. (2015). Address in Italian academic interactions: The power of distance and (non)-reciprocity. In C. Norrby & C. Wide (Eds.), *Address practice as social action: European perspectives* (pp.119–140). Basingstoke/London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Formentelli, M., & Hajek, J. (2016). Address Practices in Academic Interactions in a Pluricentric Language: Australian English, American English, and British English. *Pragmatics*, 26(4), 631-652.
- Formentelli, M. (2009). Address Strategies in a British Academic Setting. *Pragmatics*, 19(2), 179-196.
- Formentelli, M. (2018). Strategies of Address in English Lingua Franca (ELF) Academic Interactions. *Linguistics and Literature Studies* 6(6), 298-306.
- Fraser, B. (1990). Perspectives on politeness. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 14(2), 219-236.
- Fraser, C., & Roberts, N. (1975). Mothers' speech to children to four different ages. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research*, 4, 9-16.
- Gagne, C. (2018). Indirectness and entitlement in product requests in British service encounters. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 133, 1–14. doi:10.1016/j.pragma.2018.05.015
- Gee, J. (2000). Identity as an Analytic Lens for Research in Education. *Review of Research in Education*, 25, 99-125.
- Genç Karataş, Ç. (2018). *Ortaöğretim İngilizce 10 Ders Kitabı*. Ankara: Gizem Yayıncılık.
- Goffman, E. (1967). *Interaction ritual: Essays on face-to-face behavior*. New York: Doubleday.
- Göy, E., Zeyrek D., & Otcu, B. (2012). Developmental patterns in internal modification of requests. In M. Economidou-Kogetisidis and H. Woodfield (Eds.), *Interlanguage Request Modification*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Grant, N. (1987). *Making the Most of Your Textbook*. London: Longman.

- Grice, H. P. (1975). Logic and Conversation. In P. Cole, and J. L. Morgan (Eds.), *Syntax and Semantics, Vol. 3, Speech Acts* (pp. 41-58). New York: Academic Press.
- Gündüz, N. (2016). Sociopragmatic Elements and Possible Failure in EFL Teaching. *Dil Dergisi*, 167(1), 49-65.
- Hamiloğlu, K., & Emirmustafaoğlu, K. (2017). A sociolinguistic investigation on (im) polite email requests of Turkish EFL students. *The Journal of International Lingual, Social and Educational Sciences*, 3(2), 191-207.
- Han, T., & Burgucu-Tazegül, A. (2016). Realization of Speech Acts of Refusals and Pragmatic Competence by Turkish EFL Learners. *The Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal*, 16(1), 161-178.
- Harlow, L. L. (1990). Do they mean what they say? Sociopragmatic competence and second language learners. *The Modern Language Journal*, 74(3), 328–50.
- Haugh, M., & Chang, W. L. M. (2015). Understanding im/politeness across cultures: an interactional approach to raising sociopragmatic awareness. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 53(4), 389-414.
- Haugh, M., Kádár, D., & Terkourafi, M. (2021). Introduction: Directions in Sociopragmatics. In M. Haugh, D. Kádár, & M. Terkourafi (Eds.), *The Cambridge Handbook of Sociopragmatics* (Cambridge Handbooks in Language and Linguistics, pp. 1-12). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hedge, T. (1985). *Using Readers in Language Teaching*. London: Macmillan.
- Helmbrecht, J. (2003). Politeness distinctions in second person pronouns. In F. Lenz (ed.), *Deictic conceptualisation of space, time and person* (pp. 185-202). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Hendriks, B. (2008). Dutch English requests: A study of request performance by Dutch learners of English. In M. Pütz and J. Neff-van Aertselaer (Eds.), *Developing Contrastive Pragmatics: Intercultural and Cross-Cultural Perspectives* (pp. 335-354). Berlin/New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Hmouri, Z. (2021). A Study of Moroccan University EFL Learners' Pragmatic Failure: The Case of Using Expressive Speech Acts. *Studies in Pragmatics and Discourse Analysis*, 2(1), 1-10.
- Holmes, J. (1990). Apologies in New Zealand English. *Language in Society*, 19(02), 155-199. doi:10.1017/s0047404500014366
- Holmes, J. (2018). Sociolinguistics vs. pragmatics. In C. Ilie and N. R. Norrick (Eds.), *Pragmatics and Its Interfaces* (pp. 11-32). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Holtgraves, T., & Yang, J. (1990). Politeness as universal: cross-cultural perceptions of request strategies and inferences based on their use. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 59(4), 719-729.
- Honglin, L. (2007). A Comparative Study of Refusal Speech Acts in Chinese and American English. *Canadian Social Science*, 3(4), 64-67.
- Hook, D. D. (1984). First names and titles as solidarity and power semantics in English. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 22, 183–189.
- Huang, Y. (2015). *Pragmatics (Oxford Textbooks in Linguistics)*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Hymes, D. (1967). Models of the interaction of language and social setting. *Journal of Social Issues*, 23(2), 8–38.
- Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. Pride and J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* (pp. 269–93). Harmondsworth, England: Penguin Books.
- Hymes, D. (2005). Models of the Interaction of Language and Social Life: Toward a Descriptive Theory. In S. F. Kiesling and C. B. Paulston (Eds.), *Intercultural Discourse and Communication: The Essential Readings* (pp. 4-16). UK: Blackwell.
- Ide, S. (1989). Formal forms and discernment: Two neglected aspects of universals of linguistic politeness. *Multilingua*, 8(2–3), 223–248.
- Ishihara, N., & Cohen, A. (2010). Learners' pragmatics: potential causes of divergence. In N. Ishihara and A. Cohen (Eds.), *Teaching and Learning Pragmatics: Where Language and Culture Meet* (pp. 75-96). Harlow, UK: Pearson.
- Ishikawa, A., Nagata, T., Miyai, M., Nagao, A., & Iizuka, H. (1981). Address Terms in Modern Japanese: A Sociolinguistic Analysis. *Sophia Linguistica. Working Papers in Linguistics Tokyo*, (8), 129-141.
- Jakupčević, E., & Čavar Portolan, M. (2021). An analysis of pragmatic content in EFL textbooks for young learners in Croatia. *Language Teaching Research*, 00(0), 1-24.
- Jones, M. A., Kitetu, C., & Sunderland, J. (1997). Discourse Roles, Gender and Language Textbook Dialogues: Who learns what from John and Sally? *Gender and Education*, 9(4), 469–490. doi:10.1080/09540259721204
- Jucker, A. H., & Taavitsainen, I. (2003). Diachronic perspectives on address term systems: Introduction. In I. Taavitsainen and A. H. Jucker (Eds.), *Diachronic perspectives on address term systems* (pp. 1-26). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Karifianto, D. (2021). Address terms used by Australians: A case study of Melbourne. *SALEE. Study of Applied Linguistics and English Education*, 2(01). DOI: 10.35961/salee.v2i01.97
- Kasher, A. (1986). Politeness and rationality. In J. D. Johansen and H. Sonne (Eds.), *Pragmatics and linguistics: Festschrift for Jacob Mey*. Odense (pp. 103-114). Odense University Press.
- Kasper, G. (1992). Pragmatic transfer. *Second Language Research* 8(3), 203–231.
- Kasper, G. (2001). Four perspectives on L2 pragmatic development. *Applied Linguistics*, 22(4), 502–530. doi:10.1093/applin/22.4.502
- Keshavarz, M. (2001). The role of social context, intimacy, and distance in the choice of forms of address. *International Journal of The Sociology of Language*, 148, 5-18. 10.1515/ijsl.2001.015.
- Kiesling, S. F. (2004). “Dude.” *American Speech*, 79(3), 281-305.
- Kramer, C. (1975). Sex-Related Differences in Address Systems. *Anthropological Linguistics*, 17(5), 198–210.
- Kramsch, C. (2006). From Communicative Competence to Symbolic Competence. *The Modern Language Journal*, 90(2), 249-252.
- Kreishan, L. (2018). Politeness and speech acts of refusal and complaint among Jordanian undergraduate students. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 7(4), 68-76.

- Kurdghelashvili, T. (2015). Speech acts and politeness strategies in an EFL classroom in Georgia. *International Journal of Cognitive and Language Sciences*, 9(1), 306-309.
- Laabidi, A., & Bousfiha, A. (2020). Speech Act of Complaining: Socio-Pragmatic study of Complaint by Moroccan EFL Learners. *International Journal of Language and Literary Studies*, 2(2), 148–155. <https://doi.org/10.36892/ijlls.v2i2.294>
- Lakoff, R. (1973). The logic of politeness: Or, minding your p's and q's. In *Proceedings from the Annual Meeting of the Chicago Linguistic Society* (Vol. 9, No. 1, pp. 292-305). Chicago Linguistic Society.
- Lakoff, R. (1974). What you can do with words: Politeness, pragmatics and performatives. In C. J. Fillmore, G. Lakoff, & R. Lakoff (Eds.), *Berkeley studies of syntax and semantics* (Vol. 1, pp. 1-55). Berkeley: Institute of Human Learning, University of California.
- Lantz-Andersson, A. (2018). Language play in a second language: Social media as contexts for emerging sociopragmatic competence. *Education and Information Technologies*, 23(2), 705-724.
- Leech, G. (1983). *Principles of Pragmatics*. New York: Longman.
- Leech, G. (1999). The Distribution and Function of Vocatives in American and British English Conversation. In H. Hasselgard and S. Oksefjell (Eds.), *Out of Corpora: Studies in Honour of Stig Johansson* (pp. 107-120). Amsterdam: Rodopi.
- Leech, G. (2005). Politeness: is there an East-West divide in politeness? *Journal of Foreign Languages*, 160(6), 1–30.
- Leech, G. (2014). *The Pragmatics of Politeness*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Leichty, G., & Applegate, J. L. (1991). Social-cognitive and situational influences on the use of face-saving persuasive strategies. *Human Communication Research*, 17(3), 451-484.
- Levinson, S. (2008). *Pragmatics* (Cambridge Textbooks in Linguistics, 19th edition). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Limberg, H. (2015). Teaching how to apologize: EFL textbooks and pragmatic input. *Language Teaching Research*, 20(6), 700–718. doi:10.1177/1362168815590695
- Limberg, H. (2016). Teaching how to apologize: EFL textbooks and pragmatic input. *Language Teaching Research*, 20(6), 700-718. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168815590695>
- Lin, C.-Y. (2010). ‘... that’s actually sort of you know trying to get consultants in ...’: Functions and multifunctionality of modifiers in academic lectures. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 42(5), 1173–1183. doi:10.1016/j.pragma.2009.10.001
- Lin, C.-Y. (2020). Pragmatic force modifiers in English-medium master’s thesis defenses in Taiwan universities. *English for Specific Purposes*, 58, 30–42. doi:10.1016/j.esp.2019.12.004
- Lundell, F. F., & Erman, B. (2012). High level requests: A study of long residency L2 users of English and French and native speakers. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 44, 756–75.
- Mac Kim, S., Wan, S., & Paris, C. (2016). Detecting social roles in twitter. In L. Ku, J. Hsu, and C. Li (Eds.), *Proceedings of The Fourth International Workshop on Natural Language Processing for Social Media* (pp. 34-40). Austin, TX: Association for Computational Linguistics.

- Magliacane, A., & Howard, M. (2019). The role of learner status in the acquisition of pragmatic markers during study abroad: The use of 'like' in L2 English. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 146, 72-86.
- Marmaridou, S. (2011). Pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. In W. Bublitz and N. R. Norrick (Eds.), *Foundations of Pragmatics* (pp. 77-106). Berlin: Walter De Gruyter.
- Martiny, T. (1996). Forms of address in French and Dutch: a sociopragmatic approach. *Language Sciences*, 18(3-4), 765-775. doi:10.1016/s0388-0001(96)00046-0
- Meier, A. J. (1997). Teaching the universals of politeness. *ELT Journal*, 51(1), 21-28. doi:10.1093/elt/51.1.21
- Meiristiani, N. (2011). Understanding tenor in spoken texts in year XII English textbook to improve the appropriacy of the texts. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1(1), 41-57.
- Mendes de Oliveira, M. (2017). Sociopragmatic failure revisited: the case of intercultural communication between Brazilians and Americans. *RBLA, Belo Horizonte*, 17(2), 307-334.
- Mey, J. L. (1998). Pragmatics. In J. L. Mey (Ed.), *Concise Encyclopedia of Pragmatics* (pp. 716-737). Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- Mey, J. L. (2010). Societal Pragmatics. In L. Cummings (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Pragmatics* (pp. 444-446). London: Routledge.
- Montgomery, M. (1986). *An introduction to language and society*. London: Routledge.
- Murray, T. E. (2002). A New Look at Address in American English: The Rules Have Changed. *Names*, 50(1), 43-61. doi:10.1179/nam.2002.50.1.43
- Nalendra, A. R. A., Wulandari, A., Khoirunnada, M., Susanti, I. D., & Putra, O. P. (2018). An Analysis of Addressing Term in Used in the Love Rosie Movie. *Progressive*, 8(2), 9-16.
- Nguyen, T. T. M., Pham, T. H., & Pham, M. T. (2012). The relative effects of explicit and implicit form-focused instruction on the development of L2 pragmatic competence. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 44(4), 416-434. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2012.01.003>.
- Norrby, C., Wide, C., Lindström, J., & Nilsson, J. (2015). Interpersonal relationships in medical consultations. Comparing Sweden Swedish and Finland Swedish address practices. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 84, 121-138. doi:10.1016/j.pragma.2015.05.006
- Norton, B. (1997). Language, Identity, and the Ownership of English. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31(3), 409-429. doi:10.2307/3587831
- Nu, T., Anh, T., & Murray, J. (2020). Pragmatic Content in EFL Textbooks: An Investigation into Vietnamese National Teaching Materials. *TESL-EJ*, 24(3), n3.
- Nurmi, A., & Pahta, P. (2010). Preacher, scholar, brother, friend: Social roles and code-switching in the writings of Thomas Twining. In P. Pahta, M. Nevala, A. Nurmi, and M. Palander-Collin (Eds.), *Social Roles and Practices in Late Modern English* (pp. 135-162). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Ogiermann, E. J. (2015). Object requests: rights and obligations surrounding object possession and object transfer. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 82, 1-4.

- Okamura, A. (2005). What Do You Call Your Colleagues? Address-Forms in Cross-Cultural Communication. In A. Trosborg and P. E. Flyvholm (eds.), *Business Discourse: Texts and Contexts* (pp. 161-184). Bern: Peter Lang.
- Okamura, A. (2009). Do English speakers address their Japanese colleagues by their first name, while talking in English in Japan? *Multilingua*, 28, 355-377.
- Olshtain, E. (1989). Apologies across languages. In S. Blum-Kulka, J. House, and G. Kasper (eds.), *Cross-cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies* (pp. 155-173). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Özcan, F. H. (2016). Choice of address terms in conversational setting. *International Journal of Human Sciences*, 13(1), 982- 1002. doi:10.14687/ijhs.v13i1.3489
- Parkinson, J. (2020). On the use of the address terms guys and mate in an educational context. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 161, 81–94. doi:10.1016/j.pragma.2020.03.003
- Paulston, C. (1974). Linguistic and Communicative Competence. *TESOL Quarterly*, 8(4), 347-362. doi:10.2307/3585467
- Peneva, D. (2012). Speech Situation, Speech Event and Speech Act in The Domain of Apology Speech Act Pragmatics. *Studies in Linguistics, Culture, and FLT*, 1, 24-35.
- Petraki, E. (2020). Teaching compliments and compliment responses: An evaluation of Indonesian English Language Teaching (ELT) textbooks. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly*, 51.
- Pham, T. M. T., & Yeh, A. (2020). Politeness of Vietnamese Students in Writing Request Email in English: a Course-based and Socio-pragmatic Study. *International Journal of Language and Literary Studies*, 2(2), 109–128. <https://doi.org/10.36892/ijlls.v2i2.202>
- Qin, X. (2008). Choices in Terms of Address: A Sociolinguistic Study of Chinese and American English Practices. In M. K.M. Chan and H. Kang (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 20th North American Conference on Chinese Linguistics (NACCL-20)* (pp. 409-421). Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University.
- Rahayuningsih, D., Saleh, M., & Fitriati, S. W. (2020). The realization of politeness strategies in EFL teacher-students classroom interaction. *English Education Journal*, 10(1), 85-93.
- Ren, W., & Han, Z. (2016). The representation of pragmatic knowledge in recent ELT textbooks. *ELT Journal*, 70(4), 424-434.
- Rendle-Short, J. (2007). “Catherine, you’re wasting your time”: Address terms within the Australian political interview. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 39(9), 1503–1525. doi:10.1016/j.pragma.2007.02.006
- Richards, J. C. (2006). *Communicative Language Teaching Today*. New York, USA: Cambridge University Press.
- Rickheit, G., Strohner, H., & Vorweg, C. (2008). The concept of communicative competence. In G. Rickheit and H. Strohner (Eds.), *Handbook of Communication Competence* (pp. 15-62). Berlin, New York: De Gruyter Mouton.
- Roever, C. (2009). Teaching and Testing Pragmatics. In M. H. Long and C. J. Doughty (Eds.), *The Handbook of Language Teaching* (pp. 560-577). Oxford: Blackwell.
- Roever, C. (2015). Researching pragmatics. In B. Paltridge and A. Phakiti (Eds.), *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics: A Practical Resource*, (pp. 387-420). London: Bloomsbury.

- Rubin, R. (1981). Ideal traits and terms of address for male and female college professors. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 41, 966–974.
- Saleem, T., Anjum, U., & Tahir, S. (2021). The Sociopragmatic and Pragmalinguistic Strategies in L2 Pragmatic Competence: A Case of Pakistani ESL Learners. *Journal of Intercultural Communication Research*, 50(2), 185–206. doi:10.1080/17475759.2021.1877176
- Salmani Nodoushan, M. A. (2014). Speech acts or language micro- and macro-games? *International Journal of Language Studies*, 8(4), 1-28.
- Savignon, S. J. (2013). Communicative language teaching. In M. Byram and A. Hu (Eds.), *Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching and Learning* (pp. 134-140). London: Routledge.
- Schepers, B. M. (2014). Teaching Pragmatics:(im) politeness in an EFL classroom. *BELT-Brazilian English Language Teaching Journal*, 5(1), 22-29.
- Scollon, R., & Scollon, S. W. (1995). *Intercultural Communication: A Discourse Approach*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Searle, J. R. (1976). A Classification of Illocutionary Acts. *Language in Society*, 5(1), 1–23.
- Shormani, M. C., & Qarabesh, M. A. (2018). Vocatives: correlating the syntax and discourse at the interface. *Cogent Arts & Humanities*, 5(1), 1-37. doi:10.1080/23311983.2018.1469388-
- Slobin, D. I., Miller, S. H., & Porter, L. W. (1968). Forms of address and social relations in a business organization. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 8, 289–293.
- Snow, C. E., & Ferguson, C. A. (1977). *Talking to Children: language input and acquisition*. Cambridge.
- Soler, E. A. (2005). Does instruction work for learning pragmatics in the EFL context? *System*, 33(3), 417-435. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2005.06.005>.
- Sonnenhauser, B., & Hanna, P.N. A. (2013). Introduction: Vocative! In B. Sonnenhauser & P. N. A. Hanna (Eds.), *Vocative! Addressing between System and Performance* (pp. 1-24). Germany: De Gruyter Mouton.
- Spencer-Oatey, H. (1996). Reconsidering power and distance. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 26(1), 1-24. doi:10.1016/0378-2166(95)00047-x
- Spencer-Oatey, H. (2004). Rapport Management: A Framework for Analysis. In H. Spencer-Oatey (ed.), *Culturally Speaking: Managing Rapport Through Talk Across Cultures* (pp. 11-46). London: Continuum.
- Tagliamonte, S. A. (2006). *Analysing Sociolinguistic Variation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Takiff, H. A., Sanchez, D. T., & Stewart, T. L. (2001). What's in a name? The status implications of students' terms of address for male and female professors. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 25, 134-144.
- Tanaka, N. (1991). An investigation of apology: Japanese in comparison with Australian. *Meikai Journal*, 4, 35–53.
- Tannen, D. (1990). *You just don't understand: Women and men in conversation*. New York: William Morrow.

- Terzi, C. (2014). *An Analysis of the Pragmatic Competence of Pre-Service English Language Teachers: Appropriateness of Forms of Address* [Unpublished Master's Thesis]. Turkey: Middle East Technical University.
- Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-Cultural Pragmatic Failure. *Applied Linguistics*, 4(2), 91–112. doi:10.1093/applin/4.2.91
- Thomas, J. (1995). *Meaning in Interaction: An Introduction to Pragmatics*. New York: Routledge.
- Tottie, G. (2011). Uh and Um as sociolinguistic markers in British English. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 16, 173–197.
- Trosborg, A. (1994). *Interlanguage Pragmatics. Requests, Complaints and Apologies*. Berlin, New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Trubnikova, V. (2021). From saying it right to doing it right: a model of pragmatic competence development. *7th International Conference on Higher Education Advances (HEAd'21)*, 359- 365.
- Ubanako, V. N. (2021). Address Forms Among Anglophone Students and Lecturers in The University of Yaoundé 1: A Socio-Pragmatic Approach. In E. L. Veyu and S. A. Mforteh (Eds.), *Globalisation and Transitional Ideologies: Moving the Margins through Language and Literature* (pp. 328-344). Dallas, Texas: Ken Scholars.
- Ulum, Ö. G. (2015). Pragmatic Elements in EFL Course Books. *Western Anatolia Journal of Educational Science, INOVED Special Issue*, 93-106.
- Van Compernelle, R. A. (2014). *Sociocultural theory and L2 instructional pragmatics*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Vanderveken, D. (2001). Illocutionary Logic and Discourse Typology. *Revue Internationale de Philosophie*, 55(216 (2)), 243–255.
- Verschueren, J. (1999). *Understanding Pragmatics*. London: Hodder Arnold.
- Vine, B. (2004). *Getting Things Done at Work: The discourse of power in workplace interaction*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Wang, T. (2021). The Culture Difference in English and Korean Address System. *Lecture Notes on Language and Literature*, 4, 30-35. DOI: 10.23977/langl.2021.41004
- Wardhaugh, R. (1998). *An introduction to sociolinguistics*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Watts, R., Ide, S., & Ehlich, K. (1992). Introduction. In Watts, R., Ide, S. and Ehlich, K. (Eds.), *Politeness in Language: Studies in its History, Theory and Practice* (pp. 1-17). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Weber, R.P. (1990). *Basic Content Analysis*. London: Sage Publications.
- Webster, J. (1988). *Forms of Address for Correspondence and Conversation*. London: Templar Publishing.
- Wijayanto, A., Laila, M., Prasetyarini, A., & Susiati, S. (2013). Politeness in Interlanguage Pragmatics of Complaints by Indonesian Learners of English. *English Language Teaching*, 6(10), 188-201.
- Wilson, N. (2010). Bros, boys and guys: address term function and communities of practice in a New Zealand rugby team. *New Zealand English Journal*, 24, 37-57.
- Wood, L. A., & Kroger, R. O. (1991). Politeness and Forms of Address. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 10(3), 145–168. doi:10.1177/0261927x911103001

- Woodfield, H. (2015). Sociopragmatic Variation in Native Speakers' and ESL Learners' Requests. In K. Beeching and H. Woodfield (Eds.), *Researching Sociopragmatic Variability* (pp. 151-173). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Woodward, K. (2004). Questions of identity. In K. Woodward (Ed.), *Questioning identity: Gender, class, ethnicity* (pp. 6-41). London: Routledge.
- Wright, S. (2009). Forms of Address in the College Classroom. In W. Ahrens, S. M. Embleton and A. Lapierre (Eds.), *Names in Multilingual, Multicultural and Multiethnic Contact: Proceedings of the 23rd International Congress of Onomastic Sciences*. Toronto: York University.
- Wu, Y. (1990). The usages of kinship address forms amongst non-kin in mandarin Chinese: The extension of family solidarity. *Australian Journal of Linguistics*, 10(1), 61-88. doi:10.1080/07268609008599432
- Xiao-le, G. (2011). The Effect of Explicit and Implicit Instructions of Request Strategies. *Intercultural Communication Studies* 20(1), 104-123.
- Xiaowei, M., & Zhengbing, L. (2020). A Comparative Study of Chinese and English Taboos. In M. Ganapathy, H. Ma, K. Tarigan, A. A. A. Rahim, and N. W. Lam (eds.), *Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference on Literature, Art and Human Development (ICLAHD 2020)*, (pp. 365-370). Atlantis Press.
- Yang, X. (2010). Address Forms of English: Rules and Variations. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 1(5), 743-745.
- Yule, G. (1996). *Pragmatics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Zand-Vakili, E., Kashani, A. F., & Tabandeh, F. (2012). The Analysis of Speech Events and Hymes' SPEAKING Factors in the Comedy Television Series: "FRIENDS". *New Media and Mass Communication*, 2, 27-43.
- Zwicky, A. (1974). Hey, whatsyourname! In M. L. Galy, R. Fox, and A. Bruck (Eds.), *Papers from the 10th Regional Meeting of the Chicago Linguistic Society* (pp. 787-801).

APPENDICES

Appendix 1

The Dialogues in Turkish High School EFL Textbooks

Teenwise 9 Student's Book Dialogues

Work in pairs. Imagine you are a student in Fabio's art class. Introduce yourself to your partner as in the example below (p. 15).

Hakan: Hello! I'm Hakan. I'm from Turkey. What's your name?

Rodas: I'm Rodas.

Hakan: Where are you from, *Rodas*?

Rodas: I'm from Greece. What is your job?

Hakan: I'm a student. And you?

Rodas: I'm a student too. Nice to meet you, *Hakan*!

Hakan: Nice to meet you, too!

Listen to the dialogue. Follow the directions and draw a line from Tom to Eva's house (Track 7).

Tom: Hello, *Eva*. This is Tom. I know I'm late but I can't find your house.

Eva: Really? Where are you?

Tom: Let me see. There's a supermarket on the left and the Parrot's Café is on the right.

Eva: Great! You're almost there. Can you see the hospital on your way?

Tom: Yes. A big blue building.

Eva: That's it! Turn right just before the hospital and go along the street. Then take the first turning on the right. You will see some houses behind a small park. There's a basketball hoop in my garden.

Tom: How nice! Is your garden big or small?

Eva: It's small. Come and see. Everybody is here. Hurry up.

Tom: Almost there. I can see the park. See you. Bye.

Listen to Andy and Sue talking about their rooms. Label the pictures with their names (Track 8).

Andy: *Sue*, can I come in?

Sue: Sure, *Andy*. Welcome.

Andy: It says 'don't enter' on the door.

Sue: It's not for you, *Andy*. For my parents. Come in and make yourself a home.

Andy: I have a 'keep out' sign for my little brother. Wow! What a nice room.

Sue: Thanks. This is my favorite place with my blue bed and wardrobe.

Andy: It's really big. What do you have in your wardrobe, *Sue*?

Sue: Thousands of things! I hang all my shirts, jeans, dresses and skirts. I put all my scarves in the drawer. There is a section under the drawer and I put my bags in it. I place my pajamas and towels in the section next to my bags.

Andy: Hmm. You've got so many things in your wardrobe but it's so tidy. My wardrobe is smaller than yours and it's messy all the time.

Sue: Not always. What else do you have in your room?

Andy: There is a desk between the wardrobe and the bed. There are many books on the desk. And I have some movie posters on the wall. Why don't you have any posters?

Sue: I don't like posters. I prefer paintings on the walls.

Andy: Anyways. It's getting late. Let's do our homework.

Listen to Laura and Susan talking about Susan's neighbourhood in Leeds. Choose the correct options (Track 10).

Laura: Hello, *Susan*.

Susan: Hi, *Laura*.

Laura: How is it going?

Susan: Everything is fine but I am a little bit worried.

Laura: Why?

Susan: We're moving abroad. My father has got a new job in Siena.

Laura: Oh, really? I'm surprised to hear that.

Susan: It's very surprising for us too. I love Leeds very much and I don't want to leave, actually.

Laura: Then stay here.

Susan: But my father thinks our lives will be better there.

Laura: So, keep calm and think about the advantages.

Susan: I'm trying my best. But all my friends are here, you know. And there's everything I need in my neighbourhood. I go to the supermarket and have some tea at the café next to it. Everything is easier here.

Laura: Drinking coffee in Siena is more enjoyable than in Leeds. You can have a cup of cappuccino in Siena from now on.

Susan: Don't make fun of me, *Laura*. I'm serious. I'm afraid I won't find all these things in Siena. Look around! Opposite the café there's a book shop. And the bank is between the pharmacy and the post office. There's a mall behind the green area. I meet my friends and do shopping there.

Laura: Oh, come on! Stop complaining, dear. I'm sure you will have new friends and your life will be quiet, safe and cheap in Siena. It's a small city and you are lucky there is no traffic at all.

Susan: I like living in a modern city. Leeds is bigger and busier than Siena. Actually, this is what I want.

Laura: But Siena has a very different story. It's famous for its art and architecture. I'm sure you'll love Siena.

Susan: I hope.

Listen to Eric and Kathy talking about movies. Number the following sentences in the order you hear (Track 15).

Kathy: I'm tired of studying. Let's do something different.

Eric: Why don't we go to the cinema?
Kathy: Oh, I'd love to do that. But first, let's google what's on this week.
Eric: I prefer a horror film. You know me. I'm crazy about them.
Kathy: No way! I find them boring and I'm realistic. A boy or a girl always goes into a haunted house and the story begins.
Eric: Ahaha, very funny. OK. How about watching *The Martian*?
Kathy: Who is in it?
Eric: Matt Damon. You know he's my favorite actor. His acting is amazing.
Kathy: I know but I don't feel like watching sci-fi.
Eric: Let's see. What about *Me Before You* then?
Kathy: Sounds great. I love romance films, you know.
Eric: *You romantic princess.* Love is in the air again.
Kathy: What time does it start?
Eric: Show times are at 5.30 and 7.45.
Kathy: Why don't we catch the 7.45? We can eat something before it starts.

Look at the highlighted sentences in the dialogue and write them under the correct headings (p. 39).

Vincent: Hi, *Doreen*. There is a new Batman movie on at the cinemas. How about seeing it on Tuesday afternoon?
Doreen: Well, I'd love to, but I can't. I have a photography class.
Vincent: OK, let me check my schedule. I'm free on December 5th. Why don't we meet on that day?
Doreen: Sorry, but I can't make it. It's my best friend's birthday. Shall we meet on Thursday?
Vincent: It sounds great. Let's meet at the cinema at 5:30 p.m.

Work in pairs and find what Nathan and Jin like doing in their free time (p. 45).

Nathan: What do you do for fun?
Jin: I collect second-hand poetry books.
Nathan: Really? You are keen on poetry! It doesn't sound that much fun.
Jin: I can read poems all day long. People are different, you know. What do you like doing in your free time?
Nathan: I like scuba-diving. I prefer outdoor activities to indoor ones.

Listen to Sara and Anita talking about the inspirational characters in the photo. Write the correct numbers next to their names (Track 28).

Sara: *Anita*, what are you doing? Can you help me tidy the living room?
Anita: Oh, *Sara*. I'm reading today's paper. Come and have a look at this photo of some celebrities.
Sara: You know I'm not interested in famous people.
Anita: But these all are inspirational characters. They are the best in their careers. It says they are at a fund-raising event all together to support the albino children in Tanzania.

Sara: OK. Let me see. But only for five minutes. Which photo is it?

Anita: This one at the bottom of the page. Hazel Taylor, Steve Jones, Barbara Benson and Sam Harker.

Sara: I don't know who they are.

Anita: Hazel Taylor is the most popular tennis player. She's got beautiful brown eyes and a lovely smile on her face.

Sara: Oh, I see. She's wearing a headscarf.

Anita: Yes, *dear*. She's my favorite sportswoman. And do you see Steve Jones?

Sara: No, I don't.

Anita: Oh, *Sara*! He's the most talented actor. Everybody knows him.

Sara: What does he look like? Tell me and let me find him.

Anita: He has a gray beard and a mustache. His wrinkles suit him very much. He always plays the wise man in his movies. He used to be all skin and bones when he was young.

Sara: Well, very easy to catch. He is the oldest man in the photo.

Anita: Barbara Benson is from high society. She works for some important charity organizations. She is always elegant. She has got straight brown hair. She looks so good with her hair tied up. She is middle-aged.

Sara: Is she middle-aged? She looks in her early 30s!

Anita: She is 45 or something. She really looks much younger. She is next to Sam Harker.

Sara: Sam Harker?

Anita: Don't you really know him? Sam is a world-wide known artist. He's got a dark beard and a mustache.

Sara: Oh! The one with thick glasses.

Anita: Yes. He makes beautiful sculptures.

Sara: Anyway. Is that all, *Anita*? We have a lot to do. Come on. Stand up and get the vacuum cleaner.

Listen to Kate and Jake talking about their favourite actors. Circle the correct option (Track 30).

Kate: Let's go to the cinema! Arvin Bradley's new film is really good. It is full of action.

Jake: I like action films but I don't think Arvin is a good actor. I don't enjoy his films.

Kate: I totally disagree with you. He is one of the best actors. Besides, he is the most helpful and generous celebrity I've ever known.

Jake: Do you know Daniel Swift? He acts in John's In Charge serial.

Kate: Yes, I do.

Jake: He's more helpful than Arvin for sure. He has got rewards from several organizations because he is more generous than most of the celebrities we know.

Kate: What do you mean?

Jake: I mean he donates a great amount of his money to different organizations to help people.

Kate: I'm afraid I don't agree with you again. I think he is advertising.

Jake: Who do you think is the most generous celebrity then?

Kate: Actually, I don't have an exact idea. But in my opinion, Daniel isn't as generous as Arvin.

Jake: Is it because Daniel isn't as handsome as Arvin?

Kate: Oh, *Jake*. Are you jealous of him?

Jake: Who? Me? Don't be ridiculous, *Kate*. I'm telling the truth.

Kate: OK. This is more than enough. Arvin is the most helpful, generous, sincere and handsome actor with no doubt. And also, he is a down-to-earth sort of man. Tell me, are we going to the cinema?

Jake: Of course not.

Kate: You stay home then. I'm going.

Listen to four tracks about travelling. Choose the correct options (Track 37).

Part 1

Customer: I'd like to buy a ticket to Buenos Aires please.

Ticket agent: Sure. When are you travelling?

Customer: April 24th.

Ticket agent: One way or round trip?

Customer: Round trip please. How much is the ticket?

Ticket agent: OK. From Istanbul to Buenos Aires, round trip, economy class. It's \$1200. You're leaving on April 24th at 8 p.m. and arriving the next day at 11 a.m.

Part 2

Official: Good afternoon, *madam*. Where are you travelling to?

Passenger: Lisbon.

Official: May I have your passport and ticket please?

Passenger gives the ticket and the passport.

Official: Thank you. How many pieces of baggage do you have?

Passenger: Two.

Official: Would you like a window or aisle seat?

Passenger: Aisle, please.

Listen to the interviews about the Seven Wonders. Which Modern Wonders are they talking about? (Track 46).

Interview 1

Interviewer: Good morning. We are here to ask questions about the wonders of the world. And the lady is with us now. Hello. What are the Seven Wonders of the World?

Interviewee: Wonders of the World hmm... Maybe the Pyramids.

Interviewer: Right. But there are some modern ones. Do you know them?

Interviewee: Are there? No. Sorry.

Interviewer: OK. Is The Temple of Artemis or The Great Wall of China in the new list?

Interviewee: The Great Wall huh?

Interviewer: Congratulations. Correct answer.

Interview 2

Interviewer: Hello. Can I ask you some questions?

Interviewee: Sure. Go ahead.

Interviewer: Is Petra or Taj Mahal a city in the rock?

Interviewee: I don't know. Which one?

Interviewer: Petra in Jordan is the answer.

Interviewee: Oops...I had no idea.

Interviewer: OK. Why did they call it the rose city? Can you guess?

Interviewee: That's because there were a lot of roses.

Interviewer: No, not that. It is because of the color of the stone. Thank you.

Interview 3

Interviewer: Hi. Would you like to answer some questions about the modern wonders?

Interviewee: Certainly, I'd love to.

Interviewer: Which was the lost city for three centuries? Machu Picchu or the Coliseum?

Interviewee: Of course, Machu Picchu! And they rediscovered it in 1911. It is also the city in the clouds.

Interviewer: Wow! You know a lot about this wonder.

Interviewee: Yes. I'm interested in history and I went there several times. It was amazing.

Interviewer: Uh-huh, quite impressive.

Listen to the dialogue between the doctor and Anita. Who says these sentences? Write 'D' for the doctor and 'A' for Anita (Track 50).

Anita: Good afternoon, *doctor*.

Doctor: Good afternoon. What's wrong with you?

Anita: I've had a sore throat and a fever for three days. And today I haven't gone to school.

Doctor: What are the other symptoms?

Anita: I really feel under the weather. My throat is so dry and I can't stop coughing.

Doctor: Alright. Take a seat. I'll have a look at you. Open your mouth wide, say AAA.

Anita: AAA.

Doctor: There's nothing to worry about. You've got a cold. You should stay in bed for a couple of days and you shouldn't go to school. I'll prescribe you some tablets and syrup for your cough. You had better take lots of liquid and Vitamin C.

Anita: No antibiotics?

Doctor: No, no. There's no need. Come back next week if you don't feel better.

Listen to the telephone conversations between the callers and emergency call operators. Choose the correct picture for each dialogue (Track 52).

Dialogue 1

Operator: 911. What is your emergency?

Caller: There's a car crash here. Two cars have just smashed into each other.

Operator: OK. What is your location?

Caller: I'm in 21 Union Street. Just opposite the government building.

Operator: Is anyone injured?

Caller: Yes. One woman is hurt. Her head is bleeding.

Operator: Is she unconscious?

Caller: I think so.

Operator: We're sending an ambulance. The paramedics will do their best. Please don't hang up the phone.

Dialogue 2

Operator: 911. State your emergency please.

Caller: There's a fire in my apartment.

Operator: Remain calm. What's your address?

Caller: 24 Charleston Street, second floor.

Operator: OK. Help is on the way. Where's the fire?

Caller: In the living room. Oh my god! The curtains have just caught fire!

Operator: Don't panic. Keep away from the flames. Is there anyone with you?

Caller: Just my dog.

Operator: Please exit your apartment with your dog. Do not try to take any belongings with you. Please follow my instructions. They are for your safety.

Dialogue 3

Operator: 911. What is the emergency?

Caller: I'm in the SEF Bank. There's a robbery happening right now.

Operator: What is the address of the bank, *sir*?

Caller: I just know that it is in the Oak Town, next to the Star Hotel.

Operator: I have just got the location from your cell phone. Help is on the way. Try to remain calm.

Caller: I can't. I could hear people screaming. The robber is wearing a mask.

Operator: Can you see the robber?

Caller: Yes. He is wearing a mask and there is a gun in his hand.

Operator: Alright. Do not move. Please, stay on the line.

Listen to the people inviting friends to the parties. Write the correct numbers (Track 56).

Dialogue 1

Katie: Hi, *Linda*. It's Katie. What are you up to this Sunday?

Linda: Nothing much. I am going to study maths in the morning.

Katie: Are you free in the evening?

Linda: Yes, I am.

Katie: Perfect. The weather is great and we're going to cook some steak and sausages in the garden. Would you like to join us?

Linda: I'd love to! Thanks. Shall I go shopping before I come?

Katie: No, thanks. Andy's going to do the shopping.

Linda: What time shall I come?

Katie: At about 7 o'clock.

Linda: Alright. See you then.

Dialogue 2

Daisy: Hey *Mike*. This is Daisy calling. Tomorrow, my parents are going to throw a party to celebrate me leaving high-school. Fancy joining us?

Mike: That sounds good. Do I need to bring some food?

Daisy: Of course not. My mom is going to cook for us.

Mike: Wow! That sounds wonderful. What time?

Daisy: The party starts at 2 p.m.

Mike: OK then. See you tomorrow.

Dialogue 3

Adele: Hi, *Nicky*. This is Adele. Listen. My classmates are going to come over tomorrow. We're going to say goodbye to Jennie and wish good luck for her new life in Dublin. Why don't you come along?

Nicky: Sorry. I can't make it.

Adele: Oh, come on. Why not?

Nicky: I'd love to but my parents are going to eat out and I have to babysit for my brother tonight.

Adele: OK. Good luck. Maybe next time.

Work in pairs. Role-play the dialogue (p. 111).

Greg: Hello, *Kelly*, it is Greg calling. Let's throw a surprise party for Rebecca to celebrate her new job.

Kelly: Oh, that sounds wonderful. When?

Greg: Is this Friday OK?

Kelly: I'm sorry, I can't make it. I'm going to be out of town this weekend.

Greg: What about next Saturday?

Kelly: OK, that would be great. Shall I bring anything?

Greg: I am going to prepare the food and drinks. Would you mind calling her family?

Kelly: All right, I will do that. I think she will be really happy.

Listen to the people shopping in different stores. Number the sentences in the order you hear (Track 58).

Dialogue 1

Shop Assistant: How can I help you?

Customer: Have you got any fresh coconut?

Shop Assistant: Yes, we have. Fruits and vegetables are over there.

Customer: Oh, OK. Thanks. Actually, I'm going to make Laddu for the spring fest. What else should I buy?

Shop Assistant: Hmm...for Laddu, you need a packet of nuts, sugar and a carton of milk, too.

Customer: All right. How much sugar should I buy?

Shop Assistant: A kilo is enough. But there aren't any dairy products here. You can buy milk from the supermarket on the left.

Customer: Then I will buy these first. Thank you.

Dialogue 2

Customer: Good morning. I'm looking for a pair of trainers.

Shop Assistant: Sure. Are you going to wear them in the gym?

Customer: No. I am going trekking for the Spring Bank Holiday and I'm going to wear them there.

Shop Assistant: So, you need a really strong pair. I think these are pretty good for long walks.

Customer: Yeah. They look fine. How much are they?

Shop Assistant: £100.

Customer: £100, huh? They are really expensive.

Shop Assistant: Do you want them?

Customer: There's no choice. I'll have them.

Shop Assistant: Do you need anything else?

Customer: No, thanks.

Dialogue 3

Shop Assistant: Good afternoon. Can I help you?

Customer: Yes, please. I'd like to buy a blouse.

Shop Assistant: We have silk and cotton ones.

Customer: By the way, it is a gift for my sister. I'm going to give it to her for her birthday.

Shop Assistant: Good then. Here are some nice silk blouses.

Customer: Well, this white one looks nice. How much does it cost?

Shop Assistant: All silk ones are £150.

Customer: Hmm...quite expensive. Can I have a look at the cotton ones?

Shop Assistant: Sure. They are under £60.

Customer: Good. This red one is OK. It is her favorite color.

Shop Assistant: That's £49.90. How would you like to pay?

Customer: By credit card, please.

Listen to the dialogue between Eileen and Liam. Tick the phrases you hear (Track 61).

Eileen: Look around the café. Nobody is speaking to anyone. Everybody is just sitting and checking their smartphones.

Liam: I totally agree. They aren't even drinking their coffee. But you know, it is impossible to live without them. We all download music, send text messages and use GPS and camera on our phones. Can you live without taking selfies?

Eileen: No, I can't. I really enjoy it. But I think we spend too much time on social media. What will happen to us if we carry on with this addiction?

Liam: Hmm...let me think. It is not an addiction, actually. It is a must. My grandmother is 70 and she has just bought a tablet. She follows the news on Twitter. She has found her old school friends on Facebook and they share their selfies on WhatsApp every day. I think in the future every single person will use social media.

Eileen: I don't agree with you. I think people will stop using social media. I'm sure they will realize that they miss the real life. They will start to spend more time with their families and friends. They will enjoy nature, the sky, the birds without their apps. They will feel free.

Liam: I'm afraid I don't agree. The world will be a better place with social media. And also, we will become citizens of one big village.

Read the dialogue between Tina and Brian. They are talking about the TV programmes in exercise 2. What are they going to watch tonight? (p. 128).

Tina: There is my favourite TV series, *Doctor Who*, on TV tonight. Would you like to watch it?

Brian: Well, not really. I don't like it. I think it is too boring.

Tina: Too boring?? I totally disagree with you. Anyway, I will watch it on the Net later. How about watching *Who Wants to be a Millionaire*?

Brian: I really like quiz shows. What time is it on?

Tina: At 9:20. Let's watch it together.

Listen to Chit Chat with Larissa on Channel 1. Put the events in Carlos's life in the correct order (Track 63).

Larissa: Hello! Welcome to another episode of Chit Chat with Larissa. We are here today with a professional Spanish animator, Carlos Baena. Hola, *Carlos*. Ready for a chit chat? So, how did your life in the USA start? When I googled you, I saw that your dream was to be a lawyer.

Carlos: Yeah, Google is exactly right. I didn't know much about art and wanted to be a lawyer. But then I decided to be serious about art.

Larissa: And you flew to the States to study art?

Carlos: Yeah. I came here in 1994. And then I studied at Academy of Art University. After graduation, that was in 1998, I worked for Lucas Films, Pixar and Paramount Pictures.

Larissa: Wow! You worked for the best. Can you name some of your films?

Carlos: I worked in Star Wars II in 2002 and Cars in 2006. I also made animations for Toy Story II in 2010.

Larissa: What are you working on now?

Carlos: I'm teaching 3D animation online. My two friends and I started an online school in 2005. We help students to have a career in animation.

Larissa: By the way, what's the name of the school?

Carlos: Animation Mentor. You can visit www.animationmentor.com.

Larissa: Well, I know you have some other interests like composing music and skateboarding.

Carlos: Yep. I'm also interested in making short films.

Larissa: Let's talk about your plans a little bit.

Carlos: Well, I'm going to compose some music for my short films. I've got lots of plans about films and art in my mind.

Larissa: What can you say about the future of the animation world?

Carlos: I'm sure there will be lots of talented animation artists. More and more animated film stars will appear on screen.

Larissa: Uh-huh. Who will get the Oscar then? The animated film stars or the real ones?

Carlos: Good question. Let's wait and see.

Larissa: Thank you, *Carlos*.

Ortaöğretim İngilizce 10 Ders Kitabı Dialogues

Read the questionnaire on the next page and then watch the video. Jane is asking Steve some questions. Tick (✓) Jane's questions (Video 1.1).

Jane: Hey, *Steve*! How is it going?

Steve: Hi, *Jane*. Not bad, thanks. And you?

Jane: Just fine, thank you. Our English teacher is giving us a questionnaire. I must ask these questions to five different students from different classes. Can you answer them?

Steve: Sure.

Jane: Great! Let's start then. Here is the first question. Do you live in a flat?

Steve: No, I don't. I live in a house with a big garden.

Jane: Are you from a large family?

Steve: No.

Jane: Do you have any sisters or brothers?

Steve: No, I don't have any sisters or brothers. I'm an only child.

Jane: What does your father do?

Steve: He is an engineer. He works for an international company.

Jane: What does your mother do?

Steve: She is a dentist. She works at a hospital.

Jane: How do you come to school?

Steve: I always come to school on foot.

Jane: What school subject do you like most?

Steve: My favorite subject is Math. I think it's very interesting.

Jane: What kind of music do you like?

Steve: Rock music. I really like it.

Jane: Do you like pop music?

Steve: No, I hate it. In my opinion, it's terrible.

Jane: What's your favorite pastime?

Steve: Basketball. I'm crazy about it. I usually play basketball with some classmates after school.

Jane: That's all, *Steve*. Thank you very much for your time.

Steve: Don't mention it, *Jane*. See you later.

Jane: See you. Bye!

Look at the picture and choose the correct answer. Then listen and check your answer (Audio 1.3).

David: Good afternoon, *Mrs. Williams*.

Mrs. Williams: Good afternoon, *David*. You look so unhappy. What is the matter with you?

David: I feel too stressed, *Mrs. Williams*. I have four exams next week. I don't want to fail, but I don't know what to do.

Mrs. Williams: You should revise regularly, *David*. Do you have a study plan?

David: No, I don't.

Mrs. Williams: You should make a study plan, *David*. You should start your revision early. In this way, you can complete your studies in time. It's not a good idea to study for your exams at the last minute.

David: You're right, *Mrs. Williams*. I usually study at the last minute, so I don't have enough time to study all the important points very well. And then I feel too stressed before exams.

Mrs. Williams: That's a big mistake, *David*. Let's think of your successful classmates. For example, Lisa is studying for her exams this week, but she isn't feeling stressed because she revises regularly, so she always learns well.

David: Yes, *Mrs. Williams*. Lisa's such an eager beaver. She studies very hard and does all her homework.

Mrs. Williams: She's a very successful student. She always passes her exams with flying colors.

David: Yes, I want to be successful like her.

Mrs. Williams: You shouldn't study at the last minute then.

David: Alright, *Mrs. Williams*. I'll make a study plan today.

Mrs. Williams: Great! And you should sleep well in the few days before your exams. Your diet is also important. You should eat healthy food.

David: OK, *Mrs. Williams*.

Mrs. Williams: I'm sure you'll be successful, *David*. Please, let me know if you need any help.

David: Thank you very much, *Mrs. Williams*.

Mrs. Williams: You're welcome, *David*. You should hit the books as soon as possible.

David: Yes, *Mrs. Williams*. I'll study very hard this week. Have a nice day.

Mrs. Williams: Thanks. Good bye.

Read the dialogue below. Can you guess the meaning of this expression? (p. 28).

Do you fancy playing tennis?:

Veronica: What are you doing tomorrow morning? Do you fancy playing tennis?

Lauren: Sorry, but tennis isn't my cup of tea.

Veronica: How about going to the seaside this afternoon?

Lauren: I'm afraid I can't. I'm going to join my cousin's graduation ceremony with mum.

Veronica: What a shame! Anyway, maybe next time.

Listen to Mandy and Alex. Circle the correct alternative (Audio 2.3).

Mandy: Hi, *Alex*.

Alex: Hi, *Mandy*. How are you?

Mandy: Not bad, thanks. And you?

Alex: Fine, thank you.

Mandy: What are you doing this weekend?

Alex: Well, I'm taking a guitar course on Saturday morning.

Mandy: What time does it finish?

Alex: At 11.30.

Mandy: Have you got any plans for Saturday afternoon?

Alex: Yes, I have. I'm going to finish my biology project, but I'm free after 6 p.m. Why don't we meet up in the evening?

Mandy: I'm afraid I cannot. I'm going to visit my aunt with my family. She's having a housewarming party on Saturday evening.

Alex: Oh, right. Do you fancy doing something on Sunday?

Mandy: Sure, but I have already got plans for Sunday morning. I'm going ice skating with some classmates.

Alex: What a shame. Anyway, maybe next time.

Mandy: What about Sunday afternoon, *Alex*? Let's meet up then.

Alex: Sorry, I can't. I'm playing tennis with Mike on Sunday afternoon, but our tennis practice finishes at 5 p.m. Would you like to go out after that?

Mandy: Yes, I'd love to.

Alex: Shall we go bowling?

Mandy: Sorry, but bowling isn't my cup of tea. What about going to the funfair instead?

Alex: Yeah, why not? Sounds fun.

Mandy: What time?

Alex: At 7 p.m.

Mandy: Great! Let's speak again on Sunday.

Alex: OK. I'll call you. Bye!

Mandy: Bye! Take care.

Listen to the following conversations and fill in the missing words (Audio 2.4).

Conversation 1

Arthur: Have you got any plans for tomorrow?

Barry: Yes. Actually, I'm very busy. I'm going to pack my baggage tomorrow morning. I'm flying to Paris at 2 p.m. I've already bought my ticket.

Arthur: Oh, right. When are you coming back?

Barry: On Friday. My flight arrives at 11 a.m.

Arthur: OK. I'll call you on Friday afternoon then. Bye.

Barry: Goodbye. Take care.

Conversation 4

Paul: Susan's looking for you.

Kate: OK. I'll see her in the classroom.

Paul: Mary and I are going to the gym after school. We're going to play volleyball. Why don't you join us?

Kate: Yeah, why not? I'll come with you.

Read the first part of the interview from the Teen Focus magazine. Choose the correct answer (pp. 56-57).

Last week, the TEEN FOCUS magazine interviewed Taylor Brown, a well-known historian. He talked to us about the lives of people in the past.

Teen Focus: *Mr. Brown*, first of all, would you please tell us about the social lives of people in the past?

Taylor Brown: Sure. For a long period in the past, social life was usually family-centered. People used to spend most of their time with their families, and they sometimes visited relatives or friends in their hometowns. They generally spent their evenings having chats, telling stories or playing some sort of board games. They had almost no contact with other countries. Most people didn't use to travel to faraway places. When they went to a nearby town, they usually travelled on foot or horseback. The father was the leader of the family. Women had almost no power. They had to obey men. In towns, men used to work and earn money for the family. It was traditional for women to stay at home. They used to do the household chores and look after the children. Women in villages also worked in fields with men. People thought social customs were really important and they used to follow them.

Teen Focus: Yes, *Mr. Brown*. Now can you give us some information about the educational lives of people in the past?

Taylor Brown: Yes, of course. In the past, there weren't so many schools. According to some people, education wasn't that important so they didn't want their daughters to go to school. Unfortunately, girls weren't as lucky as boys. What's more, many children used to end their educational lives when they finished primary school. And then they began working for their families. In addition, students used to spend too much time doing homework. It was difficult for them to obtain information since they did not use to have personal computers and the Internet. They didn't have any technological devices at school such as calculators, projectors, printers and tablets, either.

Teen Focus: So, do you think technology changed the teaching and learning process, *Mr. Brown*?

Taylor Brown: Absolutely! At schools, students started to see interactive boards, instead of chalkboards not long ago. They began to use information technology in class. In this way, it has become faster to get information. Technological developments also make life easy. In the past, doing housework was extremely tiring. For example, people used to wash their clothes by hand. But then washing machines came out. Besides, technology has developed medicine so people can live longer. Actually, technology has dramatically changed how people work, communicate, travel, entertain and so on.

Teen Focus: Thank you very much for your time, *Mr. Brown*.

Taylor Brown: You're welcome.

Listen to the audio and answer the questions (Audio 5.1).

M: Good afternoon.

W: Good afternoon, *sir*. How can I help you?

M: I'd like to book a vacation for this summer. Can you help me to choose a good place? we can't decide where to go.

W: Yes, of course. Have a seat, please.

M: Thank you.

W: You aren't traveling alone, are you?

M: No, I'm planning to travel with my wife, my son and my daughter.

W: So, you want a family vacation.

M: Yes.

W: When do you want to take this vacation?

M: In August.

W: You've been abroad before, haven't you?

M: Yes, my family and I have been abroad many times.

W: Where have you been? Have you ever been to the USA?

M: Yes, we visited Florida. We went there four years ago.

W: Did you like Florida?

M: Yes, it was great. We spent two weeks there. We liked Miami beach a lot. It was fascinating.

W: Yes, you are right. It's fantastic. Which European countries have you visited so far?

M: We visited Italy, France and Spain.

W: Which one did you like most?

M: We liked Spain very much. There are lots of wonderful beaches in Spain. We had a great time there.

W: You like beach vacations, don't you?

M: Yeah. Beach vacations are fun.

W: Have you ever been to Turkey?

M: No, we've never been to Turkey.

W: I think you should go to Turkey. It is really worth seeing and you can have a great beach vacation there.

M: Yeah, why not? A friend of mine went there last summer and he said it was terrific.

W: Yes, Turkey is a good choice for you.

M: Alright. Which places should I visit there?

W: There're many places to visit in Turkey. For example, Bodrum. I believe you should go there.

M: Sorry, did you say Bodrum?

W: Yes, Bodrum. I love Bodrum. It has the most beautiful scenery I've ever seen. I'm sure you'll have a very nice time there.

M: That sounds perfect. Let's book our vacation for Bodrum then.

W: Certainly, *sir*. Would you rather stay at a resort or a rental villa?

M: We'd rather stay at a resort, at an all-inclusive resort.

W: How long are you planning to stay?

M: For ten days.

W: Pardon?

M: Ten days.

W: OK. What means of transportation do you prefer? You'd like to go there by plane, wouldn't you?

M: Yes, of course.

W: Alright.

Listen to the phone conversation and answer the question (Audio 5.4).

Ticket agent: Good morning. Heathrow Airlines. How can I help you?

Woman: Good morning. I'd like to book a flight, please.

Ticket agent: OK, *madam*. What city would you like to fly to?

Woman: Manchester.

Ticket agent: What date would you like to book the flight for?

Woman: The 20th of January.

Ticket agent: Would you like a morning flight or an afternoon flight?

Woman: A morning flight, please.

Ticket agent: Would you like a window seat or an aisle seat?
Woman: A window seat, please.
Ticket agent: All right. Could I have your name, please?
Woman: Margarita Lopez.
Ticket agent: Excuse me? Could you repeat that, please?
Woman: Sure. My name's Margarita Lopez.
Ticket agent: OK. I've just booked your flight, Ms. Lopez.
Woman: Thank you very much.
Ticket agent: You're welcome. And there's one more thing.
Woman: Yes?
Ticket agent: You should obey the baggage allowance. A passenger can't have baggage more than 25 kilos.
Woman: No problem. I always travel light.
Ticket agent: OK, then. Thank you for choosing us. I hope you'll have a wonderful trip.
Woman: Thanks a lot.
Ticket agent: My pleasure. Have a nice day.

Listen to the following conversation and complete the sentences (Audio 5.5).

Man: Good afternoon.
Receptionist: Good afternoon, *sir*. How can I help you?
Man: I'd like to book a room, please.
Receptionist: Sure. What type of room would you like? Single or double?
Man: I'd like a double room for me and my wife.
Receptionist: Sorry, did you say double?
Man: Yes. I'd like a double room with a balcony.
Receptionist: OK.
Man: Does the room have air conditioning?
Receptionist: Yes, of course. All our rooms have air conditioning.
Man: That's very good. How much does a double room cost?
Receptionist: € 60 per night.
Man: Does it include breakfast?
Receptionist: Yes. The price includes breakfast, but you must pay € 15 for dinner.
Man: Pardon?
Receptionist: The price doesn't include dinner and it costs € 15.
Man: All right.
Receptionist: How long are you planning to stay?
Man: For five nights. From the 7th of February to the 11th.
Receptionist: Right. Your room number is 345. It's on the third floor. You're lucky. Your room overlooks the swimming pool.
Man: That sounds great. How can I go to the swimming pool? I want to see it.
Receptionist: Go straight ahead. Turn left at the coffee shop. It's on the right.
Man: Thanks. And I have one more question: What are the most popular tourist attractions here? My wife and I want to see them all. We'd like to make the most of our visit here.
Receptionist: We have a brochure about them. Here you are. I'm sure it'll help you a lot.
Man: Thank you very much.
Receptionist: You're welcome, *sir*.

The following pieces of advice are about choosing the right job. Listen to the conversation and number them (Audio 6.2).

Martin: And what about you, *Celia*? How's your life going?

Celia: It's OK. You know, I'm at high school.

Martin: You must study hard for your exams if you want to get high grades.

Celia: I'm studying really hard, *uncle Martin*, but I have a problem. I can't decide what job is perfect for me. Could you please give me some advice?

Martin: Yes, of course. What are your skills? What subjects are you good at?

Celia: I can learn new things quickly. I'm good at math and physics.

Martin: Right. First, you should know your skills and interests. It's a good idea to decide what makes you happy.

Celia: OK.

Martin: And you should discover yourself. You'd better make a list of your strengths. You should also write down your weaknesses. Then you should research possible jobs for you. After that you can make a good decision.

Celia: You're right, *uncle Martin*. Thank you very much.

Martin: Don't mention it. Now how about some ice-cream? Could you please give me a hand, *Celia*?

Celia: Sure.

Listen to the second part of the radio program and correct the mistakes in these sentences (Audio 6.6).

Shirley: And now, here's our first caller. Good morning.

Maggie: Good morning, *Shirley*.

Shirley: Could you please tell me your name?

Maggie: Sure, my name is Maggie.

Shirley: Yes, *Maggie*. We are listening to you.

Maggie: Maybe you know this helpful tip, *Shirley*. Everybody in my family does.

Shirley: Alright, *Maggie*. Can you please ask me? Let's see if I know it.

Maggie: OK. If we want to make our teeth white, which fruit's peel can we use?

Shirley: Wow, I've heard that. What's that fruit? It's on the tip of my tongue. No, I can't remember, *Maggie*. What's the answer?

Maggie: Banana.

Shirley: Oh, yes.

Maggie: You can use the inside of banana peel to whiten your teeth. You should rub it on your teeth for about 2 minutes. It really works. Your listeners must try it.

Shirley: You're right, *Maggie*. Thank you very much.

Maggie: You're welcome, *Shirley*.

Watch the video. Underline the correct alternative (Video 7.1).

A: Good afternoon, everyone. Welcome to our program. Today we're going to talk about festivals. We have a guest here. He's from Turkey. He'd like to introduce us to a different festival. Welcome, *Murat*.

B: Thank you very much.

A: My pleasure. What is the festival called, *Murat*?

B: Söğüt festival.

A: I've never heard about it? I wonder how it's celebrated.

B: I'll tell you all about the festival.

A: All right, we're listening to you.

B: This festival is held in Söğüt every September. Söğüt is a small town near Bilecik in Turkey. It's an important place in the Turkish history.

A: Oh, I like that kind of festivals. I'm interested in history.

B: Really?

A: Yes, I'm burning with curiosity. Come on, *Murat*, tell us about the festival.

B: Sure. First of all, I like to mention Osman bey. He was the founder of the Ottoman states. Osman Bey founded it in Söğüt in 1299.

A: Oh, more than seven centuries ago.

B: Yes, Ertuğrul Bey was Osman's father. Turkish people also call him Ertuğrul Gazi. His tomb is in Söğüt. The festival is organized to remember Ertuğrul gazi. It's a very popular festival. Thousands of people join it every year. I prepared a video about Söğüt festival. Shall we watch it? After that I'll answer all of your questions.

A: Yes, of course. That sounds great! Let's watch.

Listen to the conversation and choose the correct answer (Audio 7.3).

W: Now we're talking to one of the cooks at Söğüt festival. Hello.

M: Hello. Welcome to our kitchen.

W: Thank you. I'd like to learn about the special dish of the festival. You call it Şifalı Pilav. I wonder how to cook it. Can you give us the recipe?

M: Yes, of course. First, a huge amount of bulgurs are given away to the festival committee by some villagers nearby. Second, lots of bulgurs brought by the Yoruks from different parts of Turkey. Third, some lambs are sacrificed near the festival area. Next, meat's chopped and it's boiled until it gets soft. Then, butter is melted in very large pots. After that bulgur is added and then meat is put into the pots. Later, water is poured onto them. Finally, salt is sprinkled. When all the water is lost the dish is ready. It is served with ayran.

W: Thank you very much.

M: My pleasure.

Listen to the conversation and tick the correct picture (Audio 7.4).

M: Good morning to everyone. Welcome to our TV show, Cooking as Fun. Today Amanda Tylor's with us here in the studio. Welcome to our show, *Amanda*.

W: Thank you very much.

M: You're welcome. *Amanda*, what did you like to share with us?

W: Well, I live in Melbourne, Australia. We have an exciting food festival there. It's called Melbourne Tomato Festival and it's held in February. People cook different dishes with tomatoes and offer them to their guests. My mother and I always cook tomato soup during the festival. I think it's very delicious.

M: OK, *Amanda*. We wonder how you cook your tomato soup. Could you tell us the recipe?

W: Sure. First of all, I'd like to talk about the ingredients.

M: Alright.

W: For this soup, we need four tomatoes, one glass of milk, two spoonful of flour, three spoonful of butter, six glasses of water, one teaspoonful of salt, one teaspoonful of black pepper and hundred grams of Parmesan cheese.

M: It is easy to find these ingredients.

W: Yes.

Listen to the conversation and put the following instructions in the correct order (Audio 7.5).

M: And now, can you tell us the cooking instructions, *Amanda*?

W: Yes, of course. Here are the cooking instructions. First the tomatoes are graded. Second, the butter is melted in a pot. Third, tomatoes are added and cooked for about five minutes. Then flour is added and mixed well. Next, the milk and water are poured into the pot. After that the salt and black pepper are added. Finally, the soup is boiled for about 15 minutes and your soup gets ready. Later on, the cheese is grated and sprinkled on the soup before it's served.

M: That sounds easy and I'm sure it's tasty. I'd like to try this recipe as soon as possible. *Amanda*, thank you very much indeed.

W: My pleasure.

Listen to the conversation. What superheroes are the teenagers talking about? (Audio 9.1).

Ken: Hi, *Rita*.

Rita: Hi, *Ken*.

Ken: What're you doing?

Rita: I'm reading a blog about super heroes.

Ken: Really? I find super heroes interesting. I love watching movies about them.

Rita: Me too. I've just watched a movie about Antman. I think he's great.

Ken: Well, I prefer superman over all the other superheroes. In my opinion, he is the best superhero of all time.

Rita: I think Antman is really successful. He's very powerful when he wears the Antman suit. He has different super powers. He can become very small or very big.

Ken: If you ask me Superman is more powerful than him. Definitely. He is the strongest of all. He is as strong as a bull and as brave as a lion.

Rita: Yes, that is right.

Ken: Superman is also the most helpful. I wish I were a superhero. If I were a superhero, I would help everyone. Would you like to have superpowers, *Rita*?

Rita: Yes, of course. If I had superpowers, I could fly. That would be fantastic. I'd go everywhere in the world very fast. I wish I could fly.

Ken: Me too. Why don't we watch a DVD about a superhero?

Rita: Yeah, why not? That's a very good idea.

Listen to the conversation and answer these questions (Audio 10.1).

M: Can I help you?

W: Yes, please. I'm looking for a present for my sister. It's her birthday tomorrow.

M: How old is your sister?

W: She's nine.

M: What about a T-shirt or a skirt?

W: No, I think she prefers a dress. Can I look at the dresses?

M: Sure, they're here.

W: They look so nice. How much is this red dress?

M: It's 50 euros.
W: Oh, it's too expensive.
M: You're right it's the most expensive dress of all.
W: How much is this purple one?
M: It's 30 euros.
W: I think this pink dress is much more stylish than the purple one. Is it cheaper than the purple dress?
M: Yes, the pink dress is cheaper. Actually, it has a special discount today. It's the cheapest one. It's only 20 euros.
W: OK, I'll take it.
M: What size do you need? This one is size small.
W: No, it is too small for her. Do you have a larger size?
M: Yes, which one do you prefer? Size medium or large?
W: I guess large is better because she isn't slim.
M: Right. Would you like to buy anything else?
W: No, thanks. That's all for today.
M: OK. How would you like to pay?
W: Do you accept credit cards?
M: Yes, of course. You must pay at the check-out. Come with me, please.
W: Alright. Thank you very much.
M: You're welcome. It's my pleasure to serve you.

Listen to the shopping dialogue and fill in the blanks (Audio 10.3).

Shop assistant: May I help you?
Customer: Yes, please. I want to buy a coat.
Shop assistant: What color do you prefer?
Customer: Blue please.
Shop assistant: What size do you wear?
Customer: Medium please.
Shop assistant: Here you are. Would you like to try it on?
Customer: Yes, please.
Shop assistant: The fitting rooms are over there.
Customer: Thank you.
.....
Shop assistant: Is it OK?
Customer: Oh, no. It's too big. Do you have a smaller size?
Shop assistant: Yes. Wait a minute, please. I'll get it for you.
Customer: Thank you.
.....
Shop assistant: Here you are. This one's better.
Customer: Thanks. How much does it cost?
Shop assistant: It's 90 liras. How would you like to pay?
Customer: I'd like to pay in cash.
Shop assistant: All right.
Customer: Could I have a receipt, please?
Shop assistant: Sure.

Silver Lining 11 Student's Book Dialogues

Listen to Tailynn and Austin talking about their summer plans. Tick Tailynn's summer job tasks (Track 1).

Tailynn: So, *Austin*, what are you planning to do on your vacation?

Austin: Oh, I'm going to do something different in the first month. My cousin Joe and I will be travelling across Europe by train in June. We haven't fixed upon the countries yet but we will probably make it France, Germany, the Netherlands, Belgium and Spain.

Tailynn: Wow! Your plan sounds amazing. I'm sure you will be tickled to death with Joe. Lucky you!

Austin: What about you, *Tailynn*? Are you doing anything exciting this summer?

Tailynn: Me? Well, I'd love to go and lie on a beach somewhere, but I need to save money for school. I saw an ad on the net. I've already applied for it and they have taken me on.

Austin: Oh, really? What is it exactly?

Tailynn: A door to door salesperson to sell Tod-e's electronic accessories. Teens love this brand and it sells like hotcakes. So, I will be selling headphones, pen drives, chargers, cases and so on by next summer.

Austin: Will you? I'm really pleased for you. Are you going to work full time or part time?

Tailynn: Full time. I will probably start at 10 a.m. They will let me know the area that I am going to be responsible for. They expect me to visit almost 30 customers per day.

Austin: 30 customers? That's a lot!

Tailynn: Oh, it's OK. I'll inform them about the products, prices, new offers and promotions. I'll also report the customers' complaints or requests to the employer. Finally, I'll cash up and grant the money before I go home in the evening.

Austin: Oh, poor you... If you keep working such long hours without a holiday, you'll burn out. However, I'm sure you'll get ahead, because most entrepreneurs start their jobs with careers with jobs like this.

Tailynn: I don't mind working for long hours if the pay is good.

Austin: Listen, do you think there is something for me on the net for July and August?

Tailynn: Ha-ha. Let's check the job ads.

Listen to a manager interviewing Austin for a summer job that he saw on the Net. Guess the job he was interviewed for (Track 5).

Austin: Good afternoon, *Miss Brooks*. I'm Austin Hensley. I'm here for the position you advertised online.

Miss Brooks: Nice to meet you, *Austin*. Please, come in and take a seat.

Austin: Thank you.

Miss Brooks: So, *Austin*, looking at your CV, you are a student at Edinburgh College of Arts, aren't you?

Austin: Yes, I'm a third-grade student at university and will be graduating next year. I'm looking for a temporary summer job.

Miss Brooks: Why do you think you are the right person for the job?

Austin: Well, I know this city very well. I'm considered to be friendly and sociable and get along well with people from other countries. Oh, I'm also really into history and culture. I suppose I have a good sense of geography and I speak Spanish fluently.

Miss Brooks: That's perfect because this job will involve greeting foreign students, interpreting and introducing nature attractions and historic sites to them. Have you got any experience of this type of work?

Austin: I had a part time job at the information desk at Edinburgh airport last summer. I picked up a lot of experience in working with different people.

Miss Brooks: OK. Good, *Austin*. Selling tickets and organizing tours are physically demanding and hours are really long. Sometimes you'll be working evening shifts or seven days a week. I mean you'll be burning the candle at both ends.

Austin: No problem. I'm flexible, punctual and organized. And I work to tight deadlines.

Miss Brooks: Well, everything seems great. Are there any questions you'd like to ask us?

Austin: Not a question, but there is just one thing I have to mention. Unfortunately, I won't be available to start in June, as I'll be travelling across Europe then.

Miss Brooks: I see. OK. How about June 30th, Friday?

Austin: Thank you, *Miss Brooks*. You won't be sorry. But I'd prefer July 3rd to start if that's all right with you.

Miss Brooks: OK, then. See you at 9 on July 3rd. Oh, please don't forget you'll be having a week of training in May.

Listen to the dialogue between Elsa and her mother. Fill in the blanks (Track 10).

Elsa: *Mom*, I've decided to apply for the talent show, prepared for the sports club in our university. I have to sign up first and then wait for them to call me.

Mother: Oh, *my sweetheart*, I'm so glad to hear that. As you've been swimming so well since you were four.

Elsa: Actually, I don't want you to be disappointed, but I'm not gonna swim. I'm gonna do highlining.

Mother: Oh, my god. What's that?

Elsa: Walking across the rope from one cliff to another. It is a kind of extreme sports.

Mother: What? I can't believe you. It never crossed my mind that you might do such a crazy thing. It's perilous.

Elsa: It's not, *mom*. I wear safety harness fastened to the rope which prevents me from falling if I slip.

Mother: You're talking as if you've tried it before.

Elsa: I think it's time to let the cats out of the bag. I don't swim at the weekends anymore. Instead, I regularly practice highlining and I've made a great progress. That's what my coach always says. Also, I'm a member of the extreme sports organization of the city.

Mother: Gosh! I'd rather you kept on swimming. I suppose praying is the only thing I can do for you, but please, promise me to be very careful while doing it.

Elsa: Stop worrying, please. I'm not a child anymore.

Mother: Please, don't forget to check your safety harness all the time and...

Elsa: *Mommy*, feel relaxed. I've been doing this for more than a year. I'm a kind of adrenalin seeker. I love walking on that tight rope at high. Simply, I prefer highlining to swimming, OK?

Mother: What about cheating me?

Elsa: *Mom...* I'm sorry for telling you late. I just didn't want you to be on pins and needles. I'm not a beginner anymore and I'm really gifted in highlining. Maybe you'd like to come and try with me.

Mother: Oh... Never, *my dark horse*.

Listen to the dialogues and write Dialogue 1 or Dialogue 2 under the correct pictures according to speakers' likes, dislikes and preferences (Track 14).

Dialogue 1

W: *Deniz*, I've just finished reading your last poem. I'm speechless! You have a flair for writing poems and articles.

M: Happy to hear you've enjoyed it. You know my only passion is to study English literature at Cambridge. When I was ten, I could write poems for my teachers.

W: Oh, writing poems at the age of ten? I couldn't spell the words correctly until I was twelve. Ha ha ha. One day you will be able to publish a novel and it will be bestseller, I bet. Before writing a novel, why don't you build a blog? You can write your poems and articles on your blog so that everybody can read them.

M: Yeah, you're right. I've been thinking of it for a couple of months. You have good command of designing blogs. Can you give me a hand?

W: Sure. Can't wait to see it. Let's start.

Dialogue 2

M: *Mel*, I cannot believe your hobby is cooking. You've always been the odd man out. You know, I'm always a reluctant cook. I'd rather eat out than cook at home.

W: I hope you will be able to afford the luxury of eating out every day in the future. I've always cooked all my life. I simply enjoy it. When I was eight, I could cook nearly all sorts of cakes.

M: Wow! An eight-year-old chef at home? Sounds crazy! You really put your heart into it.

W: Exactly. If I look at this as a chore, I can never hope to become a good chef. I'd rather put my heart and soul into it than do it half-heartedly.

M: You're great. Have you ever thought of cooking as a hobby that makes money?

W: It sure will be more than a hobby for me. I'm planning to study gastronomic sciences in Italy.

M: Wow! I'm sure you'll be one of the most popular chefs in the world. Most probably you'll run an elegant restaurant and you'll have lots of customers.

W: And I will book a table for you in my restaurant every day. Ha ha ha.

M: Ha ha ha.

Listen to Thilda and Patrick talking about an assignment on scientist Marie Curie. Tick the information you hear about her (Track 16).

Thilda: Hi, *Partick*. What are you up to?

Patrick: Hey, *Thilda*. I'm preparing my science project. The teacher asks us to search for the Nobel Prize winning scientists.

Thilda: Who are you planning to write about?

Patrick: Marie Curie.

Thilda: Oh, I know her. She is the first woman to win the Nobel Prize. But what is so special about her?

Patrick: So, it wasn't easy for her to win that prize in those times. She had ups and downs in her life. She was born into educated parents, but they had financially hard times when she was a child. What's more, she lost her mother when she was only ten.

Thilda: Oh... That's so sad. However, that's not a reason to stop going to school.

Patrick: You're right. She wanted to specialize in science but girls weren't allowed to get university education in Poland in those years.

Thilda: How did she become a scientist then?

Patrick: She had to move to Paris with her sister Bronya. They decided to finance each other for university education. While Mary was working as a tutor to make money, Bronya was going to university. After she graduated, she supported Mary.

Thilda: So, they depended on each other and took turns to go to university.

Patrick: Exactly, Mary's suffering didn't end with this. While she was studying physics at the University, she had to fight against poor conditions and most of the time she could hardly find something to eat.

Thilda: Sounds really depressing. But as far as I know, she had a brilliant career with her husband, Pierre Curie.

Patrick: Yes, she did. When they were working together, they made amazing discoveries in their laboratory. Then they shared the 1903 Nobel Prize in physics. Unfortunately, her happiness didn't last long. Her beloved husband was killed in an accident when she was 39 with two young children.

Thilda: Oh, that's so tragic. Was she able to continue her academic studies then?

Patrick: Of course, she was an ambitious woman. Five years later she won another Nobel Prize but in chemistry this time. So that makes Mary Curie first and only woman to win the prize twice in two different fields.

Thilda: That's incredible! What a strong woman! Please tell me there's a happy ending in her life.

Patrick: Well, she exposed herself to radiation for a long time while doing her researches. She had to spend a long time in the hospital, but unfortunately, she couldn't recover from cancer.

Thilda: Oh, that's terrible, but everybody remembers her successful career.

Listen to the dialogue between Colt and his father, Steve. Put the pictures in the correct order (Track 20).

Colt: I can't stand people staring at my face, *dad*. I hate my pimples. They're so embarrassing.

Steve: Tell me about it, *son*. When I was at your age my face was full of pimples and scars. What's more I had to deal with my rude friends. Whenever they made fun of my face, I used to feel embarrassed.

Colt: Really, what did you do to get rid of your pimples?

Steve: Well, it was not very easy, of course. First of all, I thought cleaning my face more often could solve the problem, so I started to clean my face with soap five times a day.

Colt: Did it work?

Steve: Haha, of course not. It became much worse and I didn't want to walk around with the spotty face anymore. The day before our graduation party, I decided to squeeze all the pimples on my face. And guess what? I had bigger spots the next day. Haha.

Colt: Well, it is definitely something I would never do. Didn't you try any medicine?

Steve: I remember using the herbal medicine my grandmother prepared for me. I used to put it on my face before I went to bed. Unfortunately, it didn't work at all. I decided to see a dermatologist right away. So, I asked my mom to take me to a clinic. First thing that doctor advised was to be careful about what I ate. I used to eat a lot of junk food, so, I changed my eating habit.

Colt: Did the doctor also prescribe you any medication?

Steve: Yes, she did. I took my pills regularly and applied the ointment after I cleaned my face. A few months later I had a wonderful skin. Eventually, I started to feel more self-confident while I was walking along the school corridor.

Colt: Wow! That's awesome! Can we see a dermatologist tomorrow, *dad*?

Listen to the conversation with Sunay Akin and choose the correct options (Track 22).

W: Dear students, our first guest is a great writer, a poet, but at his best a storyteller. On the second day of the eleventh annual spring festival of our university a man of humanity is here with us. He will share his knowledge and experiences about achieving dreams. Welcome, *dear Sunay Akin*.

M: Thank you, I love being with young people because they're real dream followers.

W: Do you believe that dreams can come true?

M: Absolutely, I do. As Walt Disney said, "If you can dream it, you can do it". This is what I truly believe in my heart. Let's take him as an example. Walt Disney would often sell his drawings as a kid. Then he preferred to study art and photography in high school.

W: You mean success isn't a coincidence, don't you?

M: Exactly, his success was never due to luck. It was blood, sweat and tears all the way. All gifted people in history had the same treasure – their imagination. They were all curious and passionate children. They were all courageous and determined when they were young. They were all hardworking.

W: You have a long list of such people, don't you? You're really good at it.

M: Oh, here comes one for you then. This person was only a little boy when he saw his neighbor's son in his admirable military school uniform. He always wanted to be like him. A good student in a good school. Guess who?

W: Hmm... A military school, a uniform, a diligent student at school, well, they were all young Mustafa's dream, right?

M: For sure. His only treasure was not his imagination or determination. Mustafa Kemal had his books throughout his life.

W: What a life! I think the key is thinking of others, not yourself.

M: What counts is the message you leave behind you, as Rita Levi-Montalcini said. She also followed her childhood dream, to become a doctor.

W: Great people indeed! And what about you, *dear Sunay*? We all know about your open-air museum of your mother's jewelry. That gave us Istanbul Toy Museum.

M: And also, there was Neptune, a dream toy ship of five-year-old Sunay Akin in Trabzon. One day a photographer took my photo with his toy ship. I cried a lot for it,

but the photographer didn't give it to me. It had been in my little hands only for two minutes before I found another Neptune in an antique store in Germany 37 years later.
W: And today Neptune stands next to your photo in the museum as a realized childhood dream. I want to hear more about you after I announce our second guest. Here comes.

Listen to the interview with a former security consultant and choose the correct options (Track 33).

W: Cyber world's getting larger day by day. With the spread of the information technology, we come across new crimes related to it. Today, our guest is a retired security consultant. Welcome, *Jones*. What can you tell us about your former job?

M: Well, after being a hacker for a long time, I decided to give up this illegal job and started to work as a security consultant. My mission was cyber security.

W: What does that mean? Can you explain it?

M: I worked for different companies. I tested the security systems to protect all the companies' data. I checked if there was something against cyber law or not.

W: So, if you hadn't been an expert in computers, would you have succeeded in this career?

M: I don't think so. If I hadn't been experienced enough, companies wouldn't have asked for my help against cyberattacks.

W: As far as I understand, the staff worlds away of what you were actually doing at their office. Did any worker ever realize your real purpose?

M: Haha. Yeah. I once pretended to work as an IT consultant and one of the assistants wanted to see my ID card. If I hadn't prepared a fake one, I would have got caught easily.

W: Did you work alone or did you have a team?

M: I worked on my own, but I really wish I had worked with former members of the intelligence service.

W: Wasn't it risky?

M: Haha. Was it? If I hadn't carried a letter of authorization, it would have been much riskier. Luckily, I'd never needed it.

W: Any advice to the employees?

M: They shouldn't trust anyone indeed. They should be cautious with each and every email they get, even from their colleagues.

W: Oops. No friends at all. Thanks for the interview.

M: That's my pleasure.

W: Yes, we all have to be alert to the cybercrime. See you next program.

Listen to the interview with Kobe Bryant and write the years next to the events (Track 46).

A: You have a very interesting name. What does it mean? Do you want to tell us the story behind it?

B: Oh, yes. Many people are curious about it. My name comes from a Japanese steakhouse in Philadelphia. My parents loved to go there then, so they chose to call me Kobe.

A: Your father was an NBA player too, wasn't he?

B: Yes, he was. He ended his career in 1984; that's when we moved to Italy.

A: Oh, that explains why you're fluent in Italian.

B: That's correct.

A: Did you dream to be a famous NBA player like your father when you were a child?

B: Yes, of course. My father used to take me to basketball matches and we used to watch NBA games all the time. So, playing for the NBA had been my ambition since I was a little boy. I used to play soccer and basketball at school when we were in Italy, but I can say my basketball career started in 1991 in my high school basketball team after we moved back to Philadelphia.

A: Do you have an ideal? Who has inspired you the most?

B: My father was certainly my first ideal as a child and his passion for basketball inspired me a lot. Michael Jordan was another NBA player whom I admired most. I watched all the games he played.

A: Which game is unforgettable for you?

B: Each game was important, of course, but in 2006, while we were playing against Toronto Raptors, I carried the ball and scored 28 out of 46 shots. That was my highest score in a game. And it was the first and only game that my grandmother watched live.

A: You played for Los Angeles Lakers for 20 seasons. You had such a successful career. And now we see you in show business.

B: Oh, after I ended my career in 2016, I stepped into this colorful life as a screenwriter and a producer. I even wrote a poem called Dear Basketball, as you know. Haha.

A: Haha. What do you recommend to young players?

B: If they want to be successful, they must put their heart into what they want. They must work hard to improve their skills. Strengthening their weaknesses is also a must.

Listen to two friends working on a school project on friendship. Match the names with the similes as you hear them. One simile is extra (Track 54).

Phoebe: *Jamie*, guess what? I have found lots of photos for our presentation which is for the friendship day. Come and have a look.

Jamie: Good job, *Phoebe*. Wow! Henry Ford and Thomas Edison, huh? Were they really close friends? I know their great inventions, but I never heard that they had a sincere friendship.

Phoebe: You're right. They were as busy as bees with their scientific hard work which made them world famous. Actually, Henry Ford was a great fan of Edison. While he was listening to Edison at a conference, he had a chance to meet him. They had a short conversation and Edison encouraged Ford to make electric cars.

Jamie: Apparently, this little bit of advice set their friendship story, right?

Phoebe: Absolutely. The next step of their friendship was becoming neighbors. In time, they became real friends until the end of their life.

Jamie: Quite touching! Ford and Edison are the first best friends of our presentation. As the second one, why don't we take Sarah and Fatima whose friendship is the most popular in the class?

Phoebe: That's a good idea. It will be a good surprise for everyone in the class. I really admire their friendship. In spite of coming completely different cultures, they've proved everyone that real friendship exists.

Jamie: I have some photos of the girls from the end of the year party. They look as fit as a fiddle in their gorgeous evening dresses. We can use them for our presentation.

Phoebe: Look, *Jamie*. I have a photo of Sarah hugging Fatima. They both look really happy.

Jamie: Oh! What a nice smile on Sarah's face! She is as sweet as honey.

Phoebe: OK, but we need one more friendship. How about a friendship story from the TV?

Jamie: Good idea. What about Oprah Winfrey and Gale King who are famous for their TV shows?

Phoebe: Great! They are as thick as thieves. They've been close for many years. They're even the symbol of true friendship for good and bad days.

Jamie: OK, then. Now, it's time to arrange our poster.

Phoebe: Our Friendship Day presentation will be perfect.

Listen to the interview with Prof. Olsen and find out what he is talking about (Track 61).

A: Today, we have guest to discuss seven principles of the great philosopher, Mawlana Jalal al-Din Rumi. Welcome, *Professor Olsen*.

B: Thank you. It's a pleasure to talk about these golden pieces of advice. We must not only learn, but also understand and follow them to have a purpose in life.

A: Could you, please explain us in detail? What did he want to teach us with these meaningful principles?

B: First of all, when he says, "in generosity and helping other be like the river", he means helping others should be unconditional. If you give, you become the receiver in time. So, those who help others can develop love and compassion for everybody. And it is explained by the second advice: "in compassion and grace be like the Sun."

A: Oh, quite touching! The more you give, the more you take.

B: That's right. In third principle, "in concealing others' faults be like the night", he both encourages forgiveness and offers the person a fresh start. So, we need to forget our anger and hatred. Remaining calm is the meaning of the fourth principle.

A: Well, if one can forgive others, he frees himself from anger and unhappiness.

B: Exactly.

A: In his fifth principle he says in modesty and humility be like the soil. I really wonder why he mentions the soil.

B: Soil gives the life to each and every creature. You know, despite this role it is under our feet. He advises us to be modest and patient, while passing through hard times. Always have an open heart, listen to different opinions.

A: You mean we should get rid of our egos; I think.

B: Absolutely. With his sixth principle, he wants us to keep calm and tolerate others like an ocean. As you know, neither storms nor waves can cause the ocean to lose its balance.

A: What about the last principle?

B: It's about being what you are. I think it's the most important one. It tells us that we should be honest not only to the others, but also to ourselves.

A: That's the point. We all thank you.

Listen to Tanita and Kevin talking about the book *The Little Prince* and circle the correct option (Track 64).

Tanita: Do you want to hear my dirty little ever secret? Last week, I read the *Little Prince*, by Antoine de Saint-Exupery. For the first time, although it has been on my

shelf since I was eight. While reading his novella as a high school student I never felt that it was written purely for kids.

Kevin: Exactly. As a *Le Petit Prince* lover, I can say it is a multi-level book. It's great as a bedtime story for a child and a philosophical tale for an adult. Actually, I often read it again and again and take away new messages each time. I strongly believe that not only should you read books you've never read, but also you should reread books you've already read.

Tanita: I totally agree with you, *Kevin*. Moreover, it is timeless that has been passed down from generation to generation. Since it was published in 1943. Its illustrated pages have been translated into 250 languages and dialects.

Kevin: When you read the book, were you surprised to find out that it was narrated by an adult?

Tanita: I was. Even though the narrator is a grown up, he is young at heart. And though he tells us story, the star of his tale is the little prince.

Kevin: Yeah, right.

Tanita: By the way, we don't know the narrator's name or age, or even what he looks like, do we?

Kevin: No, we don't. The book doesn't include a self-portrait of him. What we know is that he is a pilot and he's forced to land his plane in the Sahara because of a problem with the engine.

Tanita: And what I got is that he isn't too fond of grown-ups. He believes that adults are obsessed with the wrong things such as facts and figures, money and ambitions. He finds it impossible to understand them and as a result, leads a lonely life.

Kevin: Also, he believes that children have a deep understanding of the truly important things in life which are imagination, beauty and friendship.

Tanita: These are just what I value the most. I strongly recommend his novella to every adult who spends too much time with numbers and rules.

Kevin: Well, *Tanita*, this book's 80 pages of magic and is full of lessons which prepare us for adulthood.

Tanita: So, this novella doesn't teach us about grown-ups, he teaches grown-ups how to be better grown-ups.

Count Me In 12 Student's Book Dialogues

Read the dialogue and find out what impacts Alex and Luke's choices in music (p. 13, Reading Text)

Alex: What's that song you are humming, *Luke*?

Luke: I don't know, yet. I just heard part of it while driving to work in the morning and it's been an earworm since then.

Alex: I wish you knew the singer.

Luke: Why?

Alex: I am making a mix-tape for the car, and perhaps I could add that. The lyrics are nice.

Luke: What genre of music will you include?

Alex: There is nothing special in my mind.

Luke: If you ask me, you should focus on light instrumental music with slow tempo.

Alex: Why do you think that?

Luke: For you to remain calm during the drive and long journeys.

Alex: Come on! I completely disagree with you. If you listen to music of that kind all the time, you may feel sleepy because you will relax too much. In my opinion, drivers should listen to various types of music with different tempos. I prefer listening to raucous music such as rock.

Luke: According to the research, listening to raucous music alone may distract the driver's attention and cause sleepiness.

Alex: Do you mean your music choices are based on scientific reasons?

Luke: No, not all the time. I suppose, it is melodies that make a piece sound good or bad to someone. Lyrics matter as well. What impacts your preferences in music?

Alex: It depends. I tend to agree with you, at this point. Sometimes it's the voice of the singer, sometimes the lyrics or the tune.

Luke: That's right. What do you think about rap?

Alex: Well, personally I don't like it because the speech like lyrics may fail to go with the harmony. I'd rather listen to country than rap. Don't you think it's so?

Luke: I agree with you to a large extent, but remember that there are millions who love it.

Alex: That's right. One's meat is other's poison. We have to respect each other's choices.

Work in pairs. Exchange your ideas about your music preferences in a dialogue as in the example and share them with your friends (p. 14, Reading Text).

Jenny: What kind of music do you usually listen to?

Tom: Well, I prefer jazz.

Jenny: What do you like about it?

Tom: I love relaxing and down tempo music. What about you? What are your preferences?

Jenny: Rrr... I like rock because it is lively and makes me feel dynamic.

Tom: ...

Read the dialogues and find out how many different ways of making requests David uses to convince uneager Kevin to help with homework (p. 59).

David: Good afternoon, *Kevin*. How is that summary coming along? Would you mind sending it to me when it's finished?

Kevin: Yeah, sure. I can do that.

... a few days later

David: So, *Kevin*, is there any chance you could send me that summary you've been promising me?

Kevin: OK. I'll do my best.

... the next day

David: Well, *Kevin*. Are you OK to send that summary to me soon?

Kevin: Yeah, sure.

... a couple of hours later

David: So, *Kevin*, that summary we were talking about earlier, I'd appreciate it if you could send it over to me.

Kevin: I'll try.

... an hour later

David: So, *Kevin*, if you could send me that summary before the deadline, that would be really great.

Kevin: Right, I'll do my best.

Listen to the dialogue between Helen and Sarah and complete the missing parts (Tapescript 6.3).

Helen: Hi *Sarah*. I've got a favor to ask. Would you mind cooking dinner tonight? I will stay late at work.

Sarah: Sure, *Helen*. What would you like?

Helen: Could I trouble you to make some soup?

Sarah: That sounds good. Let's eat delicious soup tonight. What kind of soup should I cook?

Helen: Would it be too much trouble for you to cook tomato soup?

Sarah: No, that's easy. Yummy. Good idea.

Helen: Thanks, *Sarah*. That really helps me out.

Sarah: No problem. It would be my pleasure.

Read the dialogue between Jennifer and Kate and find out what kind of a favor Kate asks Jennifer to do (p. 64).

Kate: Oh, hi, *Jennifer*, how are you doing?

Jennifer: Hi, *Kate*. I'm fine.

Kate: Um... *Jennifer*, have you got a minute?

Jennifer: Yeah, sure.

Kate: I'm not disturbing you, am I?

Jennifer: No, no, no.

Kate: OK. I don't know if I told you that I'm going on holiday next week for a couple of weeks.

Jennifer: Oh, cool. That's very nice.

Kate: Yes, and I was wondering if I could ask you a big favor.

Jennifer: Of course, what is that?

Kate: Would you mind watering my plants while I'm away?

Jennifer: Yeah, that's fine. Sure.

Kate: Ah, *sweetheart*. Thank you so much.

Listen to three different dialogues about favors and decide whether the expressions of accepting and refusing are formal or informal (Tapescript 6.5).

Dialogue 1

Male: Hey, *Susan*. Could you do me a favor and help with this homework?

Susan: I'd be glad to help out. What is it?

Male: I cannot solve this problem. Would you mind explaining it to me?

Susan: Sure, I'll do my best.

Male: Thank you in advance.

Dialogue 2

John: Hi, *Sally*. Would you do me a favor? I need some help.

Sally: Sure, *John*. What do you want?

John: You're very good at English. Could you check my draft and correct my grammar mistakes?

Sally: Err ee... I'm sorry, *John*, but I cannot. This is your assignment and you should do it on your own.

Dialogue 3

Jack: Hey, *Sam*. Could you do me a massive favor?

Sam: I'm not sure, *Jack*. What is that?

Jack: Would you mind lending me some money?

Sam: Yes, I would, *Jack*. Unfortunately, I cannot lend you some money anymore.

Listen to the dialogue and note down the solutions to the given problems of excessive energy consumption (Tapescript 8.1).

Son: Mom, have you ever heard the term 'vampire power'?

Mother: No, what is it? Is it a horror film?

Son: No, mom, my science project. It's about overuse of energy. I've been reading an article. Scientists warn people of excessive energy consumption. They say our televisions, printers and all other electrical outlets continue to use energy even when off.

Mother: How come they work when off? What should we do then?

Son: They withdraw a small amount of energy just by being plugged in. Just unplug when you're done with them.

Mother: Now, I see the reason for our high electricity bills. It's taking a bite out of our wallet. That must be the reason why it is called vampire.

Son: Absolutely.

Mother: Don't get me wrong *dear*, but in order to help with our budget you must initially unplug your mobile phone charger then. I never see it unplugged. Don't you think so?

Son: Come on, mom. You're exaggerating. It cannot be the only reason for high electricity bills.

Mother: OK, OK, just kidding, *honey*. What can be done individually? What are the other things we should focus on? Any recommendations?

Son: People should be more concerned and sensitive about their energy consumptions to care about the environment. It has a role in increasing or reducing our carbon footprints.

Mother: Carbon footprint? What do you mean?

Son: Another big problem. Harmful carbon-based emissions at a particular time from a product or activity. I mean they must be at way much lower levels than they are.

Read the dialogue between Susan and Henry and answer the questions (p. 87).

Susan: *Henry*! Have you noticed the trouble?

Henry: The trouble? What do you mean?

Susan: The study is in a complete mess... Like a China shop. But that is not all. I've told you many times and telling once more. The lock is out of order. You should get it repaired, immediately.

Henry: Come on, *Susan*! Don't exaggerate. I just haven't had time. Anyway, I won't get it repaired. I'll fix it myself. I'll just replace the lock set.

Susan: The earlier you do it, the less damage we will suffer.

Henry: What do you mean by damage?

Susan: While we were in the living room with Candy yesterday evening, her son Eric got out of sight. He must have gone into the study. I found the tablet PC with its screen cracked.

Henry: Oh, my! Cracked screens can't be repaired. It needs changing.

Susan: Can you do it on your own?

Henry: Indeed, I can. But ordering the screen, waiting for the delivery may take a couple of days. We should have it changed by a professional.

Susan: Does anyone do it in town?

Henry: John. He runs the electronics store on the corner of Lily Street. I'll have him change it tomorrow if he has time.

Susan: That'll be great. And don't forget to have a locksmith repair the lock as well.

Henry: Come on, *Susan*. I'll repair it myself.

Mary is talking to her husband Robert about the household repairs and Robert is taking notes. Listen and complete the to-do list about the everyday equipment for Robert (Tapescript 9.1).

Mary: We cannot lock this room. The lock set needs changing.

Robert: OK, *dear*. I'll get it changed.

Mary: And these chairs, honey. We cannot sit on them because they are not steady.

Robert: Mm...we should get them repaired.

Mary: And we have a leaky faucet here.

Robert: Oh, I can't do it on my own. I'll have a plumber to fix it. We must get it replaced. What's next, *honey*?

Mary: Come on, *Robert*. I'm just telling you about the problems at home. Here comes the last thing. Linda's computer needs formatting.

Robert: No worries, *dear*. That's not a serious problem. I'll get it formatted.

Mary: That's great.

Read the conversation and answer the questions (p. 91).

Robert: *Tiffany*, I've had to deal with a lot of repairs these days. Both at home and in the office. It's been tiring.

Tiffany: You are right *Robert*. I think that's partly because the gadgets in the office are past their primes. They are a bit old.

Robert: Yeah. They have malfunctions often, and it adds to office expenditures. We ought to get new ones for economy, and comfort.

Tiffany: Perhaps we should adopt smart technologies.

Robert: You hit the nail on the head. There are smart devices for almost any office work, from security to cleaning, from air conditioning to presentations. I've read an article about the newest innovations.

Tiffany: Did anything grab your attention?

Robert: Yes, a smart security camera. I'm fond of them. It can identify human beings, recognize their faces and even alert you via your phone.

Tiffany: Come on! It makes no difference to me. The building already has tight security.

Robert: That's right. Men are more interested in these kinds of things. Security issues, I mean.

Tiffany: I noticed the other day that the sanitary staff are having difficulty with this vacuum cleaner.

Robert: The robot vacuum. We can get one. It'll ease up everything for them. It cleans better and allows you to control it remotely.

Tiffany: Hooray! Excellent.

Robert: And, one more. That's revolutionary.

Tiffany: What is that?

Robert: Interactive touch-screen projector. It turns any surface into an interactive touchscreen.

Tiffany: Are you serious? You are kidding!

Robert: I am serious *Tiffany*. The incredible has come true.

Listen to the dialogue between Robert and Jason, then tick the phrases you hear in each category (Tapescript 10.1).

Robert: Hello, it's Robert's speaking. Can I speak to Jason?

Jason: Hi, *Robert*. It's me, Jason. Are you feeling better today?

Robert: Yeah, thank you for your interest. I just want to apologize for last night. I shouldn't have behaved so rude. You know, I was really sad and sought somebody to put the blame on.

Jason: Well, don't worry. I wish Judy had told you about it before.

Robert: You're right. She should've told me before, but it was my fault. I'm terribly sorry. I didn't mean to hurt you. Please, accept my apology.

Jason: Don't mind. We're buddies, you know? Your apology will be accepted, but first you have to speak to Judy about last night.

Listen to Michelle and Kevin talking about manners of different cultures. Fill in the table by putting a tick into the correct box related to their country of origin and everyday practices (Tapescript 10.3).

Kevin: Well guys, today, Michelle will share some interesting manners of the countries she has been before. Are you ready? Shall we start?

Michelle: Yeah, I'm ready. Let's start with China. Chinese culture is so unique.

Kevin: Exactly, you're right *Michelle*. Especially their eating manners. They use chopsticks for all meals, which is very challenging for a stranger.

Michelle: Yeah, those chopsticks. I know I know, and they had been my trouble during my first visit. I can't forget my hosts bulging eyes staring at me. Everybody, watch out

your manners while using those chopsticks at the table, don't tap your chopsticks on the table, never and ever. It's such a bad manner for them.

Kevin: What about eating manners in India? What comes to your mind when I say India to you?

Michelle: Well, it's being the experience of my lifetime. Do you know they rarely use the utensils? It was too difficult for me to eat as the way they do. Let's warn our audience from here. You should use your first three fingers and the thumb while eating in India. But what's so interesting was that we flew to Brazil immediately after visiting India and do you know what? You should use a knife and a fork for everything on the table, even for fruit in Brazil. I needed some time to adapt after that India experience.

Kevin: That sounds really interesting, *Michelle*. What about body language in those countries? Have you noticed any manner differences during your travel?

Michelle: Of course, *Kevin*. There were great differences. For example, Chinese people don't like being touched. So, you shouldn't touch, hug, back slap or make anybody contact with them whereas in Brazil, touching arms, elbows and back is very common and acceptable among people. Similar to Chinese people, Indians value the personal space. Thus, you shouldn't stand close to them.

Kevin: Thank you for this valuable sharing, *Michelle*. Let's talk about other manner differences of these countries in our next program.

Appendix 2

The Data Collection Instrument

№:			
<i>Interlocutors</i>	S		H
Gender			
Social identity			
Speech situation			
Speech event			
Speech act			
Vertical Distance	S		H
Horizontal Distance			
Cost/Benefit			
Rights/Obligations			
Self vs. Other T.			
Address Form			

CURRICULUM VITAE

Ahmet Can UYAR graduated from Kızılırmak Anatolian Teacher Training High School in 2015. Following high school education, he studied English Language Teaching at Ondokuz Mayıs University. After receiving his bachelor's degree in 2019, he started studying for a master's degree in English Language Teaching at Ondokuz Mayıs University. Throughout his graduate studies, he participated in a number of conferences and seminars related to the field. His research areas are communicative language teaching, second language acquisition, sociolinguistics, and pragmatics. Currently, he teaches English at a secondary school in Turkey.

Contact Information:

ORCID ID: 0000-0003-2438-9877

Publications:

1. Uyar, A. C. (2019). A Comparative Study on Polar Questions in Turkish and English: Realizing the Dichotomy While Teaching. *Journal of Language Research (JLR)*, 3(1), 26-37.
2. Büyükahıska, D. & Uyar, A. C. (2019). The Effects of Different Accents on Listening Comprehension in EFL Classes. *OPUS Uluslararası Toplum Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 14(20), 1369-1394.