AN INTERLANGUAGE PRAGMATIC STUDY OF THAI EFL LEARNERS' APOLOGY: LINGUISTIC REALIZATION AND METAPRAGMATIC AWARENESS

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การศึกษาวัจนปฏิบัติภาษาในระหว่างการขอโทษของผู้เรียนชาวไทยที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ: รูปแบบภาษาศาสตร์และความตระหนักเชิงอภิวัจนปฏิบัติภาษาศาสตร์

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งานวิจัยนี้ศึกษาการขอโทษและความตระหนักทางอภิวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในผู้เรียนชาวไทยที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศในเชิงวัจนปฏิบัติภาษาในระหว่าง โดยมีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษาผลของระดับความสามารถและประสบการณ์ภาษาอังกฤษของผู้เรียนที่มีต่อความสามารถในการใช้กลวิธีในการสื่อความหมาย กลุ่มตัวอย่าง 6 กลุ่ม ประกอบด้วยผู้พูดชาวอังกฤษ ผู้พูดชาวไทย และผู้เรียนชาวไทยที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศที่แบ่งเป็น 4 กลุ่มตามระดับความสามารถและประสบการณ์ภาษาอังกฤษ ผลการวิจัยพบว่ามีกลวิธีการขอโทษ 3 แบบที่พบในกลุ่มตัวอย่างทุกกลุ่ม คือ การกล่าวคำแสดงเจตนาในการขอโทษ การแสดงความรับผิดชอบโดยการยอมรับความจริง และการเสนอชดใช้ แต่การเลือกใช้กลวิธีการขอโทษของแต่ละกลุ่มตัวอย่างจะแตกต่างกันไปโดยขึ้นอยู่กับตัวแปรในแต่ละสถานการณ์ ซึ่งชี้ให้เห็นว่าความแตกต่างในด้านการรับรู้ตัวแปรต่างๆและระดับความสามารถและประสบการณ์ภาษาอังกฤษที่ต่างกันมีผลต่อการเลือกใช้กลวิธีในการขอโทษ นอกจากนี้ ผลการวิจัยพบว่าในกลุ่มผู้เรียนชาวไทยมีระดับความตระหนักทางอภิวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ที่ต่างกัน ผู้เรียนที่มีระดับความสามารถและประสบการณ์ภาษาอังกฤษสูงมีระดับความตระหนักทางอภิวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์สูง ส่วนผู้เรียนที่ระดับความสามารถสูงแต่ประสบการณ์ภาษาอังกฤษต่ำมีระดับความตระหนักทางอภิวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์สูงกว่าผู้เรียนที่ระดับความสามารถต่ำแต่ประสบการณ์ภาษาอังกฤษสูง ผลการวิจัยชี้ให้เห็นว่าระดับความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษสูงหรือระดับประสบการณ์ภาษาอังกฤษสูงเพียงอย่างเดียวไม่พอสำหรับการเสริมสร้างระดับความตระหนักทางอภิวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ แต่ทั้งสองอย่างนี้เป็นปัจจัยสำคัญในการพัฒนาระดับความตระหนักทางอภิวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในหมู่ผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษ

Chulalongkorn University

สาขาวิชา ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษานานาชาติ ลายมือชื่อนิสิต .....

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ATINUCH PIN-NGERN: AN INTERLANGUAGE PRAGMATIC STUDY OF THAI EFL LEARNERS' APOLOGY: LINGUISTIC REALIZATION AND METAPRAGMATIC AWARENESS. ADVISOR: ASST. PROF. JIRANTHARA SRIOUTAI, Ph.D., 220 pp.

This study investigates the Thai EFL learners' apologies and metapragmatic awareness in university contexts in interlanguage pragmatic perspectives. The research aims to investigate the effects of English language proficiency and experience on the Thai EFL learners' pragmatic competence. The subjects consisted of six groups: native speakers of English (NE) and Thai (NT) and four groups of Thai EFL learners whose levels of English proficiency and experience differed. The results revealed that there were three apology strategies commonly found among the six groups of subjects: explicit display of an apology, expression of responsibility by admitting facts and offer of repair. The selection of apology strategies, however, differed depending on the situational variables, which suggests that different perceptions of such variables as well as different levels of English proficiency and experience can affect the selection of apology strategies among the subjects. It is also found that different levels of metapragmatic awareness could be observed among the four groups of Thai EFL learners. The Thai EFL learners with high English proficiency and experience demonstrated the highest level of metapragmatic awareness. Those with high English proficiency and low experience exhibited the higher level of metapragmatic awareness than those with low English proficiency and high Experience. The findings suggest that (1) the high level of English proficiency or the high level of English experience alone is not sufficient for enhancing metapragmatic awareness; and (2) English proficiency and experience are important factors in developing metapragmatic awareness among the English language learners.

Field of Study:	English as an International Language	Student's Signature	.....
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

1sg	first person singular gender-neutral pronoun
1Msg	first person singular masculine pronoun
1Fsg	first person singular feminine pronoun
1pl	first person plural gender-neutral pronoun
2Msg	second person singular masculine pronoun
3sg	third-person gender-neutral pronoun
ADV	adverb
ASP	aspect auxiliary
COMP	complementizer
LP	linking particle
MOD	modal
NEG	negative marker
OS	older sibling
PASS	passive
PFX	prefix
PP	pragmatic particle
YS	younger sibling

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

To date, many models of communicative competence in language learning have been proposed. According to Hymes (1972), language ability consists of knowledge of a language and the ability to communicate. In view of Canale and Swain (1980), communicative competence is the interaction of grammatical competence (i.e. knowledge of linguistic rules in a language), sociolinguistic competence (or knowledge of language use in society), and strategic competence (knowledge of handling communication problems). Canale (1983) further proposes an additional category, 'discourse competence', in the model, to refer to the ability to use language cohesively and coherently in discourse. Canale (1983) views that the four types of competences (grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic and discourse) are all important in communicating. In Bachman's model of communicative language ability (1990), there are two components in language competence: organizational competence and pragmatic competence. Organizational competence refers to the language user's knowledge of a language in grammatical and textual aspects. Pragmatic competence deals with (1) illocutionary competence or the competence to convey communicative acts and relational or interpersonal meanings and (2) sociolinguistic competence or the social perceptions underlying participants' interpretation and performance of a communicative action.

Similar to Bachman (1990), Bachman and Palmer (1996) propose that pragmatic competence, or pragmatic knowledge, is part of language knowledge and

claim that, apart from linguistic knowledge of a language, language learners should know how utterances and texts are related to (1) the communicative goals of the language user (i.e. functional knowledge) and (2) the features of the language use setting (i.e. sociolinguistic knowledge). In other words, to know a language, language users need to know how to communicate effectively as well.

What is shared among these models is the main components of communicative competence: (1) linguistic competence or the language user's knowledge of phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics of a language; and (2) pragmatic competence or a language user's ability to use language appropriately in particular contexts.

Based on the proposed models of communicative competence, it is inevitable that both linguistic competence and pragmatic competence are important in language learning. Language learners need to develop their knowledge linguistically and pragmatically along with the process of their target language learning.

Focusing on pragmatic competence, it can be seen that pragmatic competence as in Bachman (1990) and Bachman and Palmer (1996) and sociolinguistic competence as in Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) share some similarities in that all indicate the relationship between the language user and the awareness of appropriate language use in a given context, taking into consideration the situational and contextual variables when communicating. This study adopts the notion of pragmatic competence, proposed by Bachman (1990), and focuses on both the speaker's ability to convey the intended meanings through linguistic means and the ability to understand and interpret the underlying meanings in communicative contexts.

In order to avoid miscommunication, language learners need to improve both their linguistic competence as well as pragmatic competence. However, in reality, advanced EFL learners may encounter difficulties in using appropriate language in a given context, resulting in pragmatic failure and potentially leading to miscommunication. This kind of failure is the result of the speaker applying one cultural norm in the context in which such cultural norm is considered inappropriate (Riley 1989).

In order to investigate language learners' pragmatic knowledge, the study of Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP) comes into play. ILP provides an insight into the language of the language learners when communicating in the target language. Two areas of ILP research include pragmatic production and pragmatic perception. For the study of pragmatic production, the main emphasis is on learners' linguistic realization in the target language. In other words, it focuses on how the learners perform speech acts using different linguistic forms in the target language. For the study of pragmatic perception, the research interest is placed on the assessment of learners' pragmatic awareness, which reveals learners' understanding and perception of the illocutionary forces of speech acts performed.

An apology is one of speech acts commonly used in everyday interactions. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), an apology speech act is a face threatening act that threatens the speaker's positive face (p. 68). Leech (2005) views an apology as the act in which the speaker "places a high value on his or her obligation to the other person" (p. 15). Falling under Searl's (1976; 1979, as cited in Bataineh (2004) expressive category of speech acts, an apology is the act of remedying interchanges

used to maintain the harmony after an offence, which may vary across cultures and can be influenced by social or situational factors.

In both Thai and English, an apology can be performed in many ways via different apology strategies. For example, while the IFIDs for explicit apologies in English can be realized as ‘I’m sorry’, ‘I apologize’, and ‘Please forgive me’, with some adverbial intensifiers added (e.g. really, terribly, or extremely), there are different realizations of explicit apologies or illocutionary force indicating devices (IFIDs). For instance, the IFIDs for apologies in Thai can be realized as follows:

(1) ผมขอโทษ

pʰŏm kʰɔ̌:tʰô:t̚

1Msg apologize

I apologize.

(2) โทษที

tʰô:t̚ tʰi:

apologize time

I apologize.

or (3) ขออภัย

kʰɔ̌: apai

beg forgiveness

Forgive me.

Differences in apologetic forms and patterns in the two different languages can be problematic to Thai learners of English when interacting with speakers of other languages using the target language.

Based on the fact that the apology speech act is complex within a language and across languages, language learners may find it difficult to offer an apology. As mentioned above, the realizations of IFIDs for an apology in Thai and English are different. It is possible that their Thai language knowledge as well as the Thai social norms may influence Thai EFL learners in their production of an apology in English. In order to maintain social harmony, it is essential that Thai EFL learners be aware of differences in the realization of apology strategies in both Thai and English as well as the appropriate use of such linguistic forms in the contexts.

From previous literature, most interlanguage pragmatic studies concern the effect of English language proficiency on speech act performance, while less attention is paid on other factors such as learners' individual differences and learning environment, which also play an important role in the development of pragmatic knowledge (Kasper and Rose 2002). To the best of my knowledge, speech acts in many Asian languages (especially, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean) have received much more attention in both cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatic research than Thai. To date, there are two interlanguage pragmatic studies investigating apology speech acts among Thai learners of English conducted by (Bergman M.L. and Kasper 1993) and (Thijittang 2010). However, neither of them have taken both English language proficiency as well as English language experience, gained from English language learning environment, into consideration.

The major goal of this study is to investigate whether differences in both language proficiency and experience in the target language would contribute to differences in language learners' pragmatic production and perception of the apology speech act. In other words, this study attempts to bridge the research gap by

investigating both areas of ILP research: the linguistic realization of apology strategies in English and the metapragmatic awareness of Thai EFL learners who have different levels of English language proficiency and experience.

1.2 Research questions

In this study, there are three research questions as follows:

1. How are the apology offerings of Thai EFL learners similar to or different from those of the native speakers of Thai and the native speakers of English?

2. How are the linguistic realizations of an apology made by Thai EFL learners who have different levels of English language proficiency and experience similar or different?

3. To what extent does the metapragmatic awareness of Thai EFL learners who have different levels of English language proficiency and experience converge or diverge?

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1.3 Objectives of the study

This study attempts to achieve the following objectives:

1. To investigate the similarities and differences in apology offerings among Thai EFL learners, native speakers of Thai and native speakers of English;

2. To examine the linguistic realizations of an apology made by Thai EFL learners who have different levels of English language proficiency and experience; and

3. To assess the metapragmatic awareness of Thai EFL learners who have different levels of English language proficiency and experience.

1.4 Statements of hypotheses

The proposed hypotheses of this study are as follows:

1. The apology offerings among Thai EFL learners, native speakers of Thai and native speakers of English are similar in terms of strategy choices but different in terms of linguistic realizations;

2. The linguistic realizations of an apology made by Thai EFL with different levels of English language proficiency and experience differ in terms of the complexity and variety of structures in each strategy choice;

3. Differences in the metapragmatic awareness of Thai EFL learners who have different levels of English language proficiency and experience can be observed.

1.5 Scope of the study

The participants in this study were university students, consisting of 20 native speakers of Thai (TH-NS), 20 native speakers of Australian English (AUS-NS), 10 Thai learners of English with high English language proficiency and high English language experience (HH), 10 Thai learners of English with high English language proficiency and low English language experience (HL), 10 Thai learners of English with low English language proficiency and high English language experience (LH); and 10 Thai learners of English with low English language proficiency and experience (LL).

1.6 Limitations of the study

The limitations of this study are as follows:

1. The participants in this study were small groups of representatives from two language groups, Thai and English. The Thai participants included one group of native

Thais and four groups of Thai learners of English. The English participants were native English speakers. Moreover, during the period of data collection, they were university students at the age of 18 to 24 from both genders. Therefore, the results of this study cannot be generalized to other groups of language users.

2. Regarding the methodology, this study aims to elicit Thai EFL learners' pragmatic knowledge using an oral discourse completion task (DCT) and a pragmatic judgment task with hypothetical scenarios. The twelve situations in the oral DCT and the pragmatic judgment task were designed to serve the purposes of this study, which focus only on certain situational variables (namely, social distance between the speaker and the hearer, relative power of the hearer over the speaker, and degree of severity of the offences) and only in university contexts.

3. The oral DCT data were collected using a video recorder for the native speakers of Thai and the Thai EFL learners while the data from the native speakers of English were collected using a tape-recorder. The difference in recording tools was due to the fact that, based on the nature of the data intended to collect and the privacy of the subjects, the research ethics committee at Macquire University, Australia, considered using a video recorder unnecessary. For this reason, the researcher was allowed to use a tape-recorder to collect the oral DCT data from the native speakers of English. Although a tape recorder and a video recorder were used when collecting apology production data, elements such as pausing, hesitation, and nonverbal cues (such as gesture and facial expressions) were not investigated.

1.7 Definition of terms

1. Pragmatic knowledge refers to the part of language knowledge which deals with how speakers of a language can use utterances to achieve communicative purposes effectively in appropriate contexts;

2. Apology strategies refer to the use of words, phrases, or sentences, by a speaker in order to perform an apology speech act, with the purpose to remedy the previously occurring situation in which the speaker has offended the hearer;

3. Linguistic realization refers to the use of specific linguistic features in written or spoken forms in a specific situation.

4. Metapragmatic awareness refers to the conscious awareness of contextual or cultural factors of either the native or the target language that affect the production as well as the perception of speech acts.

5. Language experience refers to the degree in which language learners are exposed to the target language, whether by formal or informal education inside and outside classrooms, including leisure activities engaged in the target language, the experience in the countries using the target language, and the total time in which the learners are exposed to the target language; and

6. Situational variables refer to relative power of the hearer over the speaker, social distance between the speaker and the hearer, degree of severity of the offences, and the speaker's obligation to apologize, which can influence the speaker's choices of apology strategies.

1.8 Significance of the study

1. This study compares apology strategies employed by Thai EFL learners with different levels of English language proficiency and experience in comparison with two groups of English and Thai native speakers. The findings would benefit the field of interlanguage pragmatics in that it highlights the importance of language experience in the development of language learners' pragmatic competence.

2. This study provides the findings on how Thai EFL learners and native speakers of English and Thai apologize in university contexts. Such findings offer insight into apology behaviors as the way in which each group of participants employed different apology strategies in different situations. The results will be of help for further research in both interlanguage and cross-cultural perspectives.

1.9 Overview of the dissertation

There are seven chapters in this dissertation. In Chapter 1, an introduction, which also includes research questions, objectives and hypotheses are provided. Scope of the study, limitations of the study, definition of terms and significance of the study are also presented. Chapter 2 provides some theoretical background and previous studies related to the study. Research methodology is described in Chapter 3, with details on populations and samples, research instruments, data collection and data analysis. Chapters 4, 5 and 6 report the study's findings on the assessment of situational variables, the native norms of apologies and the interlanguage pragmatic of Thai EFL learners' apologies, respectively. The dissertation ends with Chapter 7, summarizing the main findings and topics for further research.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter provides theoretical background and related studies in interlanguage pragmatic perspectives. For theoretical background, Speech act theory and an apology speech act are presented, followed by classification of apology strategies. Subsequently, topics in interlanguage pragmatics, including communicative competence, linguistic politeness, pragmatic transfer, metapragmatic awareness, variables in the study of interlanguage pragmatics and methodological issues in interlanguage pragmatics, are presented. The chapter ends with review of related studies of Thai apologies, interlanguage apologies, pragmatic transfer and metapragmatic awareness.

2.1 Theoretical background

Theoretical background related to the present study is presented. Speech act theory and an apology speech act are reviewed, followed by topics related to interlanguage pragmatics.

2.1.1 Speech act theory and apology speech act

This section first provides a general view on Speech act theory. Subsequently, an apology speech act, which is the speech act under investigation, is discussed. This section ends with classification of apology strategies.

2.1.1.1 Speech act theory

Speech acts, in Austin's view (Austin 1962), are defined as the acts performed by utterances, or performatives or action-accomplishing use of certain language formulae, as opposed to constatives or the propositions or statements for which their truth value can be assigned. In short, performatives can be used to do or perform things (e.g. pronounce, promise, apologize) while constatives are used to make statements (Huang 2007). According to Austin (1962), speech acts convey the meanings that carry illocutionary force and these meanings are frequently conveyed in non-natural or implicit ways, as cited in Grundy (1995).

Performatives can be further divided into explicit performatives and implicit performatives. The former are those utterances with a performative verb showing explicitly the action to be performed (e.g. I apologize for the inconvenience) whereas the latter are those without a performative verb (e.g. I hope this inconvenience does not cause you much trouble).

According to Austin (1962), there are three aspects of the speech act performed:

1. *Locutionary act* or the act of speaking with unambiguous meaning, using linguistic expressions e.g. "*I'm cold*";

2. *Illocutionary act* or the act of speaking with the intention or the purpose in mind e.g. when uttering "*I'm cold*", the speaker has an intention to ask the hearer to turn off the air-conditioner; and

3. *Perlocution act* or the act which has the effect of the utterances based on the speaker's intention e.g. the hearer turns off the air-conditioner after hearing the speaker says "*I'm cold*".

According to Austin, speech acts will work if they meet “felicity conditions” or the conditions which enable the performative utterances to work or perform actions appropriately. There are three types of felicity conditions (Austin, 1975, p. 14-15, as cited in Huang, 2007, p. 99) as follows:

1. (a) There must be a conventional procedure having a conventional effect.

   (b) The circumstances and persons must be appropriate, as specified in the procedure.

2. The procedure must be executed (a) correctly and (b) completely.

3. Often

   (a) the persons must have the requisite thoughts, feelings and intentions, as specified in the procedure, and

   (b) If consequent conduct is specified, then the relevant parties must so do.

If any of such conditions are violated, the performative is thus infelicitous. Violation of Condition (1) is described as “misfire” while violation of (2) is considered as “uptake”, causing a misfire. Moreover, if condition (3) is not observed; that is, “the act is not sincerely performed” (Saeed 2009), p. 236), it is described as an “abuse”.

Well-known types of speech acts are proposed by Austin (1962) and Searle (1976, as cited in Bataineh (2004), and Huang (2007). Austin’s speech act categories include:

1. *Verdictives* or the act performed by the speaker in order to state or declare facts and values, or give a verdict;

2. *Exercitives* or the act performed in order to give a decision for or against an action, thing or person;

3. *Commissives* or the act performed in order to commit oneself to a course of

action, e.g. promise or undertake;

4. *Expositives* or the act performed in order to explain his opinions and make an argument or a conversation; and

5. *Behabitives* or the act which shows the speaker's reaction, ideas, or attitudes to others' behaviors or ideas.

Criticizing that Austin's speech act categories are in fact the categories of performative verbs, Searle (1976; 1979, as cited in Bataineh, 2004) proposes his own categories of speech acts based on the illocutionary point and expressed psychological state of the speaker as follows:

1. Representatives or the speech acts performed to show the speaker's commission to the truth of the utterances, e.g. assertion, claim, conclusion, report and statement (originally constatives in Austin's view);

2. Commissives or the speech acts performed to show the speaker's commission to a course of action in the future, e.g. offering, refusal, pledge, promising and threatening;

3. Directives or the speech acts performed with the aim to make the hearer perform an action, e.g. giving a command or an order, giving advice, questioning and making a request;

4. Declarations or the speech acts performed to cause a change in the state of affair or the status of the addressee, e.g. excommunicating, declaring, appointing, pronouncing marriage, arresting and announcing; and

5. Expressives or the speech acts performed in order to show the speaker's psychological state or attitude, e.g. apologizing, congratulating, blaming, praising, thanking and greeting.

Speech act theory provides theoretical background for this study with the main focus on the illocutionary act when performing apology speech acts. In interlanguage perspectives, the theory allows observation on the language learners' speech act performance, especially when the learners use the target language linguistic forms to convey illocutionary meaning. In the next section, a review of apology speech acts is presented.

2.1.1.2 Apology speech acts

An apology is an expressive speech act used to signal the speaker's attitude after committing an offence to the hearer. In view of Bergman and Kasper (1993), an apology occurs after an act of offending. It is used to refer back to an event that constitutes norm violation in which the person who is responsible for the event is the speaker. In other words, the act of apology is "the compensatory action to an offense in the doing of which the speaker was causally involved and which is costly to the hearer" (Bergman and Kasper, 1993, p. 82).

An apology helps remedy the conflict between the speaker and the hearer after the offence or wrongdoing. According to Olshtain and Cohen (1983), the hearer expects an apology from the speaker when the speaker violates social norms. It is clear that an apology functions as maintaining relationship among members of a society. In other words, an apology serves as a social lubricant to keep the conversation smooth and maintain social harmony. There are several occasions on which an apology is required. For example, Bill Clinton was asked to offer a public apology for his scandal with Monica Lewinski in 1999. This illustrates the function of apology: to show that the speaker is regretful or admits that he or she has done something that offends the hearer.

It also shows that even people of high social status need to apologize when they have done things that cause dissatisfaction to the hearers.

An apology is considered one of the speech acts that are rather complex. When offering an apology, the speaker is aware of the humiliation made upon himself (Thijittang, 2010). An apology is offered after the act of offending the hearer and the speaker admits violating social norms and offending the hearer (Blum-kulka and Olshtain 1984). Hence, an apology is the post act offered in order to please the hearer. Based on Brown and Levinson's approach to linguistic politeness (1987, p. 68), an apology is an act that threatens the speaker's positive face. By offering apologies, the face threatening behaviors are redressed and the hearer's need not to be offended is acknowledged. According to Leech (1983), offering apologies places the benefit on the hearer and is at cost to the speaker, with the goal to restore relationship between the speaker and the hearer. It can be seen that an apology is very important in maintaining the relationship between the speaker and the hearer. Without apologies, misunderstanding may arise, leading to potential conflicts.

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), social factors: namely, the social distance between the speaker and the hearer, the power of the hearer over the speaker, and the severity of the offence; play an important role when apologizing. If the offence is rather serious and the offended party's social status is higher, only an explicit expression of apology, e.g. '*I'm sorry*', may be insufficient. More explanations to show that the speaker is aware of his wrongdoing are needed in order to please the hearer. In order to make an apology effective and fulfill its function, the speaker requires full understanding of not only its appropriate usage but also its linguistic realizations.

According to Bonvillain (2003), apologies can be expressed in many ways through linguistic formulae, such as, "*I'm sorry*", "*Sorry*" or "*I apologize*". To express an apology, the speaker is required to know not only the linguistic but also social rules to serve the purpose of offering an apology, which is to maintain a good relationship between the speaker and the hearer.

Goffman (1971, as cited in Bergman and Kasper, 1993), who views apology as "remedial interchanges, remedial work serving to re-establish social harmony after a real or virtual offense" (p. 82), divided an apology into a ritualistic apology and a substantive apology. A ritualistic apology is used to remedy the offence by saying apologetic formulae. It can be redressed by offering different apologetic formulae such as "*I'm sorry*" formulae (functions in a wider range of contexts, especially in remedial interchanges when a speaker's main concern is about a violation of another person's right or damage to another person's feeling). In contrast, a substantive apology remedies the damage on the addressee by offering compensation in forms of materials. For example, instead of saying "*I'm sorry*", the wrongdoer may say "*I'll buy you a new book*" as an offer of repair, "*I didn't mean to hurt you*" as an expression of his/her lack of intention, or "*It won't happen again*" as a promise of forbearance. It seems that the two kinds of an apology are categorized based on the use of illocutionary force indicating device (IFID). That is, for a ritualistic apology, the IFID is explicitly used (e.g. I'm sorry formulae) while for a substantive apology, other kinds of forms are used instead of the IFID.

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), an apology is a face threatening act that "directly damages the speaker's positive face" because "S indicates that he regrets doing a prior FTA, thereby damaging his own face to some degree – especially if the

apology is at the same time a confession with H learning about the transgression through it, and the FTA thus conveys bad news" (p. 68). When it comes to the realization of apology strategies, the speaker may go on record baldly by directly saying "I'm sorry" or "I apologize" when he or she unintentionally hit someone. To be positively or negatively polite, the speaker may say "I hope you're alright" or "I wasn't looking", respectively. He or she may go off record by making joke about the offense or decide not to do the FTA by saying nothing at all.

2.1.1.3 Classification of apology strategies

The speech act of apology is complex. The strategies that the speakers employ when apologizing can be classified differently. This section summarizes the classification of apology strategies proposed by researchers who work on the apology speech act performance in a single language, in cross-cultural pragmatic and in interlanguage pragmatic perspectives.

Blum-kulka, House, and Kasper (1989) propose the apology strategy classification, which has been subsequently employed by other researchers. Their classification of apology strategies can be summarized as follows:

1. Alerter: the hearer's name or title the speaker addresses when apologizing (e.g. *Professor, John*)

2. Illocutionary force indicating devices (IFID): the explicit apology in formulaic expressions (e.g. *I'm sorry, I apologize, Excuse me, I regret, Pardon me*)

3. Intensifiers: intensifying adverbs (e.g. *so, really, terribly*), emotional expressions or exclamations (e.g. *Oh no, God*), expressions marked for register (e.g. *I do apologize*), double intensifier or repetition of intensifying adverbial (e.g. *I'm really*

dreadfully sorry, I'm very, very sorry), please (e.g. *Please forgive me*), concern for the hearer (e.g. *I hope I didn't upset you*), and combinations of the above intensifiers

4. Taking on responsibility: explicit self-blame (e.g. *My mistake*), lack of intention (e.g. *I didn't mean that*), justify hearer (e.g. *You are right to be angry*), expression of embarrassment (e.g. *I feel awful about it*), admission of facts (e.g. *I totally forgot to pick you up*), refusal to acknowledge guilt (e.g. *It wasn't my fault*), blaming the hearer (e.g. *It's your own fault*), and pretending to be offended (e.g. *I'm the one to be offended*)

5. Explanation or account (e.g. *I was late because of the traffic*.)

6. Offer of repair (e.g. *I'll pay for it or I'll get you a new one*.)

7. Promise of forbearance (e.g. *It won't happen again*.)

8. Distracting from the offence or Downgrading: query precondition or showing doubt (e.g. *Are you sure we were supposed to meet at 10?*), pretending not to notice the offence (e.g. *Am I late?*), future/task-oriented remark (e.g. *Let's get to work, then*), humor to pacify the hearer (e.g. *If you think this is a mistake, you should see our fried chicken*), appeaser as opposed to offer of repair (e.g. *I'll buy you a cup of coffee*), and lexical and phrasal downgraders (e.g. *I think, You know*).

For Bergman and Kasper (1993), apology strategies can be classified into the following major categories, based on the forms of language use (p. 94):

1. IFID: Illocutionary Force Indicating Device to indicate the force of apology (e.g. *I'm sorry, I apologize)*;

2. Upgrader: the elements to increase the force of apology (e.g. *terribly, really, very*);

3. Taking on Responsibility: speakers' accepting the offense, which include self-blame (e.g. *That was my mistake*), lack of intention (e.g. *I did not intend to offend you*), and admission of fact (e.g. *I broke that vase*);

4. Downgrading Responsibility or Severity of offense: (a) utterance reducing the speaker's accountability for the offense, such as, excuse (e.g. *It was raining, so I can't make it on time*), justification (e.g. *I understand why you're angry*), claiming ignorance (e.g. *I wasn't aware of that*), problematizing a precondition (e.g. *Someone must have taken it*), or denial (e.g. *I didn't do it*); and (b) utterance reducing severity of offense (e.g. *The damage doesn't look that bad*);

5. Offer of Repair: speaker offering to remedy damage imposed on the offended party by an action to compensate for the damage (e.g. *I can buy you a new one if you want me to*); and

6. Verbal redress: speaker showing concern for offended party (e.g. *Are you alright?*), efforts to appease (e.g. *You'll be alright*) or promise of forbearance (e.g. *I will never ever forget our appointment ever again*).

Chang (2010) presents the classification of apology strategies adapted from coding scheme from previous apology research which is claimed to allow investigation into the development of apology strategies. The coding scheme is as follows:

1. Illocutionary force indicating device (IFID):

a) Expression of regret or offer of apology (e.g. *I'm sorry, I apologize)*;

b) Request for forgiveness (e.g. *Excuse me, Please forgive me*);

2. Adjunct:

a) Explanation or account of the cause which causes the offence (e.g. *The traffic was really bad*);

b) Expression of the speaker's responsibility for the offense, e.g. explicit self- blame (e.g. *My mistake*), expressing lack of intent (e.g. *I had no intention to cause such damage*), acknowledgement (e.g. *I know I have offended you*), admission of fact (e.g. *I broke your computer*);

c) Offer of repair (e.g. *Would you like me to get it fixed for you?*);

d) Promise of forbearance (e.g. *It won't happen again*);

e) Minimizing the degree of offense, (e.g. *It's not the end of the world*);

f) Speaker showing concern for offended party, (e.g. *I hope you're okay);*

g) Intensifier (e.g. *really, very*);

h) Alerter, (e.g. "*Teacher* ..."); and

i) Justification (e.g. *Your teaching is really boring)*.

Intachakra (2004) provides four main apology strategies for apologies in Thai, as follows:

1. An explicit display of apology, ranging from the scale of formality (e.g. general "ขอโทษ" kʰɔ̌ːtʰôːt̄; formal, super-deferential "ขอประธานโทษ" kʰɔ̌ː prà tʰaːn tʰôːt̄; formal, deferential "ขออภัย" kʰɔ̌ː apai; and English "sorry);

2. An explanation or account (e.g. *The whole area was flooded and no one could leave home*);

3. An acceptance of responsibility, with five sub-strategies:

a) Accepting the blame (e.g. *Yes, that was my fault*);

b) Expressing self-deficiency (e.g. *I'm not good at this*);

c) Recognizing the interlocutor as deserving apology (e.g. *You deserve an apology from me*);

d) Expressing lack of intention (e.g. *I had no intention to hurt you*);

e) Offering repair/redress (e.g. *Can I buy you a new one to make up for the damage that I have caused?*); and

4. A promise of forbearance (e.g. *It won't happen again, I promise*).

It can be seen that there are some similarities in the classification of apology strategies proposed. One similarity can be found in the use of Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices (IFIDs) or explicit display of an apology, used as an apology head act in order to explicitly express an apology. In addition, an IFID can be upgraded to make an apology more forceful by using intensifiers. Another similarity is an acknowledgement of responsibility, explanation or account, offer of repair and promise of forbearance. Blum-kulka et al. (1989) point out that IFIDs and an acknowledgement of an apology are applicable in any situations that require an apology. The use of explanation or account, offer of repair and promise of forbearance, however, depend specifically on situations (Ogiermann 2009).

2.1.1.4 Linguistic Politeness

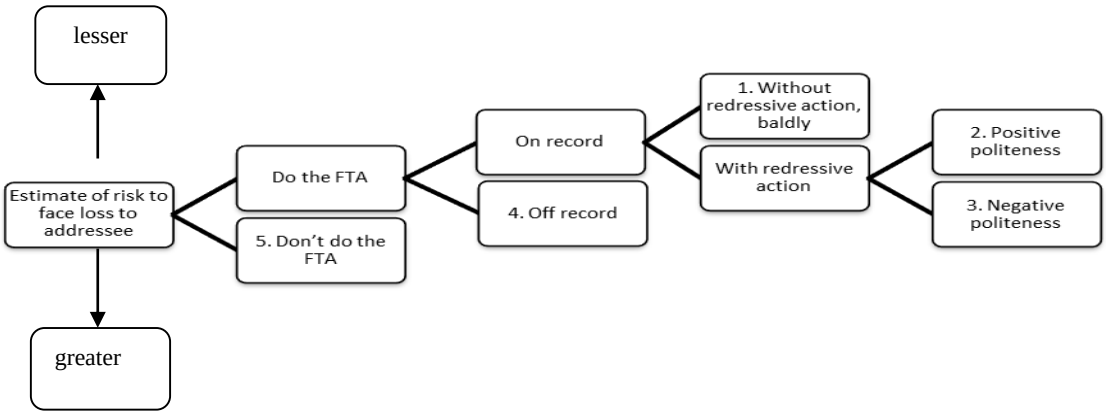
Politeness is an inevitable phenomenon in all cultures that helps to maintain social harmony. "Being polite" can be expressed verbally and non-verbally and it varies across cultures. When people from different cultures interact, misunderstanding may arise due to differences in each culture's belief in what is considered to be 'polite'. In fact, to be linguistically polite also involves pragmatic competence. This indicates the connection between the theories of linguistic politeness and interlanguage pragmatics.

Language learners need to be able to be linguistically and appropriately polite. Theories of linguistic politeness have been proposed by many researchers who view the notion of linguistic politeness differently. In this section, three theories of linguistic politeness are discussed: Brown and Levinson (1987), Fraser (1990), and Leech (1983, 2005).

Brown and Levinson (1987)

According to Brown and Levinson's politeness theory, face refers to public self-image with emotional and social sense of self that everyone has and expects everyone else to recognize and respect. Being polite, in Brown and Levinson's view, can be defined as showing awareness of and consideration for another person's face, which could affect the use of language in interaction.

There are two types of face in Brown and Levinson's Politeness Theory: positive face and negative face. Positive face is the need to be part of, to be accepted by the group or a community. Negative face, in contrast, is the need to be free from imposition, to have privacy. An act that lessens the threat to someone's face is called 'face-saving act', whereas an act that threatens someone's face is called 'face-threatening act' (FTA). If a person is to do the face-threatening act, politeness strategies come into play as shown in the diagram below:



(Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 69)

Figure 1: Brown and Levinson's Politeness Model

According to the diagram above, in interpersonal interaction, the speaker can decide whether to perform an FTA or not by assessing the risk of the hearer's face loss. There are five ways in which the speaker can choose. If deciding to do the FTA, the speaker can do it on record (i.e. by saying it directly) or off record (i.e. by being ambiguous on purpose). By doing FTA on record (which involves the greatest possibility of face threat), the speaker can either (1) do it baldly without a redressive action (i.e. being direct) or do it with a redressive action. There are two ways of doing FTA on record with a redressive action to save the hearer's face: (2) being positively polite (i.e. with the concern of the hearer's positive face) or (3) being negatively polite (i.e. with the concern of the hearer's negative face).

These two strategies are called positive politeness and negative politeness, respectively. Positive politeness emphasizes a person's positive face showing solidarity and drawing attention to a common goal. Negative politeness, on the other hand, emphasizes a person's negative face by showing concern about imposition. When compared to (1) Do the FTA on record baldly, (2) being positively polite and (3) being negatively polite involve less possibility to face threat. If the speaker decides to (4) go

off record or (5) not to do the FTA, the possibility of face threat is lower. “Linguistic realizations of off-record strategies” would be “all kinds of hints” and their meanings are “to some degree negotiable” (p. 69).

Brown and Levinson (1987) also claim that there are three socio-cultural variables influencing the weightiness (i.e. strength or seriousness) of an FTA: P (power in which the hearer has over the speaker), D (social distance between the speaker and the hearer), and R (ranked size of the imposition). The following formula is proposed for calculating the weightiness of the FTA:

$$Wx = D(S,H) + P(H,S) + Rx$$

Wx: weightiness of a face threatening act x

D(S,H): social distance between speaker and hearer

P(H,S): power of the hearer over the speaker

Rx: absolute ranking of the imposition x in a given culture

(Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 76)

Based on the equation above, the weightiness of an FTA calculated will determine the degree of politeness (that is, to save the speaker or the hearer’s face) which can be observed via the speaker’s linguistic realizations of politeness strategies.

Some aspects in Brown and Levinson’s Politeness theory have been criticized e.g. in Watts (2003) and Leech (2005). Most importantly, although Brown and Levinson claim that their model of politeness is universal, Leech (2005) maintains that the model is rather Western bias and is not applicable to Eastern cultures. Moreover, their concept of “face” is criticized to emphasize the individual wants which are, in fact, in Western cultures, whereas the “group face” in Eastern, collectivism cultures is neglected. Apart from that, politeness, in Brown and Levinson’s view, concerns primarily the assessment of face threatening acts. The social variables as proposed in

the formula Wx = D(S, H) + P(H, S) + Rx are considered rather cultural specific. In addition, as claimed that the weightiness of the FTA is calculated by the speaker, politeness in this view is somewhat intentional. Despite many criticisms, Brown and Levinson's Politeness theory is still widely used as a framework for analyzing linguistic politeness.

Fraser (1990)

Fraser (1990), claiming that his approach to politeness is based on both Grice's Cooperative Principle and Goffman's (1971) notion of deference, proposes that when engaging in a conversation, both speaker and hearer mutually have their own right and obligation to negotiate as well as renegotiate their conversational contract (CC). According to Fraser, politeness is "a state that one expects to exist in every conversation" and it "involves getting on with the task at hand in light of the terms and condition of CC" (p. 233).

Conversational Contract in general exists in everyday conversations, e.g. turn-taking, using mutually understandable language, and speaking in the manner that the interlocutor can hear. On the other hand, in a more specific sense, CC can determine types of speech acts and the content in the conversation as the specific CC are part of specific social interaction, reflecting in specific linguistic forms.

Goffman defines deference as "the component of activity which functions as a symbolic means by which appreciation is regularly conveyed" (Goffman, 1971, as cited in Fraser, 1990, p. 233, and Watts, 2003, p. 79). For Fraser, it is "a component of an activity, and is not associated with an activity, per se" (Fraser, 1990, p. 233). Variables

or as Fraser calls them “social institutions” which are different among each interlocutor play a role in determining the level of deference in the CC.

Being polite, according to Fraser, means that the participants in a conversation follow the CC of the ongoing interaction, maintaining the mutual rights and obligations. Politeness may not be explicitly noticed if both participants do not violate the CC. In contrast, being impolite, thus, means that the CC is violated by the participants of the conversation.

Although, as Watts (2003) points out, the Conversational Contract approach to politeness makes no attempts to clearly identity what linguistic forms are considered polite or impolite, it does not take into consideration the fact that many languages have certain linguistic forms or structures to explicitly express politeness (e.g. Japanese honorifics). Sometimes, it is still unclear whether certain forms truly signal politeness or deference. In addition, this approach does not clearly state the condition in which the participants in a conversation may renegotiate the rights and obligations of the CC in their conversation. As suggested by Watts, further investigation into such aspect is required.

Leech (1983, 2005)

Leech (1983) proposed an approach to politeness based on Grice’s Cooperative Principle (i.e. Maxims of Quantity, Quality, Relation, and Manner). He, first of all, claims that general pragmatics is “the general conditions of the communicative use of language” (p. 10). He distinguishes two systems of pragmatics: (1) pragmalinguistics and (2) sociopragmatics. The former deals with the use of linguistic forms to communicate the speaker’s intention whereas the latter concerns with the appropriate

use of language in society by following the social rules and norms with regard to social variables such as social distance, power, and degree of imposition.

According to Leech (1983), general pragmatics is considered rhetorical; in other words, the use of language in daily interaction. He divides rhetoric into two categories: Textual rhetoric and Interpersonal rhetoric. The former deals with four principles: the Processibility Principle, the Clarity Principle, the Economy Principle and the Expressive Principle. The latter, in contrast, concerns the Cooperative Principle, the Politeness Principle and the Irony Principle. In Leech's view, the Cooperative Principle and the Politeness Principle work together and are inseparable.

The Politeness Principle, according to Leech, functions as a tool to maintain social harmony, consisting of the following maxims in relation to cost and benefit:

1) Tact Maxim which applies to the speech act with impositive and commissive illocutionary force, in order to minimize cost to other and maximise benefit to other;

2) Generosity Maxim which also applies to the speech act with impositive and commisive illocutionary force in order to minimize benefit to self and maximize cost to self;

3) Approbation Maxim which applies to the speech act with expressive and assertive illocutionary force in order to minimize dispraise of other and maximize praise of other;

4) Modesty Maxim which applies to expressive and assertive speech acts in order to minimize praise of self and maximize praise of other;

5) Agreement Maxim which applies only to assertive speech acts in order to minimize disagreement between self and other and maximize agreement between self and other; and

6) Sympathy Maxim which applies only in assertive speech acts in order to minimize antipathy between self and other and maximize sympathy between self and other.

Although Leech claims that his Politeness principle is more or less universal, there are some drawbacks. First of all, there are too many maxims in his Politeness Principle, and these maxims can be overlapping, violating one another. The six maxims are considered inconsistent; new maxims can be added to overcome some difficulties in explaining politeness. Moreover, his principle is also criticized as being biased towards Western cultures and applies mainly to British English speakers.

Also in his model of Politeness, Leech proposes two different politeness scales: that is, Absolute politeness scale and Relative politeness scale. Absolute politeness scale can be applied with politeness regardless of the context in which a set of utterances occurs, i.e. to judge whether a particular set of utterances is more or less polite than another based on the linguistic forms and the meaning of each set of utterances. Relative politeness scale, on the other hand, measures the degree of politeness according to the context in which the utterances occur. A group of utterances considered as polite on the Absolute politeness scale may be considered impolite on the Relative politeness scale. In other words, "it is possible that the form considered more polite on the absolute politeness scale is judged less polite relative to the norms for the situation" (Leech, 2005, p. 7).

In the Politeness Principles, as Leech proposes, each participant has some goals to convey his/her intended communicative messages (i.e. 'illocutionary goals) which may or may not agree with their goals to keep the communication going harmoniously (i.e. 'social goals'). There are many cases in which illocutionary goals may compete

with social goals. Leech (2005) provides two different examples that support this notion. To give a compliment to someone, the illocutionary goal of the speaker is to show the speaker's high evaluation of the hearer, supporting the social goals. In contrast, when criticizing the hearer, the speaker's illocutionary goal may not agree with the social goal.

In terms of politeness and these two kinds of goals, Leech divides politeness into 'pos-politeness' and 'neg-politeness'. The notion of pos- and neg- politeness here is not the similar to Brown and Levinson's positive and negative politeness. 'Pos-politeness' means "having a positive import of increasing the estimation in which the other person is held" whereas 'neg-politeness' means 'mitigating or lessening the degree to which S's goals are imposed on H" (Leech, 2005, p. 7). In other words, pos-politeness is employed to enhance and maintain face (face enhancing act) and neg-politeness is employed to minimize the imposition to face.

In 2005, in his paper "Politeness: Is there an East-West Divide?", Leech proposes his reformulated version of the six maxims of politeness in his Principle of Politeness, which have been criticized for being not economical, by presenting what he called the "Grand Strategy of Politeness" (GSP). According to the GSP framework, "in order to be polite, S expresses or implies meanings which place a high value on what pertains to O (O = other person[s], [mainly the addressee]) or place a low value on what pertains to S (S = self, speaker) (pp. 13-17). In this view, an apology is the act in which the speaker "places a high value on his or her obligation to the other person" (p. 15).

Apart from reformulating the maxims of Politeness, Leech (2005) also defines the concept of "face" as "the positive self-image or self-esteem that a person maintains as a reflection of that person's estimation by others" (p. 26). With reference to the

politeness constraints in the above table, Leech claims that pos-politeness is employed to achieve “positive face goal” (i.e. to enhance or maintain face) and neg-politeness is employed to achieve “negative face goal” (i.e. to avoid face loss).

In the conclusion of his article, Leech (2005) maintains that politeness is linguistic phenomena commonly found in all cultures. Nevertheless, it is interpreted differently among cultures, and is represented in different pragmalinguistic forms of language.

Similar to Speech act theory, linguistic politeness provides theoretical background to the study of interlanguage pragmatics. Brown and Levinson’s (1987) approach to linguistic politeness is relevant to the present study because the theory provides the framework for investigating apology strategies in relation to the assessment of situational variables that affect the selection of apology strategies.

2.1.2 Interlanguage pragmatics

According to Kasper and Blum-kulka (1993), Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP) is the branch of both Second Language Acquisition Research and Pragmatics. For the former, it focuses on the development of pragmatic or communicative competence of the learner of a language along with their development of linguistic knowledge of the second or a foreign language. For the latter, it focuses on the use of language in the society. Thus, ILP can be defined as “the study of nonnative speakers’ use and acquisition of linguistic action patterns in a second language (L2)” (p. 3). For Boxer (2002), ILP is viewed as part of Applied Linguistics as “it assumes that the nonnative speaker (NNS) is progressing along an IL continuum toward some target language norm” and “it is the task of the language learner or newcomer to acquire the norms of

the host community" (Boxer, 2002, p. 150-151). According to Boxer, ILP focuses on speech act performance gained from the data from role-plays or DCTs, which are not as spontaneous as face-to-face interaction. To summarize, interlanguage pragmatics investigates language learners' speech act performance in the target language as part of the continuum of their language learning toward the target language norm.

Methodologically speaking, ILP research usually involves (1) the cross-sectional method, which surveys a large number of populations at a particular point of time and (2) the longitudinal method or a case study in which a particular group of learners is investigated over time (Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991).

When comparing the two research methods, the longitudinal method provides an insight into the development of learners as they are investigated over time while the cross-sectional method provides a large amount of data of a group of learners because it yields the data of a particular point of time. The data from the longitudinal method appear to be more difficult to generalize as they are gathered from smaller groups of population. Also, the longitudinal method appears to be more time-consuming than the cross-sectional method.

To investigate the language development of language learners, another method is proposed; that is, pseudo-longitudinal method. This method, according to Kasper and Rose (1999), is cross-sectional method that investigates the development of learners from different levels of proficiency. It is based on the assumption that learners at different proficiency levels are at different developmental stages. Therefore, by examining learners of different proficiency levels, the learning progress can be revealed.

Kasper and Blum-kulka (1993) introduced the domains of ILP study which include (1) pragmatic comprehension (learners' perception of illocutionary force, especially in indirect speech, politeness, and contextual factors that affect their perception); (2) production of linguistic action (how the learners' realizations of strategies for linguistic action can be affected by contextual constraints, L2 linguistic knowledge, or differences in social norms between L1 and L2); (3) development of pragmatic competence (how the learners' pragmatic competence develops overtime); (4) communicative effect (the outcome of communication resulting from the learners' L1 and L2 pragmatic differences as well as their own pragmatic behaviors); and (5) pragmatic transfer.

This study investigates two domains of ILP; that is, pragmatic comprehension and production of linguistic action. In the next sections, topics in interlanguage pragmatics which are related to this study are reviewed, starting from communicative competence, linguistic politeness, pragmatic transfer, metapragmatic awareness, are discussed. The section ends with variables and research instruments in interlanguage pragmatics.

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2.1.2.1 Communicative competence

Equipped in all language users are linguistic competence and communicative competence which enable language users to use language in situations. To date, there are a few models of language competence proposed by scholars e.g. Bachman (1990), Canale and Swain (1980) and Celce-Murcia and Dornyei (1995) among others. These models mutually agree that in order to be competent language users, knowledge of

language elements is insufficient. Knowing how to use the appropriate forms of language in the appropriate contexts to achieve communicative goals is also necessary.

According to Bachman (1990), language competence consists of two competences: organizational competence and pragmatic competence. Pragmatic competence in his model is the ability to use proper forms of language by following the social rules that govern the appropriateness in specific contexts. This competence includes both knowledge of illocutionary functions and knowledge of speech acts (Fulcher and Davidson 2007).

In Canale and Swain's model (1980), the similar notion is presented as 'sociolinguistic knowledge' which is part of communicative competence. To have sociolinguistic knowledge, the speaker needs to know the social rules of how to use appropriate language forms as well as the 'rules of discourse'. Canale (1983) further expands the model, and redefines sociolinguistic knowledge as the knowledge of how to use the appropriate language forms in the appropriate contexts, following the social rules to convey the meanings.

According to Celce-Murcia et al. (1995), the knowledge of speech acts in interaction ('Actional competence') and the knowledge of contextual and cultural variables as well as other non-verbal communication ('Sociocultural competence') are part of their model of communicative competence.

It can be seen from the previously discussed models of language competence that communicative competence is crucial in achieving communicative goals. It is inevitable necessary for language learners to enhance their communicative competence.

2.1.2.2 Metapragmatic awareness

Metapragmatic awareness is "the ability to develop a conscious understanding of pragmatic aspects, which include rules that represent, organize and regulate the use of speech itself in all the communicative aspects of language" (Isarankura 2008), p. 63). According to Kasper and Dahl (1991), metapragmatic awareness can be divided into the following: (1) the people's evaluation of the contextual factors that influence their perception of speech act performance; and (2) the evaluation of linguistic realization (p. 24). Such awareness may help "explain or predict the values obtained for the observed speech act realization patterns" (p.24).

According to Kasper and Dahl (1991), in addition to investigating the speech act performance (or production data) of non-native speakers in the target language using different data gathering tools (e.g. DCTs and role plays), assessing the metapragmatic awareness of the non-native speakers is another way to investigate their pragmatic comprehension. By using a pragmatic judgement task, the task that requires the participants to make judgment of the given responses to some situations in terms of appropriateness with regards to situational and/or social variables, the non-native speakers' judgment on the production data can (1) explain their preferences in using certain forms of speech act realization over others; (2) determine whether their perception of the speech act realization patterns is different from the native speakers'; and (3) determine whether such perceptions change as their performance in the target language develops. Such assessment data can complement the production data as they help make explicit the underlying ability of the non-native speakers.

This study applies Kasper and Dahl's methodology to investigate the relationship between metapragmatic awareness of Thai EFL learners whose levels of

English language proficiency and experience differ by using a pragmatic judgment task. The learners' metapragmatic awareness were measured via their appropriateness judgments of apology strategies in university contexts.

2.1.2.3 Pragmatic transfer

Pragmatic transfer has been shown to factor into non-native speakers' use and development of the target language pragmatic features, and has been one aspect that receives much attention from researchers in the field of interlanguage pragmatics. Wolfson (1989) defines pragmatic transfer as "The use of rules of speaking from one's own native speech community when interacting with members of the host community or simply when speaking or writing in a second language". That is, language learners may use some social norms in their L1 (the learners' first language) when they communicate using the target language. Another definition of pragmatic transfer is given by Al-Issa (2003); "the use of one's own cultural ways of speaking into his/her learned language" (p. 582). Additionally, Kasper (1992) defines pragmatic transfer as "the influence exerted by learners' pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 (the target language) on their comprehension, production and learning of L2 pragmatic information" (p. 207). Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-weltz (1990), in addition, define pragmatic transfer as "transfer of L1 sociocultural communicative competence in performing L2 speech acts or any other aspect of L2 conversation, when the speaker is trying to achieve a particular function of language". It can be concluded that pragmatic transfer involves the use of the native or first language norms when communicating in the target language. Improper use of the target language may lead to

misunderstanding since “speakers apply rules from the L1 culture to a second or a foreign language” (Wannaruk, 2008, p. 319).

According to Barron (2001), pragmatic transfer can be in two levels: pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic. Pragmalinguistic transfer can be seen in the transfer of pragmatic routines, lexical and syntactic modification, and linguistic realizations (p. 38). Sociopragmatic transfer, on the other hand, can be found in the transfer of learners’ evaluation of context factors, the overall politeness style, and the relative appropriateness of a particular speech act (p. 38). These notions of pragmatic transfer are similar to what Thomas (1983) proposes – pragmalinguistic or the transfer of the speaker’s native norms in his or her first language and sociopragmatic or the transfer of the linguistic forms in the speaker’s first language to convey the intended meaning in the target language.

Pragmatic transfer can be divided into positive or negative. According to Kasper and Blum-kulka (1993), positive pragmatic transfer refers to the “pragmatic behaviors and other knowledge displays that are consistent across native and non-native languages. It usually results in communicative success” (p. 83). In terms of apologies, positive pragmatic transfer is evident when the speaker employs apology strategies commonly found in both L1 and L2. In contrast, negative pragmatic transfer refers to “the influence from the learners' native language and culture on their interlanguage pragmatic knowledge and performance that differ from those of the target language” (p. 82). In other words, the learners’ transfer of his or her L1 pragmatics, either at pragmalinguistic or sociopragmatic levels can be considered as negative pragmatic transfer if such L1 pragmatics are different from those of L2. According to Blum-kulka and Olshtain (1986), positive pragmatic transfer could facilitate L2 learning and

communication when the learners' L1 and L2 share similar linguistic elements. On the contrary, the learners could potentially make errors when transferring L1 linguistic elements that do not exist in L2.

Proficiency in the target language is crucial in the language learners' pragmatic transfer. Takahashi and Beebe (1987) and Takahashi and Beebe (1993) explain that learners with high proficiency are well-equipped with L2 knowledge that enables them to transfer their L1 pragmatic norms to L2. Prachanant (2006) found that negative pragmatic transfer is found more frequently among the Thai EFL learners with high proficiency than those with low proficiency. Olshtain and Cohen (1983) claims that the deviation from the L2 norms is the result of the lack of L2 proficiency. It is clear that proficiency plays an important role in the learners' ability to transfer. Therefore, in order to study the relationship between L2 proficiency and pragmatic transfer, the native pragmatic norms of L1 and L2 must be established to allow comparison with the pragmatic performances of the learners whose levels of proficiency differ.

In this study, pragmatic transfer was investigated by comparing the Thai EFL learners' most frequently employed apology strategies with the English and Thai norms of apologizing in order to examine the effect of levels of English language proficiency and English language experience on the Thai EFL learners' pragmatic production.

2.1.2.4 Variables in interlanguage pragmatics

In studying interlanguage pragmatics, a range of variables on the learners' part have been investigated to find out if such variables have an effect on the development of language learners' pragmatic competence in different aspects. Language proficiency is the variable that has been studied the most as it plays a very important role the

development of language learners' pragmatic ability. Apart from language proficiency, individual differences are also considered a variable in interlanguage pragmatic studies. For example, Takahashi (2005) points out that there is a correlation between the learners' motivation to learn and their increased pragmalinguistic awareness.

Apart from that, exposure to the target language has also been widely considered as another essential factor in pragmatic development. Matsumura (2003) finds that in the long run, exposure to the target language helps enhance language learners' pragmatic development more than language proficiency. Another variable affecting the language learners' pragmatic development is length of residence in the target country. Felix-Brasdefer (2004) asserts that length of residence has an independent role in developing pragmatic competence. Study abroad experience is also believed to affect the language learners' speech act production (Taguchi 2011). It can be seen that exposure to the target language, length of residence in the target country and study abroad experience share some similarities in that all of these variables involve the certain amount of time the language learners spend in the target language environment i.e. the degree of the target language contact through activities in which the learners engage in their daily life.

In this study, two variables are taken into consideration; that is, the level of target language proficiency and the level of target language experience. Language proficiency, or the ability to use the target language in academic or specific context, can be measured by using the scores of standardized tests such as TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) or IELTS (International English Language Testing System) as a criterion. In some studies, the researchers use the learners' area of study as a criterion to divide the subjects into the high proficiency and the low proficiency

groups. Many interlanguage studies e.g. Bataineh and Bataineh (2006); and Samana (2005) have employed degree of the target language proficiency to classify learners into different groups in order to investigate the effect of the target language proficiency on the learners' interlanguage.

The level of language experience, or the amount of time in which the learner has spent learning and using the target language, is important in their language learning since it can contribute to the language competence of the learner. As Moyer (2004)points out, "it is a common truism that students learn what they do, i.e. what they experience formally and informally. Yet it seems equally true that amount of practice and repetition necessarily varies for every learner. These concerns of access and opportunity are surely critical to the long-term attainment potential of any learner" (pp. 37 – 38). Language experience is also investigated in some studies e.g. Chang, (2010); Sudasna Na Ayudhya (2002); Kijka (2004); and Serththikul (2004).

In this study, the term "language experience" will be used to refer to the learner's experience in using the target language in both formal and informal interaction. It also includes the learners' past experience in learning and using the target language as well as their current contact and exposure with the target language. It is believed that different levels of language experience can be one factor that plays an important role in the learner's pragmatic development.

2.1.2.5 Methodological issues in interlanguage pragmatics

This section provides some reviews on types of data and research tools used in interlanguage pragmatic research. Rationale for the selection of the study's research instruments is also provided.

According to Gass and Mackey (2007), data in sociolinguistics and pragmatics – based research can be divided into three broad types: naturalistic data, prompted production, and prompted responses. The details of each type are as follows:

The first type of data is naturalistic data. Naturalistic data can be gathered from naturalistic settings. According to Gass and Mackey (2007), this type of data can be in oral or in written form via diary studies. To obtain natural oral data, certain situations or contexts must be set to ensure that the oral data under investigation can be occurred. One example of the studies examining this type of data is conducted by Bardovi-Harlig K. and Hartford (1993). The researchers collected the naturalistic oral data from NNSs' academic advising sessions in a graduate program to investigate the development of NNS pragmatic behavior. The data were collected twice; at the beginning and the end of a semester. It was found that the NNSs used more appropriate speech acts in the second session while their forms of language remained the same. The researchers claimed that the feedback received during the advising sessions contributed to their appropriate use of speech act (e.g. suggestion). Apart from oral data, naturalistic data can also be in written form via diary studies. The authors claim that diary entries not only reveal the learners' "internal processes" (p. 132) but also their feelings and attitudes towards their own language development.

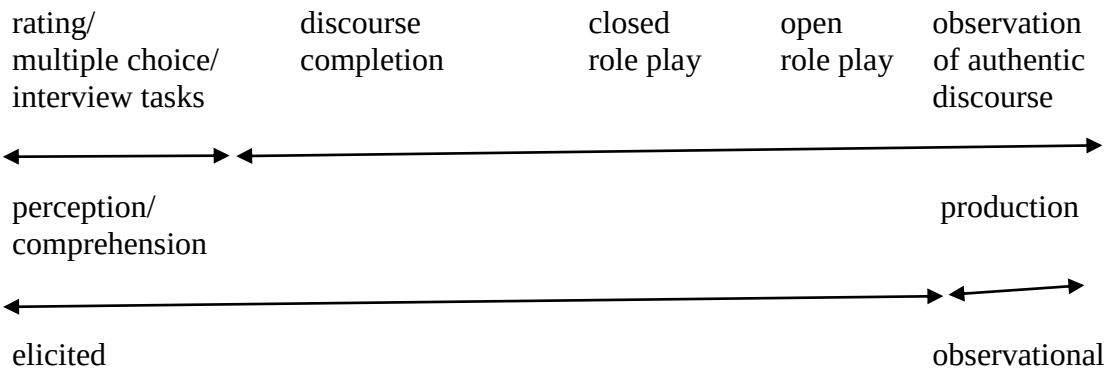
The second type of data is prompted production, which can be gathered via narrative tasks and role-play tasks. In narrative tasks, learners are required to produce prompt responses in particular contexts. For example, in role-play tasks, learners are to orally perform according to a given situation.

The last type of data, according to Gass and Mackey (2007) is prompted responses, which can be collected via discourse completion test (DCT), video

interpretation, and matched guise. The DCT data are usually learners' responses, either orally or in writing, after descriptions of situations requiring the use of speech acts under investigation. The data from video interpretation are different from the DCT data in that, learners are to respond to a video clip of speakers violating pragmatic or grammatical norms by rating the degree of severity of the violation (e.g. Bardovi-Harlig K. and Dornyei (1998). Matched guise is the method generally used to investigate learners' language attitudes by asking them to listen to different speeches by the same person and give their opinions on the speaker.

The different types of data, as discussed above, can be obtained by using different kinds of data gathering tools. In the field of interlanguage pragmatics, language learners' pragmatic competence can be tested in three different aspects; that is, sociopragmatics, implicature, and pragmalinguistics ((McNamara and Roever 2006). Assessing these aspects require different tools.

According to Kasper and Dahl (1991), the following model of data-gathering methods in interlanguage pragmatic studies is proposed:



Kasper and Dahl (1991, p. 3)

Figure 2: Kasper and Dahl's data-gathering tools

The diagram illustrates the continuum of different types of methods (rating tasks, discourse completion, closed and open role play and observation of authentic discourse) measuring different types of data (perception/comprehension and production) which can be elicited or observational. The types of research methods are divided according to the types of data (perception to production data) and the nature of the data (elicited or observational). As seen from the diagram, the tool on the left-hand side of the continuum measures the underlying perception of speech act realization. Those in the middle (discourse completion, closed role play, and open role play) measure the production of speech acts with more control of variables. Observation of authentic discourse, on the far right-hand side, provides the observational production data gained from direct observation in real-life interaction. It is obvious that the data gained from different tools are different in nature and, thus, choosing the right data-gathering tool is no doubt very important.

Clark and Bangerter (2004, as cited in Jucker, 2009) propose three different research methods in pragmatics, employing the terms “armchair”, “field” and “laboratory” to refer to different ways of gathering language use data based on the place in which the research is conducted. In her article, Jucker (2009) provides further subcategories of the three research methods proposed by Clark and Bangerter (2004) as follows:

The first method, the armchair method deals with the researchers’ introspection and intuition and language users’ evaluation. Based on Jucker (2009), the former is called the philosophical method as it is the researcher who analyzes or makes judgment on language use in situations based on his or her intuition. The latter, in contrast, is

called the interview method where the language users are asked to express their thoughts or attitudes about language e.g. Yuan (2001).

In the second method, the field method, the empirical data are gained through observation in natural, unplanned or uncontrolled settings. The naturalistic data are mainly for communicative purposes and can be in any form, written or oral. Jucker (2009) further divides the field method into four methods, namely, the notebook method, the philological method, the conversational analytical method, and the corpus method.

In the notebook method, which is similar to the ethnographic method, the researcher writes down whatever he or she sees and hears from everyday conversation in notebooks. For the philological method, on the contrary, the researcher collects the data from fictional sources, such as, novels and short stories. The conversational analytical method concerns the collection of data from everyday conversation. The corpus, unlike other methods, deals with searching data from corpora using computer programs. The difference between the philological method, the conversational analytical method, and the corpus method is that while the data are manually collected in the first two methods, the data are computerized in the latter.

The last method, the laboratory method, involves techniques employed so that the language users provide prompt responses to the imaginary situations that require the use of certain forms of language under investigation. Jucker (2009) provides two examples of research methods fallen under the category of the laboratory method; that is, DCT and role-plays. In both methods, the situations are unrealistic and the participants have to imagine themselves in such situations and provide prompt

responses (in the case of DCT) or act out (in the case of role-plays) with reference to those situations.

Although Clark and Bangerter (2004) use broader terms, and Jucker's sub methods are more into details, all of their research methods more or less parallel to the methods proposed by Kasper and Dahl (1991). The following section will discuss each method in terms of their strengths and weaknesses.

This section presents types of data gathering tools following Kasper and Dahl (1991) with further subcategories complied from Jucker (2009). The types of data gathering tools in this section are broadly divided under the ways in which the data are collected.

The data-gathering method that provides the most authentic information when compared to other methods previously discussed is observation of authentic discourse. According to Kasper (2000), the data is obtained through observation and such naturally occurring data from everyday interaction can be audio recorded, video recorded or recorded in the researcher's field notes (or in Jucker's term, the notebook method). The researcher sometimes makes extensive notes to record additional information that cannot be recorded. This method yields the most interactive, most authentic, longest and, most complex data. As Yuan (2001) points out in her study of compliment in Chinese, data gathered from observation reveal elements in everyday conversation that other tools fail to capture, e.g. turn-taking and situations in which indirect speech acts can be observed. However, the ethnographic researcher needs to be trained and have a lot of experience in doing ethnographic research and in transcribing ethnographic data. Apart from the researcher, the data themselves may be inaccurate due to many factors, such as the experience and expertise of the researcher as previously discussed. Also,

the data may be unrelated to what the researcher would like to investigate since the variables cannot be controlled. For this reason, the ethnographic data may, thus, not elicit the NNS speech act production (Kasper and Dahl, 1991).

Jucker's philological method also relies on the researcher's observation in scanning data from fictional materials. Although fictional materials "provide a narrator perspective" (Jucker, 2009, p. 1616), the reliability of the data is still in question. It requires at least two researchers to look at the same material to ensure the consistency and reliability of the collected data. Apart from being very time consuming, the experience of the researcher is required in doing this kind of research. When it comes to interlanguage pragmatic research, however, the philological method may not be useful as an appropriate research tool as it focuses on fictional materials, not the language of the language learners.

The conversational analytical method requires the researcher to first audio or video record the conversation and then transcribe for further analysis of the language use under investigation. According to Jucker (2009), this method is not much different from the philological method; only the materials are different. What the researchers look for using either method is similar, the examples of the language use for analysis. However, in the field of interlanguage pragmatics and testing language learners' pragmatic competence, the conversational analytical method is applicable. As claimed by Walters (2007), who appears to support the use of conversational analysis as one tool to assess L2 oral pragmatic competence, the data from everyday conversation provide more authenticity and insight into human language behavior. The data also reflect the learners' understanding as they explicitly demonstrate it in their use of

language in the conversation. For these reasons, conversational analysis can thus be applied to assessing language learners' pragmatic development (Walters, 2007).

The corpus method, unlike other methods that require the researcher's observation in collecting data, replies mainly on the use of computer to search the electronic corpora for the data under investigation (Jucker, 2009). According to Jucker, precision in specifying linguistic elements for search strings is necessary. However, in doing research on interlanguage pragmatics, the corpus-based method may not be applicable as the corpora for nonnative speaker language is still insufficient.

Apart from collecting data from natural settings, data can also be collected using elicitation techniques that require the participants to provide prompt responses to the situations given. Two methods will be discussed: role-plays and DCTs, respectively.

Role-plays allow examination of speech act behavior in its full discourse context (Kasper and Dahl, 1991). This is because in role-plays, participants are given situations and asked to act out according to the situations. Below is an example of a situation in a role card given to participants, taken from Halleck (2007) p. 97):

Superior Role Card

You are leading a discussion at your club on a book/movie you read/saw recently. Describe a major theme of the book/movie, and discuss the significance of that theme to society.

Someone asks you about the accusations that the great museums of the world have plundered works of art from far and wide. Some argue that these treasures should be returned. Others argue that museums have in fact, preserved treasures and that they are returned they might be damaged or lost. Discuss the issue and take a stand supporting your opinion.

You have just received an award from the _____ - American Cultural Society for your work in promoting multicultural awareness. Make a brief speech accepting the award.

Role-plays help to elicit the qualities of authentic conversation: how speech act performance is sequentially organized (e.g. strategy choices); what kinds of interlocutor

responses are elicited by specific strategic choices; and how such responses in turn determine the speaker's next move.

According to Kasper and Dahl (1991), role-pays can be divided into (1) closed role-plays; and (2) open role-plays. The former allows participants to respond in a single turn to the situations which elicit the speech act under investigation, while for the latter, participants are allowed to respond in a longer and more turns (Kasper (2000), and Demeter (2007). The participants' performance is usually video-recorded and then transcribed for further analysis. When compared to DCTs, role plays provide a richer and more authentic data. As Sasaki (1998) concludes, the data from role-plays are rich in terms of response length and strategies used. However, the role-play data require transcription and the person who transcribes needs to be trained. Consequently, the data from role plays are more difficult to code than the data from DCT (Kasper and Dahl, 1991).

Discourse completion, according to Kasper and Dahl (1991), is used to gather production data, eliciting the learners' pragmatic competence. That is, it is used to investigate speech act realization by learners in L2. Discourse completion tasks (DCTs) can be in three forms: written, oral, and multiple choices. Written and oral questionnaires consist of brief imaginary and situational descriptions, followed by a short dialogue with an empty slot for the speech act being investigated. Below is an example of a DCT situation from Safont Jorda (2003), p. 68):

Situation 1: *You have invited a very famous pedagogue at an institutional dinner. You feel extremely hungry, but this engineer starts speaking and nobody has started eating yet, because they are waiting for the guest to start. You want to start having dinner. What would you say?*

You: _____

Sometimes, rejoinders are provided, as in the following example, taken from Blum-Kulka et al. (1989, p. 274):

In the lobby of the university library: Jim and Charlie have agreed to meet at six o'clock to work on a joint project. Charlie arrives on time and Jim is half an hour late.

Charlie: *I almost gave up on you!*
Jim: _____
Charlie: *O.K. Let's start working.*

Participants are to fill in a response which they think fits the given context which clearly specifies the kind of speech act required in that context.

For multiple choice DCTs, the situation is given, followed by a set of alternatives for the respondents to choose. Below is an example of a multiple-choice DCT from Liu (2007, pp. 414-415):

Situation 1
You are a student. You forgot to do the assignment for your Human Resources course. When your teacher whom you have known for some years asks for your assignment, you apologize to your teacher.

A) *I'm sorry, but I forgot the deadline for the assignment. Can I bring it to you at the end of the day?*
B) *Pardon me, sir, I forgot about that. Shall I do the assignment at once? So sorry! It's my fault!*
C) *I've completed my assignment but forgot to bring it with me. I'll hand it in tomorrow.*

The DCTs are widely used in both interlanguage pragmatics and cross-cultural pragmatics studies (e.g. the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project, 1989; and more recently, e.g. Bataineh and Bataineh (2006); Bataineh and Bataineh (2008); Walkinshaw (2007); and Economidou-Kogetsidis (2010), 2010, among others). Although it is a popular research tool, DCT has some drawbacks. First of all, it does not reveal the real speech production in real-life interaction as the situations in the DCT are hypothetical and unnatural as the participants have to be in the roles they are not accustomed to (Rintell and Mitchell 1989); Kasper, 2000; Yuan, 2001 and Jucker,

2009). Moreover, the range of formulas and strategies used in the DCT may not be the same as those that the participants would use in reality (Golato 2003). Apart from that, it fails to represent the turns, pauses, repetition, and elaborations made by the participants since the data are not from real conversation (Yuan, 2001). The emotion of the speaker cannot be detected and the actual rate of occurrence of a speech act cannot be measured. In addition, as Jucker (2009) points out, the limited space provided in the written DCT may also limit the length of responses. The provided rejoinders may also give a clue to the participants about what to respond (Jucker, 2009). In short, as Golato (2003) points out, DCT data, when compared to other data gathering tools, lacks authenticity, yielding utterances usually uncommon in naturally occurring speech.

Despite the drawbacks, DCT has many advantages. The most remarkable one, for written DCT in particular, is that it can gather a large amount of data quickly due to the fact that it can be distributed to a large group of population (Yamashita 1996), and Jucker, 2009). Also, it elicits an initial classification of semantic formulas and strategies, as well as the canonical shape of speech act realization in the minds of the speakers (Kasper and Dahl, 1991). Moreover, it provides insights into social and psychological factors that are likely to affect speech and performance (Kasper can Dahl, 1991).

In addition, the data from the written DCT is easy to code since it is written and requires no transcription (Yuan, 2001). Regarding the limitation concerning the limited space provided may result in the limited length of response, the oral DCT can overcome such limitation. As Yuan (2001) states, the responses in the oral DCT are much longer than those in the written DCT.

Most important, as claimed by Bergman and Kasper (1993), DCT enables learners to explicit their knowledge in the environment that does not require as spontaneous responses as in real-life situation. This claim is supported by Roever (2006), who states that DCT "is an appropriate instrument for testing pragmalinguistic knowledge" (p. 232).

According to Kasper and Dahl (1991), the tools eliciting perception and comprehension data vary: e.g. paired comparison, card sorting, multiple choice and questionnaire with 3 point rating scale (Economidou-Kogetsidis 2010). These kinds of tools are used to measure the non-native speakers' (NNS) perception and comprehension of speech act realization in the target language (L2). The studies in such area are known as metapragmatic judgment studies since they focus on the pragmatic knowledge of the learners: the awareness of contextual factors (e.g. power, status, and familiarity) assumed to affect people's perception of a speech event (Liu 2007), which may in turn explain the observed speech act production patterns; or their linguistic realizations e.g. in terms of directness and politeness. This kind of study helps explain preferences for certain forms and strategies over others. It also determines whether non-native speakers perceive the speech act production patterns differently from native speakers, and whether such perceptions change as non-native speakers' performance in the course of IL development changes.

Prior to completing the other kinds of pragmatic tests, Yamashita (1996) asked her Japanese participants to complete the self-assessment form, consisting of twenty-four situations requiring requests, refusals, and apologies. The form did not require any language production. Instead, the participant to rate themselves on a Likert scale on

how they would respond to such situations based on their ability to respond properly. The example of the self-assessment test is as follows (p. 117):

Situation 24: *You work as a travel agent in a large department store. You are helping a customer at your desk. The customer gets out a packet of bubble-gums, takes a piece, and offers you a piece. You do not like bubble-gums.*

Rating: I think what I would say in this situation would be

Very unsatisfactory	*1--------2--------3--------4---------5*	*Completely appropriate*

Following the self-assessment, the participants completed the following tests respectively: the listening lab production test, the open discourse completion test, the role-play, the role-play self-assessment, and the multiple-choice discourse completion test.

Apart from the self-assessment, the participants also had to rate their role-play performance on five-point Likert scale and for the multiple-choice discourse completion test, they had to rate the most appropriate expression from three alternatives. It is found that the scores from the first self-assessment and the scores from assessing their role-play performance are reliable. However, the results from the multiple-choice discourse completion test were less reliable due to many factors. For example, the alternatives were in short sentences and according to the respondents, there were no correct answers in some situations.

In their study in 1993, Bergman and Kasper used two methods to investigate the way in which native and nonnative speakers of English perceive and perform apology. They first used an assessment questionnaire which asked the participants to rate the situations in terms of degree of severity. They also used the dialogue construction questionnaire which asked the participants to construct a dialogue according to the

given situations. They concluded that the participants' pragmatic knowledge could be demonstrated using the two methods.

Sasaki (1998) investigated the request and refusal speech act realization from the open DCT and role-play. Her subjects were Japanese EFL learners who completed both the DCT and role-play. Her findings illustrated that the responses obtained from the DCT were not the same as those from the role-plays. That is, the role-play provides much richer data and proves to be better than the DCT in measuring pragmatic competence.

Hudson, Detmer et al. (1995) developed six pragmatic tests to assess the pragmatic competence of Japanese EFL learners in producing and recognizing request, apology, and refusal speech act realization. The six pragmatic tests included a written DCT, an oral DCT conducted in language lab, a multiple-choice DCT, a role-play, and self-assessment for the participants' performance on the DCT and the role-play. The contextual variables in the situations in the tests varied with reference to the Power, Distance, and degree of imposition. Their participants were Native American and Japanese speakers. Their tests were used as a baseline in Yamashita (1996) who investigated the differences among six pragmatic tests measuring cross-cultural pragmatic competence of Japanese EFL learners. She applied the six tests by Hudson et al (1995) with her Japanese EFL learners and found that the Japanese translated version of the tests are appropriate tools for assessing pragmatic competence in English learners of Japanese. She also added that five from six tests can be considered valid and reliable except for the multiple-choice DCT.

Yuan (2001) investigated the effectiveness of four data gathering methods: the written DCT, the oral DCT, field notes, and natural conversation. The speech acts under

investigation were compliment and compliment response. Her participants were Mandarin Chinese speakers. The written and oral DCTs were administered first to 88 and 87 respondents respectively. Fifty one respondents who completed the oral DCT were also interviewed after the test. The naturalistic data were collected from natural settings. The main focuses were on response length, the number of exclamation particles, the number of repetitions, the number of inversion, and the number of omissions. It is found that, when comparing to the written DCT, the oral DCT data are significantly higher in all aspects. However, all these aspects are found to be even richer in the natural data. Still, both the field note method and natural conversation require training in data collecting. The researcher found that the oral DCT is a good elicitation technique to study natural speech while the written DCT is good for analyzing realization patterns. The field note method can be useful when examing the nature of a speech act whereas natural conversation helps to understand the nature of everyday conversation. The researcher concludes that "the choice of a data gathering method for a particular study depends largely on the research questions and objectives of the researcher" (p. 289).

From the literature, one of the least used strategies is the oral DCT. Despite the strengths similar to the written DCT, one weakness of the oral DCT is the time consuming in transcribing the recorded data. Despite the weakness, as Yuan (2001) claims, the oral DCT provides richer and longer realization that the written DCT. In addition, spoken responses "resemble real life communication than written role plays" (Nelson, Carson et al. 2002). Apart from the evidence of the oral DCT's strengths from the literature, the researcher's experience in using the written DCT to collect the apology speech act realization data from Thai learners of English reveals that the

learners had a hard time writing what they would say. Some had problems concerning spelling and punctuation while some spent exceeding time correcting their grammar. As a result, most responses received were short, consisting of only the IFID 'I'm sorry' and 'I feel sorry' and many scenarios were left unanswered. By allowing the learners to say what they would say, the writing constraints will not be their obstacle in responding to the DCT. For these reasons, the oral DCT can be another way to elicit the learners' pragmatic competence.

It can be seen that each data-gathering tools and methods have some strengths and weaknesses and the data obtained can be different due to the different nature of each method and tool. The data from only one method may not be generalized since each method has some limitations. Therefore, collecting data using a combination of methods can provide the more reliable data than using only one tool. All in all, the most important thing all researchers should be aware of is that the decision on selecting the data collection tools should be made upon the purposes and the research questions of their studies (Yuan, 2001; and Jucker, 2009).

This study chose to use an oral DCT to collect the apology production data due to the following reasons. First, regarding the limitation concerning the limited space provided in a written DCT which may result in the limited length of response (Jucker, 2009), an oral DCT can overcome such limitation. As Yuan (2001) states, the responses in an oral DCT are much longer than those in a written DCT.

Second, as Rintell and Mitchell (1989) point out, the spoken data from an oral DCT are closer to what the speaker would say in natural settings. When completing a written DCT, the subjects have more time to think about what they would say. However, when completing an oral DCT, the subjects have to respond rather spontaneously.

Consequently, when compared to the written DCT data, the oral DCT data are closer to spontaneous, authentic responses like those gained through observation of naturally occurring speech.

Apart from that, from the researcher's experience in using a written DCT to collect the apology speech act production data from Thai EFL learners, the learners had a hard time writing what they would say. Some had problems concerning spelling and punctuation while some spent exceeding time correcting their grammar. As a result, most responses received were short, consisting of only the IFID (Illocutionary Force Indicator Devices) 'I'm sorry' and 'I feel sorry' and many scenarios were left unanswered. Some avoided using words they do not know how to spell although they usually use such words in real-life interactions. By allowing the learners to actually say what they would say, the writing constraints will not be their obstacle in responding to a DCT. Despite the fact that transcribing the oral DCT data can be time-consuming, the justification of an oral DCT has shown that it can also be an appropriate research tool in collecting speech act production data.

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2.2 Related studies

To date, an apology speech act has received much attention from researchers and has been investigated in certain languages (e.g. Wouk (2006); Afghari (2007), 2007; and Shariati and Chamani (2010)), in cross-cultural pragmatic (e.g. Suszczynska (1999); Intachakra, 2004; Bataineh and Bataineh, 2008; and Kim (2008) and interlanguage pragmatic perspectives (e.g. Thijittang, 2010). The purpose of this section is to provide a review on previous studies on Thai apologies, interlanguage pragmatic apologies, pragmatic transfer and metapragmatic awareness.

2.2.1 Thai apologies

This section reviews previous research on Thai apologies. To the best of my knowledge, there are three studies that investigate apologies in Thai – Makthavornvattana (1998) Intachakra (2001) and Intachakra (2004).

In Makthavornvattana's study (1998) of how Thai people apologize in relation to the offence weightiness, it is found that the pragmatic norm for Thai apologies is explicit expressions of apology while the least frequently used is giving excuses.

The findings also reveal that the offense weightiness did not correlate with the apology strategies employed. Makthavornvattana's (1998) study on apologies in Thai focuses only on the effect of the offense weightiness on how Thai people apologize. Her conclusion that such variable has no influence on the apology strategies may not be adequate because no other social and contextual variables (such as, social distance, status, age or gender) are taken into consideration.

Intachakra investigates compliments, thanks and apologies (2001), and only thanks and apologies (2004) in Thai in relation to linguistic politeness. The data were collected via role-plays and a questionnaire from British English and Thai native speakers. In terms of apology, the author found that the realizations of illocutionary force indicating devices for apologies differ between English and Thai. Explicit apologies in English can be realized in at least six ways whereas there are only half of such variants in Thai. The author added that there are less situations where the Thai would apologize; for example, an offence that is not harmful to anyone would not require an apology. The British, on the contrary, are more willing to apologize in more occasions.

There are three more studies of apologies of Thai EFL learners – Bergman and Kasper (1993), Prachanant (2006) and Thijittang (2010). Bergman and Kasper (1993) and Thijittang (2010) investigate how Thai EFL learners apologize in English, the review of these studies are presented in the next section – interlanguage apologies. For Prachanant (2006) who examines Thai EFL learners' pragmatic transfer, the review of his study is under the section pragmatic transfer.

2.2.2 Interlanguage apologies

This section reviews some previous studies on apologies in interlanguage pragmatic perspectives. One of the early literature that investigated apology strategies used by native and non-native speakers is Trosborg (1987). She compared the apology strategies used native speakers of English and Danish with those used by Danish learners of English. The Danish learners of English were divided into three groups based on their English language proficiency: intermediate, low advanced, and high advanced. The data were collected through role-plays. The situational variables were social dominance and social distance. Her findings reveal differences in choice of strategies between the Danish learners of English and the native speakers of English. For example, regarding the use of taking on responsibility strategy, that of the intermediate learners' was significantly different when compared to that of the native speakers of English. That is, the learners tried to redress the situation whereas the native speakers took more responsibility. Moreover, while the native speakers opted for explanation or account, the learners did not. Nevertheless, some strategies were shared among all groups of participants: expression of apology and offer of repair, but the frequency of use was slightly different depending on levels of proficiency. Concerning

the situational variables – social dominance and social distance – it is found that the higher status and higher distance did not affect the choice of direct strategy in all groups of participants. However, when apologizing to friends who were equal and close, all groups tended to redress the offence, offered more repairs, and gave more explanations. It is also found that lower level of English proficiency contributed to transfer from L1 (Danish) to L2 (English) when the intermediate group apologized.

Bataineh and Bataineh (2006) investigated Jordanian EFL university students' apology strategies by categorizing and comparing the strategies used. The sample of the study consisted of Jordanian undergraduate EFL students of two universities who were relatively homogeneous in terms of their Jordanian Arabian cultural background and academic/linguistic experiences. Three-part questionnaires were distributed and from the data, apology strategies were identified and classified into primary strategies, secondary strategies, and seldom used strategies. The findings revealed that statements of remorse, account, compensation, promises not to repeat offense, and reparation were the primary strategies used. Also, non-apology strategies such as blaming the victims and brushing off the incident as unimportant to excuse were also used by the subjects in order to clear themselves from the blame.

Shardakova (2009) studied apologies in Russian made by American learners of Russia whose levels of Russian proficiency and experience in the L2. The research instruments included a written production questionnaire, an assessment questionnaire, a role-play and an interview. The findings revealed differences in both apology strategy choices and assessment of situations among the learners and the natives. Regarding apology strategy choices, major differences were found between the natives, who considered all situational factors, and the learners, who did not. Despite increased

grammatical knowledge, even the learners with high proficiency did not approximate the natives. Even so, as the researcher concluded, increased proficiency and increased experience in the L2 context allowed the learners to provide more complex apology offerings in relation to situational variables. When evaluating each situation, the natives considered the severity of the offence and the relative power of the hearer over the speaker whereas the learners calculated the severity of the offence in relation to the social distance between the speaker and the hearer. The natives' apologies were thus richer when offering apologies to the hearer of higher status. In turn, the learners' apologies to a strangers were more elaborate.

Chang (2010) examined the development of pragmatic competence in L2 apologies produced by Chinese learners of English of different proficiency levels to determine whether the emergence of apology strategies follows a certain order of occurrence, and whether the linguistic forms used in each apology strategy follow a certain pattern. There were four groups of 60 participants each. Each group was classified according to the level of education (3rd grade, 6th grade, 10th grade and college freshmen) and English language proficiency (low beginner, high beginner, low intermediate, and high intermediate). The criterion in classifying the participants into groups was based on Taiwanese educational policy: the higher level of education, the more number of instruction hours of English per week, resulting in general difference in the proficiency across groups. The instrument used in this study was a Discourse Completion Task (DCT) consisting of eight situations in school contexts where the interlocutors were teachers and classmates. It was found that the IFID expressing regret was used as the first strategy emerged in all L2 learners' apology repertoire as it could be found in most situations, employed by the low-beginners. It was also the most

frequently occurring strategy for all groups in university contexts. Apart from the use of IFID expressing regret, the use of adjuncts was proficiency and context dependent. The findings revealed that the college freshmen employed significantly more adjuncts and a wider range of apology strategies whereas the 3rd grade group used the least strategies. The findings also indicated that the range of the apology strategies used became wider with the increasing proficiency. It was also found that an IFID expressing regret was used as the first strategy emerged in L2 apology repertoire and the most frequently occurring strategy in all age groups. More adjuncts were found in the groups with higher proficiency. The findings revealed that the L2 apology strategies might start from the formulaic stage (i.e. routine formula expressing regret) and then, with the increasing proficiency combined the formulaic expression with other apology adjuncts. The author concluded that there was a difficulty hierarchy in terms of linguistic features in apology strategies.

Farashaiyan and Amirkhiz (2011) compared apology strategies used by Iranian EFL learners and Malaysian ESL learners whose level of English language proficiency was similar. The researchers used a discourse completion task, which comprised the scenarios that were likely to occur in the subjects' everyday life. It is found that in most situations, both groups of subjects employed similar strategies at high frequency e.g. IFIDs and explicit self-blame. There were also some insignificant differences in the subjects' strategy choices possibly due to the different cultural backgrounds. The authors concluded that despite the similar level of language proficiency, apology strategy choices may vary according to the learners' socio-economic and sociocultural backgrounds.

One interlanguage pragmatic study that focused on Thai learners of English was conducted by Bergman M.L. and Kasper (1993). The participants were Thai graduate students whose English proficiency level was intermediate and American English native speakers who were university students. The authors aimed to investigate (1) the participants' assessment of contextual variables, distance and power in situations; and (2) the effect of contextual variables on the selection of apology strategies, by using two types of questionnaires: the assessment questionnaire and the dialogue construction questionnaire. The assessment data indicate that the more severe the situation was, the more obliged all the participants felt to apologize. In addition, the Thais considered situations concerning cultural offences (e.g. stealing a Buddha statue) as very severe while the Americans viewed situations concerning cheating in the exams and a poor teacher much more severe. It is also found that distance and power had an effect on the selection to use upgrading and taking on responsibility strategies. The strategy choices of the Thai learners differed significantly from the native group, which was the result of pragmatic transfer from their apology strategies in Thai.

Thijittang (2010) investigated apology speech acts of Thai and English in both contrastive pragmatic and interlanguage pragmatic perspectives. In her contrastive pragmatic study, Thijittang compared the findings from previous studies on apology speech acts in Thai (Intachakra, 2001; and Makthavornvattana, 1998) and in English (Holmes, 1990, as cited in Thijittang, 2010; Intachakra, 2001; and Marquez-Reiter, 2000, as cited in Thijittang, 2010). She found some similarities in apology strategies in Thai and English in terms of (1) the types of strategies used (with explicit expression of apology, explanation or accounts, acknowledge of responsibility and promise of forbearance as the most frequently used apology strategies); (2) the distribution of

strategies (both native Thais and English used the same strategy distribution e.g. explicit apology preceding explanation or acknowledgement of responsibility); and (3) the use of sub-strategies (both native Thais and English rarely admitted that the offended party deserved to be apologized). Differences in the use of explicit apology and sub-strategies strategies were also found. For example, the contexts in which Thais apologized and the linguistic realizations of an explicit apology in Thai were rather limited when compared to those of English. Also, the sub-strategies used among Thai and English are different with different orders of distribution. It was concluded that such differences were the result of cross-cultural differences among Thai and English.

In her interlanguage pragmatic study, Thijittang (2010) examined apology strategies among Thai EFL learners with three social variables under investigation: social status, social distance, and severity of offence. It was found that, unlike native speakers of English, social status was one factor that influenced the selection of apology strategies among Thai EFL learners. For example, when assuming the role of people of higher status, the Thai EFL learners were less likely to explicitly apologize to those of lower status in order to save their positive face. Moreover, they preferred to express the lack of intention rather than accepting the blame. In contrast, when assuming the role of people of lower status, the Thai EFL learners were likely to take the responsibility by accepting the blame and offering repair, as well as giving a promise of forbearance. The researcher claims that the differences in social status could determine the choices of apology strategies. For social distance, the findings revealed that the social distance also played an important role in Thai EFL learners' apology offerings in the same way as it did with those of English native speakers. That is, both groups of speakers apologized more to strangers and those with whom they are not familiar. Regarding the

severity of offense, similarities were found among native speakers and Thai EFL learners in that the length and complexity of apology strategies depended on the degree of the severity of the offense. It was concluded that "the three social variables are important determinants on choices of apology strategies" (p. 214) and "there is a transfer of Thai culture norms to the Thai EFL learners' apologies" (p. 206).

Methodologically speaking, Thijittang's (2010) contrastive study was not valid since she did not collect the native speakers' apology data. Comparing the findings from previous studies is very problematic because each study might investigate different variables, use different data gathering tools and collect the data from different sample groups. Since the findings from her contrastive study were not collected using the same research instrument as those from her interlanguage data, the results of her study were not quite reliable.

2.2.3 Pragmatic transfer

Evidence of pragmatic transfer in L2 production can be found in many studies. Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz (1990), for instance, found that Japanese learners of English refused differently in Japanese and English, when compared to native speakers of American English when their interlocutors were from different social status. They concluded that such difference was the result of transfer from Japanese culture to their use of English.

Al-Issa (2003) investigated the production of refusal speech acts by Jordanian EFL learners and the motivations underlying the pragmatic transfer. The findings indicate evidence of pragmatic transfer from Arabic to English in three different areas: the choice of selecting semantic formulas, the length of responses and the content of

semantic formulas. For example, the semantic formulae such as define relationship (e.g. *OK my dear professor but…*) or request for understanding (e.g. *Please understand my situation...*) used by Jordanian EFL learners were not found when compared to the refusals of native speakers of American English. Furthermore, the use of the expression "*Inshallah*" ("*God willing*" in English) could only be found in the Jordanian EFL learners' refusal responses. It was found that there were three areas in which the Jordanian EFL learners transferred the Arabic norms to their use of English when refusing and that religion is one factor among others that can determine the transfer.

In her study on pragmatic transfer in Thai EFL refusal, Wannaruk (2008) compared refusals made by native speakers of American English and native speakers of Thai, and then investigated the pragmatic transfer by comparing the refusals made by the native speakers with the refusals in English made by Thai EFL learners. It was found that both Thai native speakers and Thai EFL learners used the same strategies. For example, both groups offered to help the interlocutor next time ("future acceptance" strategy) and directly rejected when requested by the persons close to them ("negative ability" strategy). Moreover, both groups showed regret by saying they were sorry to the interlocutors in some situations such as turning on the invitation to the party by their advisor. In addition, the Thai EFL learners and the Thai native speakers provided further explanations showing their humble and modest characteristics whereas the native speakers of English would give direct and honest explanation. The similar strategies used by the native speakers of Thai and the Thai EFL learners illustrated the evidence of pragmatic transfer from Thai to English.

Prachanant (2006) examines Thai EFL learners' pragmatic transfer in responses to complaints in the hotel business. The subjects consisted of native English speakers,

native Thai speakers, Thai EFL learners with high English proficiency (EFLH) and Thai EFL learners with low English proficiency (EFLL). The data were collected via a written DCT. He found that responses to complaints involve offering apologies via different linguistic realizations. The findings also reveal that the EFLH demonstrated evidence of negative transfer more than the EFLL, but the responses to complaints being transferred were similar to those found in the EFLL's instances of negative pragmatic transfer. This study suggests that an increase in L2 proficiency enables the learners with high proficiency to transfer their L1 pragmatic norms when responding to complaints in L2. The evidence of negative transfer shows that L1 culture may also contribute to the learners' pragmatic transfer.

From previous studies, it can be concluded that in investigating pragmatic or transfer, the language use of native speakers of the two languages have to be examined first before further comparison. However, the native norms are based on the generalization of previous findings from the selected groups of populations. Whether the native speakers of a language would follow the same norms is still questionable. Also, the level of language proficiency may enable the learners to transfer. While low proficiency learners are believed to transfer their L1 norm by directly translating from L1 to L2, it is doubtful whether their limited L2 competence will allow them to successfully do such direct (whether positive or negative) transfer. Some studies found that the high proficiency learners were more able to transfer sociopragmatic norms from their first language than the low proficiency learners (e.g. (Takahashi and Beebe 1987, Takahashi and Beebe 1993). To the best of my knowledge, there is no research that investigate the relationship between language proficiency and experience and pragmatic transfer. This study attempts to examine such relationship.

2.2.4 Metapragmatic awareness

Research on metapragmatic awareness is less investigated when compared to research on speech act production. This section provides a review on some previous studies on metapragmatic awareness.

Olshtain and Blum-Kulka (1985) investigated the development of pragmatic awareness among three groups of Hebrew learners and native speakers of Hebrew. The learners differed in terms of their length of stay in Israel. Their research tool was a pragmatic judgment test, consisting of eight situations with apology or request responses. The subjects were asked to rate such responses for their appropriateness. The similarity in rating was found among the native speakers and the learners whose length of stay in the target country was more than ten years. This means that the longer the length of stay in the target country, the closer the learners' pragmatic awareness was to the native speakers. The learners whose length of stay in Israel was less than two years were significantly different from the native speakers in their appropriateness rating.

Bardovi-Harlig K. and Dornyei (1998) investigated Hungarian EFL and ESL learners' recognitions of grammatical errors and pragmatic infelicities, focusing on four speech acts: apologies, refusals, requests, and suggestions. The subjects were asked to watch a video consisting of situations in which the four speech acts were employed and rated any grammatical errors or pragmatic infelicities. They found that the ESL group was able to identify more pragmatic infelicities and rated such infelicities more serious than grammatical errors. The EFL group, in contrast, was more aware of grammatical errors.

In their attempt to replicate Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei's (1998) work, Niezgoda and Rover (2001) conducted a study with Czech EFL learners and Czech ESL

learners in the U.S. using the same research instruments. Their findings revealed that the EFL group outperformed the ESL group in pragmatic infelicity recognition and rated the severity of both grammatical and pragmatic errors higher than the ESL group. Such findings contradict those of Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei. The similarity found in both studies was that the ESL groups in both studies agreed that pragmatic infelicities are more noticeable than grammatical errors.

Matsumura (2003) examined the effect of English proficiency and exposure to English on Japanese ESL learners' perception of pragmatic appropriateness in situations involving giving advice. The subjects were those who stayed in Canada for eight months in an exchange program. The research instruments included a multiple-choice questionnaire and a self-report questionnaire. The data were collected in three phases: before leaving Japan, during the first and third month of their stay in Canada. The findings indicated the correlation between the high amount of exposure in the target environment and pragmatic development. That is, when staying in the target country, the amount of exposure helped promote the learners' pragmatic development more than the level of proficiency.

In her study of metapragmatic awareness and pragmatic production of third language learners of English, Safont Jorda (2003) hypothesized that the Spanish bilinguals learning English as a third language would show a higher degree of pragmatic awareness than the monolinguals. The subjects (80 bilinguals and 80 monolinguals) were asked to do the Discourse Evaluation Test (DET), a type of questionnaire similar to the pragmatic judgment task, consisting of 18 request exchanges in English. The subjects evaluated the exchanges in terms of appropriateness of the request acts used in particular contexts and then justified their evaluation as well as provided suggestions

for the exchanges which they considered inappropriate in the given contexts. The findings from the DET indicated that the bilinguals were better than the monolinguals in terms of recognizing pragmatic failure, providing suggestions for improvement of the inappropriate exchanges, and justifying their evaluation. It is also found that the bilinguals justified their evaluation based on appropriateness and awareness of the contextual variables while the monolinguals made judgments based on grammatical aspects. It can be concluded that the bilinguals' awareness of the contextual variables was different from that of the monolinguals since they could identify appropriate and inappropriate request exchanges in particular situations more accurately than the monolinguals. They also provided more suggestions to the inappropriate exchanges than the monolinguals did. The findings indicated that "knowing more than two languages seems to benefit the development of pragmatic awareness and the degree of pragmatic awareness".

Bardovi-Harlig and Griffin (2005) investigated the pragmatic awareness of English language learners from different language backgrounds whose English proficiency was in high-intermediate and low-advanced levels. For the first task, the learners were first asked to watch the video consisting of 20 situations of two students' interactions modeled on the learner-native speaker responses to dialogue completion tasks or the naturally occurring interactions. Some interactions represented the pragmatically problematic, nonnative-like exchanges. In pair, the learners made judgments on the final sentence of each exchange in terms of appropriateness by marking "yes" or "no" in a worksheet. If the exchange was considered inappropriate, the learners were also asked to rate the severity of the exchanges. After completing the first task, the learners with their partners were given the script of the inappropriate

exchanges and asked to make improvement and to act out two or three role plays out of seven exchanges. Their role plays were videotaped for further analysis. It is found that learners were aware of the problematic exchanges and they were able to identify the inappropriate elements in the speech act production (whether they were in forms of speech acts, formulae, contents, or language forms). Although they seemed to have problems providing appropriate content and grammatical forms due to their level of linguistic development, the learners were able to repair the problematic exchanges with appropriate speech acts and formulae. Grammatical but inappropriate forms were hard to recognize for the subjects. It was concluded that pragmatic awareness can be built by implicitly providing important information through classroom activities.

Garcia (2004) conducted a study to investigate pragmatic awareness among non-native English speaker of high and low English proficiency levels, using a multiple-choice questionnaire in response to a listening task which tests the subjects' ability to recognize certain types of speech acts (requests, corrections, suggestions and offers). The findings indicated that pragmatic awareness of the non-native English speakers with high proficiency are similar to that of the native speakers of English. They were able to identify types of speech acts more correctly, relying on context and their linguistic knowledge which as claimed, work together to enhance their pragmatic awareness. The low proficiency non-native English speakers only relied on their current linguistic knowledge, resulting in their low pragmatic awareness.

Schauer (2006) examined pragmatic awareness among German ESL and EFL learners using a video-questionnaire instrument and post hoc interview. It is found that the German ESL group who spent one academic year in the UK displayed higher degree of pragmatic awareness than the German EFL group as they could identify more

pragmatic errors. The researcher highlighted the importance of the L2 environment in enhancing language learners' pragmatic awareness and the length of stay in L2 environment correlated with the learners' increasing pragmatic awareness.

In her study of Thai EFL learners' pragmatic awareness, Nipaspong (2011) employed a 7-rating scale and a pragmatic awareness test to compare levels and patterns of pragmatic awareness between Thai EFL learners with high and low proficiency and native speakers of American English. The speech acts under investigation were requests and suggestions. It is found that Thai EFL learners were aware of the social status which they considered important when choosing the linguistic forms and determining the formality of such forms. Moreover, the high and low proficiency learners' levels of pragmatic awareness were more or less similar, but the high proficiency group was more aware of conventional patterns of requests and suggestions. It can be observed the Thai EFL learners lacked some understanding of English conventions and politeness strategies and relied on their own understandings which were based on their L1 norms. It can be concluded that when learning a second language, grammatical competence and pragmatic competence develop independently.

To summarize, this section provides the summary of previous studies which are relevant to the present study. It reveals the need for more pragmatic studies that investigate speech act production and perception of Thai people in cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatic perspectives. More studies are needed to fill the gap and provide more insightful information into this aspect.

2.3 Summary

This chapter provides a review of theoretical background related to the present study and some related studies. A review of previous studies showed that research on Thai apologies in interlanguage perspectives is still inadequate. In the next chapter, research methodology of the study will be illustrated.

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CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the present study's research methodology, which includes the following sections: (1) populations and samples; (2) research instruments; (3) data collection; and (4) data analysis.

3.1 Populations and samples

The populations in this study consisted of Thai native speakers (NT), English native speakers (NE), and Thai EFL learners. All samples were university students. The details of each group are discussed below.

Each group of native speakers were 20 second-year university students of various majors in King Mongkut's Institute of Technology Ladkrabang (KMITL), Thailand and Macquarie University, Australia[1], respectively.

All of the Thai EFL learners were KMITL second-year students enrolling in Foundation English 2 and Development of Reading and Writing Skills in English courses in the summer semester of the academic year 2012. All of them spoke Thai as their first language and had studied English for at least twelve years following the compulsory education policy by the government. They were students from different

[1] The selection of Australian English native speakers is based on the following justifications: (1) in ILP research, Australian English is less studied when compared to American English and British English; and (2) the researcher's personal contact with the university.

faculties in KMITL, except from English-majored students from the Department of Applied Arts.

The KMITL Placement Test was used to divide Thai EFL learners into two groups based on their levels of English language proficiency. For this study, high proficiency learners were those whose scores ranged from 70 and above or those who received Bs, B+s and As based on the faculty's grading criteria (70 to 74 for a B, 75 to 79 for a B+ and 80 and above for an A) while low proficiency learners were those whose scores were between 40-55 (40 to 49 for a D+ and 50 to 55 for a C). One hundred high proficiency learners and 100 low proficiency learners were recruited at this stage.

The two groups, high and low proficiency learners, were further subdivided into two groups according to their level of English language experience using an English language experience questionnaire (see 3.2.2 for details). Within each group (high and low proficiency), only the top ten learners with the highest English language experience scores and the bottom ten learners with the lowest English language experience scores were recruited. The remaining 80 learners whose scores were in the middle were not included in this study. Once the English language experience scores were obtained and learners were selected, the Thai learners of English were divided into four groups: (1) high learners with high English language experience (HH); (2) high learners with low English language experience (HL); (3) low learners with high English language experience (LH); and (4) low learners with low English language experience (LL).

In summary, the subjects under investigation consisted of six groups as follows:

1. Twenty native speakers of Thai (NT);
2. Twenty native speakers of English (NE);
3. Ten Thai learners of English with high English language proficiency and high English language experience (HH);

4. Ten Thai learners of English with high English language proficiency and low English language experience (HL);
5. Ten Thai learners of English with low English language proficiency and high English language experience (LH); and
6. Ten Thai learners of English with low English language proficiency and low English

   language experience (L-L).

3.2 Research instruments

There are five kinds of research instruments in this study: (1) the KMITL Placement test, (2) the English language experience questionnaire, (3) the oral discourse completion task, (4) the situational assessment questionnaire and (5) the pragmatic judgment task. The description of each tool is as follows:

3.2.1 KMITL placement test

The KMITL placement test was used in the participant recruitment process to divide the Thai EFL learners into two groups according to their English language proficiency. The test was designed by the English lecturers from Department of Applied Arts, Faculty of Industrial Education, KMITL in April, 2011. It was item-analyzed by experts and was revised by the lecturers. Following the test development process, KMITL Placement test had already been piloted and validated during the first semester of the academic year 2011.

3.2.2 English language experience questionnaire

The English language experience questionnaire measuring the Thai EFL learners' level of English language experience was adapted from Modehiran (2005). It is divided into two parts: the first part comprises questions about the participants' demographic data and the second part consists of questions concerning the participants' experience in learning and engaging in English (see Appendix 1 for the English version of the questionnaire). The Thai EFL learners were asked to do the questionnaire and their scores were ranked from the highest to the lowest (see Appendix 3 for scoring criteria). In order to facilitate the Thai EFL learners to understand all the questions, the Thai version of the questionnaire was used (see Appendix 2 for the Thai version of the questionnaire).

3.2.3 Oral discourse completion task

This study used an oral discourse completion task to collect the production data of the subjects' apology strategies. The oral DCT in this study consists of twelve situations in university contexts. It was validated by three experts in the field of Linguistics. The situations vary in terms of the situational variables: (1) the social distance between the speaker (who is a university student) and the hearer (a professor, the best friend, a classmate and a freshman), (2) the power of the hearer over the speaker (higher, equal, and lower), and (3) the severity of the offence (severe or minor). Although the situations are hypothetical, the subjects assumed the role of the speaker and responded to the situations as themselves. Consequently, their responses were closer to what they would respond in real life because they did not have to assume the role as someone else.

All the situations were reviewed by five native speakers of Thai and five native speakers of English to ensure that they were possible to happen in Thai and English cultures. The degree of the severity in each situation was also taken into consideration. The native speakers of both languages were also asked to consider the degree of severity in each situation. The distribution of situational variables across situations in the oral DCT is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Distribution of situational variables across situations in the oral DCT

Situations	Hearer	Social distance	Power of interlocutor over subject	Severity of offence
1. Being late to the final oral presentation	professor	-	+	+
2. Submitting a questionnaire late	professor	+	+	-
3. Jumping in front of a professor's car	professor	-	+	-
4. Losing a professor's books	professor	+	+	+
5. Damaging best friend's laptop	best friend	-	=	+
6. Forgetting to inform classmates of class cancellation	classmate	+	=	-
7. Being late for an appointment	best friend	-	=	-
8. Forgetting to tell a classmate to go see the professor	classmate	+	=	+
9. Forgetting to bring flash drive	freshman	-	-	+
10. Forgetting to return a pen	freshman	+	-	-
11. Taking blurred photos for a freshman	freshman	-	-	-
12. Spilling coffee on a freshman's report	freshman	+	-	+

Distance:	+	the hearer and the speaker are not familiar with each other
	-	the hearer and the speaker are familiar with each other
Power:	+	the hearer has higher status than the speaker
	=	the hearer and the speaker have the equal status
	-	the hearer has lower status than the speaker
Severity:	+	the offence is severe
	-	the offence is minor

The subjects read each situation from a note card and were asked to give an oral response to each situation. The NT and NE read the situations written in their native languages and also responded in their mother tongue. The English version of the oral DCT was also for all groups of Thai EFL learners, who responded in English (see Appendix 4 for the English version and Appendix 5 for the Thai version). All the NT and the Thai EFL learners' responses were video-recorded while those of the NE were tape-recorded, following Macquire University's research ethical protocols. All of the responses were transcribed and then coded. Statistical analysis was then performed (see 3.4.1).

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3.2.4 Situation assessment questionnaire

After completing the oral DCT, the subjects completed the situation assessment questionnaire. In this questionnaire, the subjects assessed the situational variables in each situation from the oral DCT. The assessment questions are adopted from Shardakova (2009). An example of each question from one situation with a three-point rating scale for each question is as follows:

1) How close are you and your professor in this situation?

1	2	3
very close	somewhat close	distant

2) What is the status relationship between you and your professor in this situation?

1	2	3
You higher than professor	you = professor	professor higher than you

3) How serious is the offence?

1	2	3
not serious at all	somewhat serious	very serious

4) Do you really need to

1	2	3
not really	yes	absolutely

The subjects were asked to circle the number that matches their variable assessments. The data were analyzed quantitatively (see 3.4.2).

3.2.5 Pragmatic judgment task

The pragmatic judgment task was used to measure Thai EFL learners' metapragmatic awareness. The task, adapted from Safont Jorda (2005), consisting of twelves situations of the oral DCT, is in a written form with an apology offering provided after the description of each situation and provided space for the subjects to make appropriateness judgments, provide reasons and suggestions. The apology offerings were evaluated by five native speakers of English. There are six appropriate responses and six inappropriate responses in the pragmatic judgment task.

The pragmatic judgment task was given right after the oral DCT with the time allotment of 20 minutes. The subjects had to evaluate whether each apology offering is appropriate for each situation. Their judgments could be either correct or incorrect. They also had to provide justifications for their appropriateness judgments and give alternatives for the apology offerings they considered inappropriate.

All groups of subjects' responses were assessed in terms of the correctness of their appropriateness judgments (whether each judgment was correct or incorrect), their justifications for their appropriateness judgments (whether they are politeness-related or not), and their suggested alternatives for the apology offerings they deemed inappropriate. For the analysis of pragmatic judgment task data, see 3.4.3.

3.3 Data collection

The present study's data collection was done in five steps, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Data collection

Steps	Instruments	Type of data	Procedure	Purpose	Subjects
1	KMITL Placement Test	English proficiency scores	The Thai EFL learners took the test at the beginning of Semester 1, Academic year 2012	To measure their level of English proficiency	Thai EFL learners
2	English language experience questionnaire	Scores indicating levels of English language experience	After completing KMITL Placement Test, the Thai EFL learners completed the questionnaire.	To divide the subjects into groups according to their level of English language experience	Thai EFL learners
3	Oral DCT (Thai version for NT; English version for NE and four Thai EFL learner groups)	The subjects' apology strategy choices	Each subject in each group was given a set of situations to orally respond to. All of the responses were tape-recorded.	To collect apology strategy choices among the six groups of subjects	All groups of subjects

Table 2 (cont.)

4	Situational assessment questionnaire	The subjects' assessment of situational variables	For each situation, each subject assessed the social distance between the speaker and the hearer, the relative power of the hearer over the speaker, the degree of severity of the offence, and the obligation to apologize.	To assess the subjects' perception of situational variables	All groups of subjects
5	Pragmatic judgment task	The subjects' appropriateness judgments of apology offerings with justifications and alternatives	The subjects evaluated apology offerings in situations similar to those in the oral DCT in terms of appropriateness, provided justification for their evaluation and provide alternatives for the apology offerings they found inappropriate.	To investigate the subjects' awareness of situational variables, which reveals their metapragmatic awareness	Four Thai EFL learner groups

3.4 Data Analysis

3.4.1 An Oral Discourse Completion Task

The apology strategy data from the Oral DCT were coded based on the apology speech act coding scheme adapted from the Cross Cultural Speech Act Realization Project or CCSARP (Blum-kulka, House, and Kasper, 1989), Trosborg (1987), Hudson, Detmer and Brown (1995) and Chang (2010). The coding scheme for this study is as follows:

1. Explicit display of an apology or IFIDs:

In research on apology speech acts, explicit expressions of apology are categorized as 'Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices" or IFIDs. Such category is based on the Speech Act Theory. According to the Speech Act Theory, when an explicit

expression of an apology is offered to the hearer, it contains 'illocutionary force', functioning as restoring harmony which the speaker has in mind (Austin, 1962) and expressing the speaker's psychological state (Searle, 1979). IFIDs are direct apology offerings, a formulaic and routinized group of utterances containing certain performative verbs (e.g. *apologize, forgive and excuse*), aimed at directly expressing regret, offering an apology or requesting forgiveness (Trosborg, 1987). IFIDs are the most widely used apology strategy and serve as apology head acts. Sub-strategies of IFIDs for explicit apology are as follows:

a) Expression of regret e.g. *I'm sorry*.

b) Offer of apology e.g. *I apologize*.

c) Request for forgiveness e.g. *Please forgive me*.

2. Explanation or account: The speaker provides explanation of the cause of the incident in order to redress the seriousness of the offense or lessen his/her guilt. In other words, the speaker gives an excuse for the offense so that the guilt is transferred to something else e.g. *The traffic was really bad. That's why I'm late.*

3. Expression of the speaker's responsibility for the offence: The speaker admits that he/she has committed the offense and takes the responsibility of his/her action, either directly or indirectly. This strategy can be divided into the following sub-strategies:

- Self-blame: The speaker directly takes responsibility by blaming him/herself for offending the hearer e.g. *It was my fault* or *My mistake*.
- Expression of self-deficiency: The speaker indirectly takes responsibility by admitting his/her incapability e.g. *I'm not used to using this camera* or *I'm not familiar with this model*.

– Expression of lack of intention: The speaker indirectly takes responsibility by informing the hearer that he/she does not intend to offend the hearer e.g. *I didn't mean to hurt you.*

– Admission of fact: The speaker admits that he/she has offended the hearer but does not take full responsibility e.g. *I forgot to pick you up* or *I broke your computer*.

4. Offer of repair: The speaker agrees to offer repairs to the hearer in order to compensate for the damage he/she has caused. According to Ogiermann (2009), offer of repair can be categorized as direct and indirect, depending on the speaker's degree of commitment to compensate and the hearer's alternatives.

Direct offers of repair indicate the speaker's high commitment to compensate and the hearer's limited alternatives. In English, the use of three tenses: future, present, and past informs the hearer whether the compensation is immediate or not. The future tense (e.g. *I'll pay for it*) is used to refer to the less immediate compensation which will take place later. The present tense shows the speaker's readiness to compensate right immediately (e.g. *I'm getting you a new one now*). The past tense (e.g. *I bought you a new one*), in Ogiermann's view, is used to inform the hearer of the damage being already repaired, not to offer a compensation. Direct offers of repair can also be in form of questions (e.g. *How much is the lost book?*) or indirect requests (e.g. *Can I buy you a new one?*). Both illustrate that the speaker willingly and intentionally compensates for the damage caused.

Unlike direct offers of repair, which are hearer-oriented, indirect offers of repair are both hearer and speaker-oriented. That is, an option for the repair is suggested for the hearer to decide whether to accept or refuse; therefore, the speaker is less obliged

to repair the damage. According to Ogiermann (2009), indirect offers of repair can be in forms of suggestions with the use of the main verb “let” (e.g. Let me have it fixed) and indirect suggestions (e.g. May I take another photo for you?).

5. Promise of forbearance: The speaker assures the hearer that the offensive incident will not happen again. Such strategy is employed to show that the speaker is aware of his responsibility and such offence will not be recurrent. The realizations of promise of forbearance can be formulaic, generally in the future tense (e.g. *It won’t happen again* or *I’ll never do that to you* again) and sometimes with the performative verb promise (*e.g. I promise*).

6. Expressing concern for the offended party: The speaker expresses his/her concern for the hearer’s feeling or physical state after the offensive incident. The realizations of such strategy can be formulaic expressions e.g. *Are you alright?* or I *hope you’re alright*.

7. Appealer: The speaker makes a request for his or her own benefit despite the offence e.g. *Can you accept the paper so I can have some marks?* or *Could you please let me give the final presentation?*

8. Expression of embarrassment: The speaker expresses how embarrassed he or she feels after offending the hearer e.g. *I’m so embarrassed that I have done that to you* or *I can’t believe it. It’s so embarrassing.*

9. Minimization of offence: The speaker attempts to minimize or redress the seriousness of the offence e.g. *It’s not so bad, isn’t it?* or *I’m alright. Don’t worry*.

10. Gratitude to hearer: The speaker acknowledges that the hearer has given him or her some assistance e.g. *Thank you for the pen*.

11. Distraction: The speaker tries to change the subject and takes the hearer's attention away from the offence e.g. *Come on, I'll buy you a drink*.

12. Statement or question of dismay: The speaker shows that he or she is worried about the offence e.g. *I don't know what to do* or *What should I do?*

13. Alerter: The speaker addresses the hearer directly using an attention getter (e.g. *Hey, Look*), the hearer's name (e.g. *John*), or the hearer's title (e.g. *Professor*).

14. Downgrader: The speaker downgrades or redresses the speaker's responsibility by using politeness marker (e.g *Please*) and hedges (e.g. *perhaps, kind of*).

15. Upgrader: The speaker upgrades their apologies by using intensifier within explicit display of an apology (e.g. *terribly, truly, very, really, extremely*) and emotional expressions (e.g. *Oh, Oh no*.).

16. Opting out: The speaker chooses not to say anything in order to "avoid confrontation" (Ogiermann, 2009, p. 138).

Table 3 summarizes the apology strategy coding scheme with examples.

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Table 3: Present study's apology strategy choice coding scheme

No.	Strategies	Examples
1.	Explicit display of an apology or Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices (IFIDs)	
	a) Expression of regret	I'm sorry.
	b) Offer of apology	I apologize.
	c) Request for forgiveness	Please forgive me.
2.	Explanation or account	It was raining while I was driving.
3.	Expression of the speaker's responsibility for the offence	
	a) Self-blame	It's my fault.
	b) Expression of self-deficiency	I was not good at taking photos.
	c) Expression of lack of intention	I didn't mean it.
	d) Admission of facts	I completely forgot. I was late.
4.	Offer of repair	I'll buy you a new one. Do you want me to replace them?
5.	Promise of forbearance	It will never happen again. I promise.
6.	Expressing concern for the offended party	Are you alright? I hope you are okay.
7.	Appealer	Can you please accept this?
8.	Expression of embarrassment	I'm so embarrassed that I did this to you.
9.	Minimization of offence	It's not a big deal. Don't worry.
10.	Gratitude to hearer	Thank you for understanding.
11.	Distraction	Let's get some drinks.
12.	Statement or question of dismay	I don't know what I should do. What do you want me to do?
13.	Alerter	
	a) Attention getter	Hey, Look
	b) Hearer's name	John, Mr. Jackson
	c) Hearer's title	Professor, Teacher
14.	Downgrader	
	a) Politeness marker	Please
	b) Hedges	Perhaps, kind of
15.	Upgrader	
	a) Intensifier	terribly, very, really
	b) Emotional expressions	Oh no! Oh dear!
16.	Opting out	

All the responses were coded and tallied. Then, One-way ANOVA was used to quantitatively analyze the apology strategies employed by all groups of subjects with the statistical significant value at 0.05. One-way ANOVA is a parametric test that compares more than two independent groups possible. In this study, there are altogether

six groups of participants. Comparison of the use of each apology strategy in each situation was made among groups to find out whether one group of subjects' use of each strategy in each situation is significantly different from the other groups.

In addition to quantitative analysis, the data from the oral DCT were qualitatively analyzed to see how the apology strategies similarly employed by each group of subjects are realized linguistically in relation to their assessment of situational variables (social distance, relative power of the hearer over the speaker, degree of severity of the offence and the speaker's obligation to apologize). The relationship between such linguistic forms and the subjects' situational variable assessment was also considered based on Brown and Levinson (1997)'s formula for calculating the weightiness of the FTA.

For pragmatic transfer, two types of pragmatic transfer according to Kasper and Blum-kulka (1993) were observed; that is, positive pragmatic transfer and negative pragmatic transfer. In order to investigate evidence of pragmatic transfer, apology strategies and their realizations were compared between the Thai EFL learners' groups and the native speaker groups (NE and NT). The relationship between pragmatic transfer and English language proficiency and experience was also examined.

3.4.2 Situational assessment questionnaire

The subjects' rating of each situational variable in each situation was calculated into mean average ($\bar{x}$). The mean average can be interpreted as follows:

Table 4: Interpretation of mean average

Mean average	Social distance	Relative power	Severity of offence	Obligation to apologize
1.00-1.66	Very close	S > H	Not serious at all	Not really
1.67-2.33	Somewhat close	S = H	Somewhat serious	Yes
2.34-3.00	Distance	S < H	Very serious	Absolutely

The subjects' rating was also analyzed using Person's Correlation Coefficient to find the relationship among the subjects' assessment of each situational variable.

3.4.3 Pragmatic judgment task

The Thai EFL learners' appropriateness judgments, justifications and alternatives were categorized under the adapted categories previously employed by Safont Jorda (2005). The emphasis was placed on the Thai EFL learners' appropriateness judgment of the provided apology offering in each situation (i.e. whether they can judge the appropriateness of each apology offering correctly or incorrectly), their justifications for their judgments (i.e. why each apology offering is appropriate or inappropriate in their opinion), and their provided alternatives.

The appropriateness judgment was categorized as follows:

1. *Correct judgment*: the subjects can correctly indicate that the provided apology response in each situation is appropriate or inappropriate for the given situation; and

2. *Incorrect judgment*: the subjects cannot make correct judgment on the appropriateness of the provided apology response in each situation.

The provided justification was categorized as followed:

1. *Justification not related to politeness*: the justifications which are related to grammatical aspects and/or sentence structures of apology offerings, not the situations themselves; and

2. *Justification related to politeness*: the justifications related to the situational variables (i.e. social distance, relative power and severity of the offence) which according to Safont Jorda (2003)"denote pragmatic awareness" (p.55).

The provided alternatives can be categorized as followed:

1. Inappropriate alternatives: the alternatives which are considered inappropriate for the given contexts; and

2. Appropriate alternatives: the alternatives which are considered appropriate for the given contexts

After all the responses were coded, they were tallied based on the categories in the previous section. Two inter-raters made judgment in terms of the appropriateness of the provided alternatives. One-way ANOVA was used to make comparison among groups with the statistical significant value at 0.05.

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3.5 Summary

This chapter provides elaborated details of the present study's research methodology. It begins with detailed descriptions of the populations and sample groups, followed by research instruments and data collection. The chapter ends with the details on how the data were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. In the next chapters, the finding of the study will be presented, starting from Chapter 4, which reports the subjects' assessment of situational variables.

CHAPTER FOUR: ASSESSMENT OF SITUATIONAL VARIABLES

This chapter compares and contrasts the assessment of situational variables by two native speaker groups (English and Thai) and four Thai EFL learner groups. It also investigates the relationships among the four situational variables. The results are presented in five sections as follows: 4.1) social distance; 4.2) relative power; 4.3) severity of the offence; 4.4) obligation to apologize; and 4.5) relationships among the four situational variables.

4.1 Social distance

In this section, the mean average of the subjects' assessments of social distance between the speaker and the hearer in each situation is presented in Table 5. The first column indicates the six groups of subjects (NE, NT, HH, HL, LH and LL) while the other columns present the mean average of the assessments of social distance in each situation (S stands for situation) in the oral DCT (see Appendix 4). For the mean average interpretation, see Table 4 Chapter 3. Under each situation's column in the table, the abbreviations stand for the hearer which the speaker apologizes to; that is, P stands for the speaker's professor, BF stands for the speaker's best friend, C stands for the speaker's classmate and F stands for a freshman.

Table 5: Assessments of social distance

	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	S11	S12
Hearer	**P**	**P**	**P**	**P**	**BF**	**C**	**BF**	**C**	**F**	**F**	**F**	**F**
NE	2.20	2.85	1.90	2.90	1.15	2.35	1.05	2.40	1.90	2.75	2.15	2.90
NT	2.20	2.95	1.85	2.75	1.55	2.55	1.30	2.65	2.20	2.60	2.20	2.85
HH	2.20	2.90	2.00	2.50	1.40	2.60	1.10	2.40	1.80	3.00	1.70	2.80
HL	1.90	2.90	1.70	3.00	1.50	2.70	1.30	2.60	1.90	2.70	2.10	3.00
LH	2.20	2.80	2.20	2.60	1.50	2.50	1.20	2.30	2.20	2.40	2.20	2.50
LL	2.20	2.80	1.90	2.90	1.30	2.36	1.20	2.40	2.20	2.70	2.33	2.78

P = professor, BF = best friend, C = classmate, F = freshman

Table 5 demonstrates the subjects' assessments of social distance between the hearer and the speaker. All groups' ratings are similar in situations 1 to 4, where the hearer was the professor. That is, they considered the professor to be somewhat close to them in situations 1 and 3 and distant in situations 2 and 4. The subjects also agreed that the best friend in situations 5 and 7 was very close to them and considered a classmate in situations 6 and 8 as distant. In addition, in situations 9 to 12, where the hearer was a freshman, all groups of subjects agreed on the social distance between the speaker and hearer: somewhat close in situations 9 and 11 and distant in situations 10 and 12. All of the subjects' assessments of social distance between the speaker and the hearer in each situation matched the social distance designed in each situation in the oral DCT (see Table 1 Chapter 3).

4.2 Relative power

The results of the subjects' assessments of relative power of the hearer over the speaker are presented in Table 6. The first column indicates the six groups of subjects (NE, NT, HH, HL, LH and LL) while the other columns present the mean average of the assessments of relative power in each situation (S stands for situation) in the oral

DCT (see Appendix 4). For the mean average interpretation, see Table 4 Chapter 3. Under each situation's column in the table, the abbreviations stand for the hearer which the speaker apologizes to; that is, P stands for the speaker's professor, BF stands for the speaker's best friend, C stands for the speaker's classmate and F stands for a freshman.

Table 6: Assessments of relative power

	S1	**S2**	**S3**	**S4**	**S5**	**S6**	**S7**	**S8**	**S9**	**S10**	**S11**	**S12**
Hearer	**P**	**P**	**P**	**P**	**BF**	**C**	**BF**	**C**	**F**	**F**	**F**	**F**
NE	2.95	2.90	2.60	2.95	2.05	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.05	2.00	2.05	2.15
NT	2.84	2.85	2.75	2.90	2.30	1.95	2.05	2.00	1.60	1.50	1.50	1.35
HH	3.00	2.90	2.90	3.00	2.20	1.90	2.00	2.10	1.60	1.20	1.30	1.50
HL	3.00	2.90	2.80	3.00	2.10	2.00	2.00	2.30	1.60	1.50	1.60	1.40
LH	3.00	2.80	2.80	3.00	2.10	2.00	2.00	2.10	1.50	1.50	1.60	1.50
LL	3.00	2.90	2.90	2.90	2.10	2.10	2.00	2.00	1.40	1.40	1.56	1.66

P = professor, BF = best friend, C = classmate, F = freshman

It can be seen that in situations 1 to 4, where the hearer was a professor, all groups of subjects agreed that a professor had more power over the speaker. In addition, all groups of subjects agreed that the relative power was equal when the hearer was their best friend in situations 5 and 7 and a classmate in situations 6 and 8.

However, the freshman (the hearer in situations 9 to12) was considered having less power by the NT and the four Thai EFL learner groups while the NE considered the freshman to be equal. Such difference possibly reflects the hierarchy in universities in Thailand. It is typically believed that in many universities in Thailand, freshmen are supposed to listen to the seniors. The NT and the Thai EFL learners, who were seniors at the time of data collection, considered themselves as having more power over the freshmen. The difference in the assessments of relative power of the speaker over the freshman in situations 9 to 12 is possibly evidence of the Thai EFL learners' transfer of Thai cultural belief when evaluating the variable.

4.3 Severity of the offence

In this section, the subjects' assessments of the severity of the offence in each situation is presented in Table 7. The first column indicates the six groups of subjects (NE, NT, HH, HL, LH and LL) while the other columns present the mean average of the assessments of the severity of the offence in each situation (S stands for situation) in the oral DCT (see Appendix 4). For the mean average interpretation, see Table 4 Chapter 3.

Table 7: Assessments of severity of offence

	S1	**S2**	**S3**	**S4**	**S5**	**S6**	**S7**	**S8**	**S9**	**S10**	**S11**	**S12**
NE	2.30	1.60	1.95	2.40	2.70	1.65	1.05	2.38	2.70	1.00	1.30	2.70
NT	2.15	1.30	2.05	2.50	2.60	1.35	1.25	2.35	2.45	1.10	1.30	2.35
HH	2.20	1.40	1.80	2.50	2.80	1.60	1.40	2.70	2.40	1.50	1.40	2.40
HL	2.30	1.40	2.00	2.60	2.40	1.50	1.10	2.50	2.55	1.10	1.40	2.50
LH	2.10	1.60	2.10	2.40	2.70	1.60	1.30	2.50	2.35	1.30	1.40	2.39
LL	2.30	1.50	1.80	2.50	2.50	1.40	1.30	2.60	2.50	1.30	1.58	2.56

From 11 out of 12 situations, all groups of subjects rated the severity of the offence in 11 situations similarly and according to the design of the oral DCT (see Table 3.1). That is, they all agreed that the offences in situations 1, 4, 5, 8, 9 and 12 were very serious while those of situations 2, 6, 7, 10 and 11 were not serious. The only situation where the rating was not in line with the instrument design was situation 3. Initially, the offence was designed to be not serious at all. It is possible that, since the situation involves offending a professor, the subjects might feel that the offence is more serious and rated it as somewhat serious. This difference between the severity designed in situation 3 and what the subjects actually rated was taken into consideration when analyzing the subjects' apology strategy choices in that situation. Apart from that, the

results show that all groups of subjects have the same perception of the severity of the offence in university contexts.

4.4 Obligation to apologize

The subjects' assessments of obligation to apologize in each situation is presented in Table 8. The first column indicates the six groups of subjects (NE, NT, HH, HL, LH and LL) while the other columns present the mean average of the assessments of obligation to apology in each situation (S stands for situation). For the mean average interpretation, see Table 4 Chapter 3.

Table 8: Assessments of obligation to apologize

	S1	**S2**	**S3**	**S4**	**S5**	**S6**	**S7**	**S8**	**S9**	**S10**	**S11**	**S12**
NE	2.50	1.95	2.15	2.85	2.90	2.05	1.70	2.50	2.85	1.45	1.80	2.75
NT	2.80	2.00	2.33	2.50	2.60	1.95	1.90	2.65	2.45	1.50	1.80	2.60
HH	2.80	2.00	2.10	2.80	3.00	2.00	2.00	2.90	2.90	1.60	1.90	2.70
HL	2.70	1.90	1.90	2.40	2.70	2.00	1.80	2.40	2.50	1.30	1.80	2.60
LH	2.80	2.10	2.30	2.60	2.70	2.00	1.90	2.60	2.34	1.52	1.80	2.60
LL	2.70	2.20	2.20	2.60	2.67	1.70	1.50	2.60	2.80	1.61	2.22	2.67

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It is revealed that all of the subjects are also similar in their rating of obligation to apologize. They felt that an apology was absolutely required in situations 1, 4, 5, 8, 9 and 12. Other situations, except situation 10, also required an apology, but not as absolutely as in the previously mentioned situations. The only situation where all the subjects agreed that an apology was not really needed is situation 10. In this situation, the speaker forgot to return a pen to the hearer who was an unfamiliar freshman. The subjects rated the offence of this situation as not serious. In fact, when comparing the mean average of the severity of the offence in this situation with other situations with minor offences, situation 10 received the lowest mean average. This could possibly

explain why the subjects did not feel the need to apologize to the hearer as the offence was more minor.

4.5 Relationships among the four situational variables

In order to investigate the relationship among the situational variables, Pearson's Correlation was performed. Table 9 presents Pearson Correlation results of the relationships among the four situational variables assessed by each group of subjects. Under each group of subjects, the first column and the first row show the four variables. The statistic value presented reveals whether the variable in the column correlates with that in the same row.

Table 9: Pearson Correlation results among the situational variables

NT					**NE**				
	D	P	R	O		D	P	R	O
D		-0.090	-0.246	-0.348	D		-0.085	0.138	0.005
P			0.440	0.369	P			0.292	0.224
R				.749*	R				.621*
O					O				
HH					**HL**				
	D	P	R	O		D	P	R	O
D		-0.478	0.402	0.232	D		0.041	-0.509	0.200
P			-0.577	0.098	P			0.108	-0.185
R				0.087	R				0.340
O					O				
LH					**LL**				
	D	P	R	O		D	P	R	O
D		0.244	0.332	0.526	D		0.164	0.549	0.566
P			0.086	0.174	P			0.627	0.547
R				0.357	R				0.454
O					O				

*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level
D = Distance P = Power R = Severity of offence O = Obligation to apologize

It can be seen that there is a highly significant correlation between the severity of the offence and the obligation to apology in both the NE and NT groups. This means that the more severe the offences are, the more the subjects feel obliged to apologize to

the hearers. This result is in line with Bergman and Kasper (1993), who concluded that severity of the offence "systematically related to the offender's obligation to apologize" (p. 89). There are no significant correlations found between distance and power, distance and severity, distance and obligation, power and severity, and power and obligation. This means that the subjects rated them independently and considered them as unrelated.

Among the Thai EFL groups, there are no correlations found among the four variables under investigation. This indicates that for the Thai EFL learners, each variable plays an independent role when they assessed each of them. Unlike the NE and NT who completed the assessment questionnaire in their native languages, the Thai EFL learners completed the English version. The subjects' perceptions of the variables might be distracted. Consequently, they tended to focus more on completing the questionnaire than being concerned about the relationships between variables.

4.6 Summary

From the results presented, it can be concluded that, in university contexts, the NE, NT and the Thai EFL learner groups shared similar perception of the social distance, the relative power, the severity of the offence as well as the obligation to apologize. As stated in previous studies (e.g. Bergman and Kasper, 1993 and Shardakova, 2009), these variables play an important role in the selections of apology strategies. The results from this chapter will be used to analyze apology strategy choices of the NE and NT in Chapter 5 and those of the Thai EFL learners in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER FIVE: ENGLISH AND THAI NORMS OF APOLOGIES

This chapter reports the apology strategy choices by two native speaker groups: English and Thai (NE and NT, respectively). The frequencies and percentages of the NE and NT's most frequently employed choices of apology strategies in twelve situations obtained from the oral DCT (see Appendix 4) are presented according to the relative distance and power between the speaker and the hearer in the following sections: (5.1) apologizing to a professor (+P); (5.2) apologizing to the best friend and a classmate (=P); and (5.3) apologizing to a freshman (-P). In 5.4, the NE and NT's most frequently employed apology strategy choices are discussed.

5.1 Apologizing to a professor (+P)

The hearer in situations 1 to 4 in the oral DCT is a professor who has higher relative power over the speaker (+P). In situations 1 and 3, the speaker is familiar with the professor (-D) while in situations 2 and 4, he or she is not (+D).

5.1.1 Apologizing to a familiar professor (+P, -D)

The hearer in situations 1 (being late for the final oral presentation) and 3 (jumping in front of a professor's car) is a familiar professor (+P, -D). The offence of situation 1 is severe (+R) while that of situation 3 is minor (-R). Table 5.1 summarizes the most frequently employed apology strategies in the two situations.

Table 10: The NE and NT's most frequently used apology strategies when apologizing to a familiar professor

A familiar professor (+P, -D)			
+R (S1)		**-R (S3)**	
NE	**NT**	**NE**	**NT**
1. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=24, 20.87%)	**1. Appealer (N=20, 23.53%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=26, 31.33%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=23, 32.39%)**
2. Explicit display of an apology (N=21, 18.26%)	2. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=15, 17.65%)	2. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=18, 21.69%)	2. Alerter (N=12, 16.90%)
3. Upgrader: Intensifier (N=19, 16.52%)	3. Explicit display of an apology (N=14, 16.47%)		3. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=11, 15.49%)

Table 10 reveals the selection of apology strategies between the NE and NT when the hearer was a familiar professor (+P, -D) and the offence was severe (+R) and minor (-R). The strategies in bold are the most frequently used apology strategies by each group of native speakers.

For the severe offence, (+R), the NE and NT did not share the same norms as can be seen that their most frequently employed apology strategies differed. The NE chose to express responsibility by admitting the facts that they offended the hearer, as seen in this example,

NE2: I just completely slept through my alarm and miss the actual presentation.

The NT, on the other hand, employed appealer most frequently, for example

NT13: ผมขอนำเสนองานใหม่ได้ไหมครับ

pʰŏm	kʰɔ̌ː	namsànɤ̌ː	ŋaːn	mài	dâi	mǎi
kʰráp̄						
1Msg	request	present	work	new	POT	QP
SLP						

May I present my work again?

The NT's using appealer most frequently could be due to the fact that the subjects were more concerned of themselves being unable to present their final work, which would result in their final grades. Therefore, the use of appealer was found in all of the NT's responses – more than half used this strategy preceding explicit display of an apology.

In terms of other apology strategy choices found, the NT's second and third most frequently employed apology strategies were the same as the NE's first and second most frequently used apology strategies – expression of responsibility for the offence: admission of facts and explicit display of an apology.

NE1: I admitted that I was late.

NT11: ผมสายมาไม่ทัน

pʰŏm	sǎːi	maː	mâi	tʰan
1Msg	late	come	NEG	be.on.time

I was late and couldn't make it on time.

Both the NE and NT opted for expression of responsibility strategy manifesting in the sub-strategy admission of facts. It is possible that this sub-strategy was employed

in order to show the hearer that the speaker was aware of his or her wrongdoing and was willing to admit that it is his or her own fault for missing the presentation.

Explicit display of an apology was another shared apology strategy choice for the NE and NT.

NE5: I am terribly sorry.

NT18: ขอโทษครับอาจารย์

kʰɔ̌ːtʰôːt̄ kʰráp̄ aːtɕaːn

apologize SLP professor

I apologize, professor.

At sub-strategy levels, the NE participants chose expression of regret as seen in the NE5 apology. All the NT, on the other hand, opted for offer of an apology. Both sub-strategies are rather formulaic in both languages, and both the NE and NT chose to use the conventional form of realizing IFIDs in their own languages. Another difference was the use of upgrader. The NE upgraded their explicit display of an apology using the intensifier “terribly” most frequently in this situation. Statistical analysis reveals that the use of intensifier is significantly different between the NE and NT ($p<.01$). It is seen that an intensifier was widely used to upgrade explicit display of an apology in the NE data whereas some of the NT participants would include alerters in their apologies.

For the minor offence (-R), both the NE and NT shared the same norms as they employed similar apology strategies: explicit display of an apology and expression of responsibility for the offence. The sub-strategy chosen for each main strategy was similar to the one each group chose for the severe offence. For expression of

responsibility, the sub-strategy that all subjects in both groups employed was admission of facts:

NE1: I wasn't looking.

NT1: หนูไม่ทันระวัง

nŭ:	mâi	tʰan	ráwaŋ
1Fsg	NEG	in.time	be.careful

I was not careful.

For explicit display of an apology, the NE opted for expression of regret while the NT chose offer of an apology with an alerter accompanying an offer of apology:

NE4: I'm sorry.

NT8: ขอโทษครับอาจารย์

kʰɔ̌:tʰô:t̄	kʰráp̄	a:tɕa:n
apologize	SLP	professor

I apologize, professor.

It is interesting to note that the offence in situation 3 was initially designed to be minor. However, it is possible that jumping in front of a familiar professor's car can cause damages to the car and the speaker might be injured. That is why both the NE and NT considered it somewhat serious. This, then, resulted in both groups of native speakers' agreements in using explicit display of an apology to apologize to the professor.

It can be concluded that when the NE and NT apologized to a familiar, higher status hearer for a severe offence, the English and Thai norms were different – expression of responsibility for the offence by admitting facts for the English and

appealer for the Thai. For a minor offence, the norms were the same; that is, both the NE and NT employed the same apology strategy – explicit display of an apology.

5.1.2 Apologizing to an unfamiliar professor (+D)

The hearer in situations 2 (submitting a questionnaire late to a professor) and 4 (losing a professor's books) is an unfamiliar professor (+P, +D). The offence of situation 4 is severe (+R) while that of situation 2 is minor (-R). Table 11 summarizes the most frequently employed apology strategies in the two situations. The strategies in bold are the most frequently employed.

Table 11: The NE and NT's most frequently used strategies when apologizing to an unfamiliar professor

An unfamiliar professor (+P, +D)			
+R (S4)		**-R (S2)**	
NE	**NT**	**NE**	**NT**
1. Offer of repair (N=26, 26%)	**1. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=22, 30.56%)**	**1. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=23, 33.33%)**	**1. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=22, 30.56%)**
2. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=24, 24%)	2. Explicit display of an apology (N=17, 23.61%)	2. Explicit display of an apology (N=20, 28.99%)	2. Explicit display of an apology (N=17, 23.61%)
3. Explicit display of an apology (N=20, 20%)	3. Offer of repair (N=15, 20.83%)		3. Alerter (N=16, 22.22%)

When apologizing to an unfamiliar professor for a severe offence (+R), it is found that the NE and NT did not share the same norms. The NE favored offer of repair the most, for example,

NE17: I'd like to replace the books. Can I have the titles?

The severe offence involved damaging personal materials (a professor's books). Offer of repair strategy is employed in order to show the hearer that the speaker is

willing to compensate for the damage. The NE's use of offer of repair is significantly different when compared to the NT ($p<.01$). That is, the NT employed this strategy significantly less frequently than the NE.

Unlike the NE, the NT opted for expression of responsibility for the offence most frequently, using the sub-strategy admission of facts, as can be seen in this example:

NT16: ผมทำหนังสืออาจารย์หายครับ

pʰŏm	tʰam	nǎŋsɯ̌ː	aːtɕaːn	hǎːi	kʰráp̚
1Msg	make	book	professor	lost	SLP

I have lost your books.

The NE also employed expression of responsibility with the same sub-strategy admission of facts as the second most frequently used apology strategy, as in the following example:

NE9: I seem to have lost the books that I borrowed.

It might be said that both groups considered this sub-strategy to help redress the severe offence, especially with the unfamiliar, more power hearer.

Apart from the difference in the most frequently employed apology strategy, both the NE and NT made use of explicit display of an apology when they apologized to an unfamiliar professor. The difference can be found in the selections of sub-strategy – expression of regret by the NE (e.g. *I'm sorry*) and offer of an apology by the NT, which are the formulaic apologetic expression in their own languages. It can also be observed that an alerter was incorporated in the NT's explicit display of an apology, as seen in this example:

NT1: หนูขอโทษนะคะอาจารย์

nǔ:	kʰɔ̌:tʰô:t̄	ná	kʰá	a:tɕa:n
1Fsg	apologize	PP	SLP	professor

I apologize, professor.

When the offence is minor (-R), both the NE and NT shared the same norms, employing the same most and second most frequently used apology strategies – expression of responsibility for the offence and explicit display of an apology. At sub-strategy levels, both groups opted for admission of facts as a sub-strategy of expression of responsibility, as seen in the following examples:

NE18: I didn't hand in the questionnaire on time.

NT4: หนูเอามาส่งช้าไป

nǔ:	au	ma:	sòŋ	tɕʰá:	pai
1Fsg	take	come	hand in	slow	go

I summited it too late.

For explicit display of an apology, the NE employed the sub-strategy expression of regret while the NT opted for offer of an apology with the use of alerter following the IFID, for example,

NT12: ขอโทษครับอาจารย์

kʰɔ̌:tʰô:t̄	kʰráp̄	a:tɕa:n
apologize	SLP	professor

I apologize, professor.

To summarize, when apologizing to an unfamiliar professor for a serious offence which involves material damage, the two native speaker groups did not share the same norms; that is, the NE opted for offer of repair most frequently while the NT chose expression of responsibility for the offence by admission of facts. With the minor offence, the norms were shared – both the NE and NT agreed on choosing expression of responsibility for the offence by admission of facts. The use of alerter was found only in the NT data when they apologized to an unfamiliar professor in both severe and minor offences to address the hearer.

5.2 Apologizing to the speaker's best friend/classmate (=P)

The hearer in situations 5 to 8 in the oral DCT is the speaker's best friend (situations 5 and 7) and the speaker's classmate (situations 6 and 8) who has equal relative power to the speaker (=P). In situations 5 and 7, the speaker is familiar with the best friend (-D) while in situations 6 and 8, he or she is not familiar with the classmate (+D).

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5.2.1 Apologizing to the best friend (-D)

The hearer in situations 5 (damaging the best friend's laptop) and 7 (being late for an appointment) is the best friend whom the speaker is familiar with (=P, -D). The offence of situation 5 is severe (+R) while that of situation 7 is minor (-R). Table 12 summarizes the most frequently employed apology strategies in the two situations. The strategies in bold are the most frequently employed strategies.

Table 12: The NE and NT's most frequently used strategies when apologizing to the best friend (-D)

The best friend (=P, -D)			
+R (S5)		**–R (S7)**	
NE	**NT**	**NE**	**NT**
1. Explicit display of an apology (N=26, 24.30%)	**1. Offer of repair (N=22, 29.73%)**	**1. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=27, 39.13%)**	**1. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=23, 43.40%)**
2. Offer of repair (N=22, 20.56%)	2. Explicit display of an apology (N=19, 25.68%)	2. Explicit display of an apology (N=21, 30.43%)	2. Explicit display of an apology (N=22, 41.51%)
3. Upgrader: intensifier (N=31, 28.97%)			

When they apologized to the best friend (=P, -D) for a severe offence (+R) which involved damaging the hearer's property, it is found that the NE and NT did not share the same norms of apologizing. All of the NE exhibited the most frequent use of explicit display of an apology using the sub-strategy expression of regret, and intensified their apologies with an upgrader under the intensifier sub-category. Some even doubled their explicit display of an apology and intensifiers. In addition, offer of repair was another apology strategy that the NE used following explicit display of an apology, as in the following example,

NE16: I'm *so so* sorry. I'll take it to a place to get it fixed, and I'll pay for everything. I'm sorry.

In contrast, the NT employed offer of repair most frequently, followed by explicit display of an apology using the offer of an apology sub-category. Statistically significant differences are found between the NE and NT in the use of upgrader under the sub-strategy intensifier ($p<.01$). The NT's did not upgrade their apology with intensifiers as many as the NE did. An example of an NT apology is as follows:

NT5: ขอโทษ เดี๋ยวเราชดใช้ค่าเสียหายให้

kʰɔ̌ːtʰôːt̄ dĭau rau tɕʰóttɕʰaí kʰâːsĭahăːi hâi

apologize soon 1sg compensate damage give

I apologize. I will compensate for the damage.

When the offence was minor (-R), the two groups of native speakers shared the same norms – similar apology strategies were employed by both the NE and NT. That is, both groups chose expression of responsibility under the admission of fact sub-strategy and explicit display of an apology. For explicit display of an apology, the NE opted for the sub-strategy expression of regret while the NT used the sub-strategy offer of an apology. Examples of both the NE and NT apologies when apologizing to the best friend for a minor offence are as follows:

NE20: Sorry. Forgot the wallet.

NT17: ขอโทษทีนะ เราลืมเป๋าตังค์เลยต้องกลับไปเอา

kʰɔ̌ːtʰôːt̄ tʰiː ná rau lɯːm păutaŋ lɤː tɔ̂ːŋ klàp̄ pai au

apologize time PP 1sg forget wallet LP must return go take

I apologize. I forgot my wallet, so I had to go back and get it.

It can be concluded that when apologizing to the best friend for a severe offence involving material damages, the native speakers' norms differed. The NE employed explicit display of an apology most frequently while the NT opted for offer of repair. For a minor offence, the NE and NT shared the same norms; that is, expression of

responsibility for the offence by admission of factswas the most frequently used apology strategy by both the NE and NT.

5.2.2 Apologizing to a classmate (+D)

The hearer in situations 6 (forgetting to inform classmates of class cancellation) and 8 (forgetting to tell a classmate to go see a professor) is a classmate whom the speaker is not familiar with (=P, +D). The offence of situation 8 is severe (+R) while that of situation 6 is minor (-R). Table 13 summarizes the most frequently employed apology strategies in the two situations. The strategies in bold are the most frequently employed strategies.

Table 13: The NE and NT's apology strategy choices when apologizing to a classmate (+D)

A classmate (=P, +D)			
+R (S8)		**-R (S6)**	
NE	**NT**	**NE**	**NT**
1. Explicit display of an apology (N=23, 23.23%)	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=24, 34.78%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=24, 27.27%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=22, 34.92%)**
2. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=21, 21.21%)	2. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=17, 24.64%)	2. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=21, 23.86%)	2. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=17, 26.98%)
3. Upgrader: intensifier (N=20, 20.20%)			

When they apologized to an unfamiliar classmate (=P, +D) for a severe offence, both the NE and NT shared the same norms as seen in the similarities in their apology strategy choices: explicit display of an apology and expression of responsibility by admitting facts. Sub-strategically, they employed different sub-strategies for explicit display of an apology – expression of regret for the NE and offer of an apology for the

NT. However, unlike the NT who did not upgrade their apologies, the NE also incorporated an intensifier, which is a sub-strategy of upgrader, in their apologies. For example,

NE17: I'm really sorry. It completely slipped my mind.

NT15: เราขอโทษ

rau	kʰɔ̌:tʰô:t̄
1sg	apologize

I apologize.

เราลืมบอกว่าอาจารย์ต้องการพบนาย

rau	lɯ:m	bɔ̀:k̄	wâ:	a:tɕa:n	tɔ̂:ŋka:n	pʰóp̄	na:i
1sg	forget	tell	COMP	professor	want	meet	2Msg

I forgot to tell you that the professor wanted to see you.

Similar strategies were employed by both the NE and NT when they apologized to unfamiliar classmates for a minor offence (-R). That is, both the NE and NT opted for explicit display of an apology and expression of responsibility for the offence. At sub-strategy levels, they employed different sub-strategies to explicitly apologize – expression of regret for the NE and offer of an apology for the NT. Examples of the NE and NT's apologies are as follows:

NE13: Sorry, I totally forgot to tell you the class's been cancelled

NT9: ขอโทษครับเพื่อนๆ

kʰɔ̌:tʰô:t̄	kʰráp̄	pʰɯ̂an-pʰɯ̂an
apologize	SLP	friends

I apologize, friends.

อาจารย์ฝากมาบอกว่าวันนี้งดสอน แต่ผมลืมเลยมาบอกช้า

aːtɕaːn	fàːk̄	maː	bɔ̀ːk̄	wâː	wannís	ŋót̄
sɔ̌ːn						
professor	give	come	tell	COMP	today	cancel
teach						
tɛ̀ː	pʰǒm	lɯːm	lɤːi	maː	bɔ̀ːk̄	tɕʰáː
but	1MSg	forget	LP	come	tell	slow

The professor had asked me to tell you that the class was cancelled, but I forgot and thus, let you know late.

In summary, when they apologized to an unfamiliar classmate for both severe and minor offences, the NE and NT shared the same norms. They favored explicit display of an apology and expression of responsibility for the offence by admitting facts.

5.3 Apologizing to a freshman (-P)

The hearer in situations 9 to 12 in the oral DCT is a freshman who has lower relative power (-P). In situations 9 and 11, the speaker is familiar with a freshman (-D) while in situations 10 and 12, he or she is not (+D).

5.3.1 Apologizing to a familiar freshman (-D)

The hearer in situations 9 (forgetting to bring a flash drive to a presentation) and 11 (taking blurred photos) is a freshman whom the speaker is familiar with (-P, -D). The offence of situation 9 is severe (+R) while that of situation 11 is minor (-R). Table

14 summarizes the most frequently employed apology strategies in the two situations. The strategies in bold are the most frequently employed strategies.

Table 14: The NE and NT's apology strategy choices when apologizing to a familiar freshman (-D)

Freshman (-P, -D)			
+R (S9)		**-R (S11)**	
NE	**NT**	**NE**	**NT**
1. Explicit display of an apology (N=25, 24.27%)	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=24, 33.80%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=20, 25.64%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=16, 27.59%)**
2. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=19, 18.45%)	2. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=13, 18.31%)	2. Expression of responsibility: self-deficiency (N=17, 21.79%)	2. Expression of responsibility: self-deficiency (N=15, 25.86%)
3. Upgrader: intensifier (N=18, 17.48%)			

When they apologized to a familiar freshman for a severe offence (+R), it is revealed that the NE and NT shared the same norms of apologizing. They preferred explicit display of an apology and expression of responsibility. Sub-strategically, they chose different sub-strategies for explicit display of an apology (i.e. expression of regret for the NE and offer of an apology for the NT), but opted for the same sub-strategy for expression of responsibility for the offence – admission of facts. Examples of apologies by the NE and NT are as follows:

NE11: I'm really sorry. I forgot to bring the USB.

NT17: พี่ขอโทษนะ

pʰî: kʰɔ̌:tʰô:t̄ ná

OS1 apologize PP

I apologize.

พี่ทำให้ทุกคนต้องเสียเวลาและโดนหักคะแนน

pʰî:	tʰam	hâi	tʰúk̄kʰon	tɔ̂:ŋ	sĭa	we:la:	lɛ́:	do:n
hàk̄	kʰánɛ:n							
OS1	make	give	everybody	must	waste	time	and	PASS
	deduct point							

I wasted your time and your points got deducted.

With a minor offence (-R), the norms were also shared. That is to say, both the NE and NT employed the same apology strategies: explicit display of an apology and taking responsibility. The differences lied in their selection of sub-strategies for explicit display of an apology – the NE opted for expression of regret while the NT employed offer of an apology. Regarding the expression of responsibility strategy, both the NE and NT chose self-deficiency. In situation 11, the speaker took blurred photos for the hearer. It is possibly to say that this sub-strategy is rather context-dependent. The participants were aware of their wrongdoings. However, since the offence was minor, self-deficiency could be enough to show the speaker's responsibility without fully admitting to the wrongdoing. Examples of the NE and NT's apologies are as follows:

NE2: Sorry, I just couldn't work the camera.

NT8: พี่ขอโทษนะคะ

pʰî:	kʰɔ̌:tʰô:t̄	ná	kʰá
OS1	apologize	PP	SLP

I apologize.

พี่ใช้กล้องรุ่นนี้ไม่ค่อยเป็น

pʰîː tɕʰái klɔ̂ːŋ rûn níː mâi kʰɔ̂ːi pen

OS1 use camera model this NEG quite POT

I don’t really know how to use this model of camera.

To conclude, when they apologized to a familiar freshman in both severe and minor offences, the NE and NT shared the same norms of apologizing. They employed explicit display of an apology most frequently.

5.3.2 Apologizing to an unfamiliar freshman (+D)

The hearer in situations 10 (forgetting to return a pen) and 12 (spilling coffee on a freshman’s assignment) is a freshman whom the speaker is not familiar with (-P, +D). The offence of situation 12 is severe (+R) while that of situation 10 is minor (-R). Table 15 summarizes the most frequently employed apology strategies in the two situations. The strategies in bold are the most frequently employed strategies.

Table 15: The NE and NT’s apology strategy choices when apologizing to an unfamiliar freshman (+D)

An unfamiliar freshman (-P, +D)			
+R (S12)		**-R (S10)**	
NE	**NT**	**NE**	**NT**
1. Explicit display of an apology (N=27, 24.55%)	**1. Offer of repair (N=24, 40%)**	**1. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts, Explicit display of an apology (N=14, 22.58%)**	**1. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts, Explicit display of an apology (N=15, 26.32%)**
2. Offer of repair (N=26, 23.64%)	2. Explicit display of an apology (N=21, 35%)		2. Alerter (N=12, 21.05%)
3. Upgrader: intensifier (N=25, 22.73%)			

When they apologized to an unfamiliar freshman for a severe offence (+R), the norms of apologizing differed between the NE and NT. For the NE, explicit display of an apology under the expression of regret sub-strategy was preferred the most with the use of upgrader intensifier to upgrade their apologies, as in this example:

NE7: I’m very sorry.

It is also found that the NE used wider ranges of intensifier such as very, so, really and extremely.

Unlike the NE, the NT employed offer of repair most frequently, as in this example:

NT8: พี่จะช่วยทำหรือช่วยสอนใหม่นะจะได้ทันส่งอาจารย์

pʰîː	tɕà	tɕʰûai	tʰam	rŭː	tɕʰûai	sɔ̌ːn	mǎi	ná
OS1	CM	help	make	or	help	teach	new	PP
tɕà	dâi	tʰan		sòŋ		aːtɕaːn		
CM	POT	be.on.time		hand in		professor		

I’ll help you do it or teach you, so you can submit it on time.

For the second most frequently used apology strategy, the NE employed offer of repair, as seen in this example:

NE9: Maybe I can help you rewrite it.

The NT chose explicit display of an apology under the sub-strategy offer of an apology, as in the following example:

NT8: พี่ขอโทษ

pʰî: kʰɔ̌:tʰô:t̄

OS1 apologise

I apologize.

When the offence is minor (-R), the norms are the same. In other words, both the NE and NT employed explicit display of an apology and expression of responsibility most frequently. Sub-strategically, both groups differed in their selections of explicit display of an apology sub-strategies. The NE employed expression of regret while the NT preferred offer of an apology with alerter, as seen in the following examples:

NE18: Sorry, I might have kept your pen.

NT14: น้อง พี่ขอโทษ

nɔ́:ŋ pʰî: kʰɔ̌:tʰô:t̄

YS2 OS1 apologise

Sister, I apologize.

Another most frequently employed apology strategy shared among the NE and NT is expression of responsibility under the sub-strategy admission of facts, as seen in the following examples:

NE4: I might have kept your pen.

NT20: พี่ลืมคืนปากกาน้องน่ะ

pʰî: lɯ:m kʰɯ:n pà:k̄ka: nɔ́:ŋ ńa

OS1 forget return pen YS2 PP

I forgot to return your pen.

The offence of forgetting to return a pen but managing to do so before the hearer leaves was considered minor. In addition, the result from the assessment study indicated that both the NE and NT agreed that the speaker is not obliged to apologize to the hearer. Moreover, the mean average of their severity rating is the lowest when compared to other situations with minor offences. The number of subjects' apology tokens was, thus, rather limited when compared to those with the severe offence. In fact, some participants in both groups chose to opt out, not apologizing at all.

It can be concluded that when they apologized to an unfamiliar freshman for a severe offence involving material damages, the NE and NT's norms of apologizing differed: explicit display of an apology for the NE and offer of repair for the NT. When the offence was minor, both groups shared the same norms: explicit display of an apology and expression of responsibility.

In this section, the apology strategies frequently employed by the NE and NT in each situation in university contexts have been reported. In the next section, the native norms of apologies will be discussed.

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5.4 NE and NT's most frequently employed apology strategy choices across situations

As Al Adaileh (2007) points out, "apologies are semantic formulas planned to amend harm for which the apologizer is held responsible. When employed effectively, such formulas give birth to a speech act of a high pragmatic value and impact" (p. 142). From the previous section, it can be seen that in university contexts, there are some similarities and differences when the NE and NT apologize to a different hearer with different social distance and relative power for a severe or minor offence.

In this section, the native norms of apologies will be compared and contrasted with possible explanation provided. Table 16 summarizes the native norms of apologies. Numbers 1, 2, 3 and 4 represent the most frequently employed apology strategy when apologizing to a hearer under different variables. The encircled numbers represent the differences between the English and Thai norms.

Table 16: The native norms (NE and NT) of apologies

	Professor (+P)				**Best friend/classmate (=P)**				**Freshman (-P)**			
	-D		**+D**		**-D**		**+D**		**-D**		**+D**	
	-R	**+R**	**-R**	**+R**	**-R**	**+R**	**-R**	**+R**	**-R**	**+R**	**-R**	**+R**
NE	1	2	2	3	2	1	1	1	1	1	1, 2	1
NT	1	4	2	2	2	3	1	1	1	1	1, 2	3

Power: +P the hearer has higher status than the speaker
=P the hearer and the speaker have the equal status
-P the hearer has lower status than the speaker
Distance: +D the hearer and the speaker are not familiar with each other
-D the hearer and the speaker are familiar with each other
Severity: +R the offence is severe
-R the offence is minor
1 = explicit display of an apology 2 = expression of responsibility by admitting facts
3 = offer of repair 4 = appealer

The differences found in the English and Thai norms of apologizing will be discussed first, followed by the similarities.

5.4.1 Differences between the English and Thai norms of apologizing

As seen from Table 16, out of the twelve situations, the native norms differ in four situations. The summary of the situations where the English and Thai norms differ is presented in Table 17.

Table 17: The differences between the English and Thai norms of apologies

Situations	English norms	Thai norms
1) Apologizing to a familiar professor for a severe offence	Expression of responsibility by admitting facts	Appealer
2) Apologizing to an unfamiliar professor for a severe offence	Offer of repair	Expression of responsibility by admitting facts
3) Apologizing to the best friend for a severe offence	Explicit display of an apology	Offer of repair
4) Apologizing to an unfamiliar freshman for a severe offence	Explicit display of an apology	Offer of repair

The table illustrates that when the NE and NT apologized to a familiar professor for a severe offence, the English and Thai norms differed: expression of responsibility by admitting facts for the English and appealer for the Thai. In such situation, the offence was severe and might have had a negative effect on the speaker's academic record. The NE chose to admit the fact that they were late for the presentation and accept that it was their own responsibility. Considering the obligation to apologize, the NE felt that an apology is absolutely required. Although the NE norms are expression of responsibility by admitting facts, which is considered an indirect or implicit apology (Birner 2013),it reflects their urge to apologize to the professor. The NT, on the contrary, exhibited a different apology strategy – they asked for a make-up presentation more frequently than explicitly apologizing or taking any responsibility despite their rating of the obligation to apologize as absolutely required. It is possible to say that the NT considered their academic records very important that most of them seemed to forget to explicitly apologize or at least, take any responsibility. Thai people are generally expected to be respectful to older people, including teachers who have more power than students in university contexts. The Thai norms in this situation seem to suggest that such characteristic of Thai people may not always be predictable when the

offence is costly to the speaker's benefit. Moreover, this also suggests that the severe offence or the high obligation to apologize do not always correlate with explicit apologies. If the offence is costly to the speaker, other apology strategies can be selected for the speaker's benefit.

Another difference between the English and Thai norms can be found when the NE and NT apologized to an unfamiliar professor for a severe offence. The severe offence involved material damages – losing a professor's books. Offending the distant hearer who had more relative power for a severe offence, both the NE and NT felt obliged to apologize as the offence was obviously the speaker's fault. The apology strategies most frequently chosen by both native speaker groups were implicit. The NE favored offer of repair whereas the NT opted for expression of responsibility by admitting facts. Offer of repair is a context-sensitive apology strategy that illustrates the speaker's commitment to compensate the damage caused (Ogiermann, 2009). This possibly shows that the NE were sensitive to the context. Their use of direct offers of repair perhaps demonstrated the NE's high commitment to repair. For the NT, it is possible to say that, it is best to take responsibility by admitting that they had committed the offence to an unfamiliar professor whose relative power was higher. Despite causing damages, offer of repair is not the Thai norms in this situation. This can possibly be explained by distinguishing the differences between the two strategies. As previously explained, offer of repair shows the speaker's willingness to repair for the damage, implicitly showing that the speaker takes full responsibility for the offence. Expression of responsibility by admitting facts, in contrast, suggests that the speaker acknowledges that he or she has offended the hearer, but does not take full responsibility (Blum-kulka,

et al, 1989). Not all of the NT might feel fully responsible for the offence as seen in this example:

NT1: หนูลืมคืนหนังสือและหนังสือน่าจะหายไปแล้ว

nŭː	lɯːm	kʰɯːn	nǎŋsŭː	lɛ́	nǎŋsŭː	nâːtɕà	hǎːi	pai	lɛ́ːu
1Fsg	forget	return	book	and	book	may	lost	go	already

I forgot to return the books and they may have been lost.

It is possible that by saying “they may have been lost” instead of “I have lost the books”, the speaker may not want to take full responsibility. It may also show that the speaker may be aware that he or she may not be able to compensate the hearer for the damage. Comparing the Thai norms in this situation and the Thai norms when they apologized to a familiar professor for a severe offence, it seems to confirm, as discussed in 5.1.2.1, that for the NT, in order to apologize, they might also consider whether the offence is costly to the speaker’s benefit or not. Another possible explanation is that the NT may feel inferior to a professor, resulting in some of them feeling less comfortable to offer repairs.

The third difference between the English and Thai norms occurred when the NE and NT apologized to the best friend for a severe offence. The offence again involved damaging the hearer’s personal belonging. The English norms were explicit display of an apology by expressing regret while the Thai norms were offer of repair. The offence, damaging the best friend’s laptop, was considered the most severe and an apology was absolutely required by both the NE and NT. The assessment of situational variables is reflected in the NE’s frequent use of explicit display of an apology by expressing regret.

The frequent use of explicit display of an apology also reflects the speaker's illocutionary purposes or the intention to apologize. It seems that the NT felt more willing to offer repairs to the equal power hearer to whom they were close.

The last difference between the English and Thai norms of apologies can be found when the NE and NT apologized to an unfamiliar freshman for a severe offence. Similar to the difference in the English and Thai norms when the NE and NT apologized to the best friend for a severe offence previously discussed, the NE favored explicit display of an apology whereas the NT opted for offer of repair. Such difference seems to suggest that for the English norms, explicit display of an apology was commonly more preferable when the NE apologized to the hearer whose relative power equals that of the speaker while a context-dependent apology strategy such as offer of repair was less common, preferably offered to the hearer whose relative power is higher than that of the speaker. On the contrary, The NT seemed to offer repairs to the hearer whose relative power equals or is less than that of the speaker; in other words, those whom they did not feel inferior to. For such a hearer, an explicit apology may not be as necessary. For the Thai, it is possible that compensating would be more appropriate in remedying the situations.

According to Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 76), differences in the assessment of situational variables can be the effect of different cultures, which would influence the speech act production. In this case, the four differences found between the English and Thai norms illustrate that despite similar assessment of situational variables, the selection of apology strategies can be different, which could be explained by the different in cultural beliefs as discussed. The similarities in the English and Thai norms will be discussed next.

5.4.2 Similarities in the English and Thai norms of apologizing

Despite some differences in the native norms of apologies, the native norms are the same in the following situations, as presented in Table 18:

Table 18: The similarities in the English and Thai norms of apologies

Situations	Normal strategies used
1) Apologizing to an unfamiliar professor for a minor offence	Expression of responsibility by admitting facts
2) Apologizing to a familiar professor for a minor offence	Explicit display of an apology
3) Apologizing to the best friend for a minor offence	Expression of responsibility by admitting facts
4) Apologizing to a classmate for a minor offence	Explicit display of an apology
5) Apologizing to a classmate for a severe offence	Explicit display of an apology
6) Apologizing to a familiar freshman for a minor offence	Explicit display of an apology
7) Apologizing to a familiar freshman for a severe offence	Explicit display of an apology
8) Apologizing to an unfamiliar freshman for a minor offence	Explicit display of an apology and Expression of responsibility by admitting facts

Table 18 shows that in these situations, the apology strategies commonly preferred are explicit display of an apology and expression of responsibility by admitting facts. The similarities in the English and Thai norms of apologies will be discussed according to each situation.

Both the English and Thai norms were the same when they apologized to an unfamiliar professor for a minor offence. Both the NE and NT favored expression of responsibility by admitting fact. The situation, forgetting to submit a questionnaire, was considered a minor offence since it did not harm or cause damage to the hearer. The fact that both groups felt that an apology should be given to the hearer reflects that they were possibly aware of the hearer's higher relative power and the distance between

themselves and the hearer. Although the offence was not severe, they still chose to apologize. Looking at the most frequently employed apology strategy – expression of responsibility by admitting facts – suggests that the speakers acknowledged their fault, but did not take full responsibility or explicitly apologize probably because the offence was minor.

When they apologized to a familiar professor for a minor offence, both the NE and NT did not employ expression of responsibility by admitting facts the way they did when apologizing to an unfamiliar professor for a minor offence. One possible explanation for such difference is that, in this situation, the NE and NT' rating of severity of the offence differed from the initial rating when designing the Oral DCT. The offence of this situation was initially designed to be minor. However, in the main study, both the NE and NT considered it a somewhat serious offence, not minor. The difference in rating might be because the hearer in this situation was a familiar professor (-D, +P) and the offence possibly involved physical damage. Therefore, both the NE and NT might feel the need to explicitly apologize, resulting in their similar use of explicit display of an apology.

The same native norms were also found when the NE and NT apologized to the best friend for a minor offence – expression of responsibility by admitting facts. The offence involves being ten minutes late to an appointment. The situational assessment study (see Chapter 4) indicates that both the NE and NT did not consider the offence as severe, but they would apologize to the hearer. According to Gudy Kunst and Ting-Toomy (1988, as cited in Al-Adaileh, 2007, p. 123), there are five time intervals for being late that would affect how the native speakers of English should apologize. For being ten minutes late, the speaker should offer a slight apology, which means that the

speaker should at least say something to please the hearer. In this case, both the NE and NT demonstrated that they might share the same perception of time intervals for being late and chose to implicitly apologize in order to please the hearer. Moreover, since the hearer was the best friend, not the professor whose relative power is higher than that of the speaker, expression of responsibility would probably be sufficient.

When they apologized to a classmate for both severe and minor offences, the NE and NT shared the same norms – explicit display of an apology. The rating of the obligation to apologize revealed that they believed that an apology was required for both offences. Therefore, explicit display of an apology would be an appropriate apology strategy in apologizing to the unfamiliar hearer who had equal relative power to that of the speaker.

The same native norms were also found when the NE and NT apologized to a familiar freshman for both severe and minor offences – explicit display of an apology, and when apologizing to an unfamiliar freshman for a minor offence – explicit display of an apology and expression of responsibility by admitting facts. The NE and NT perceived the relative power of a freshman differently. The NE were different from the NT in their rating of the freshman as having equal power while the rest considered the freshman having less power. This might be the evidence of cultural differences in university contexts in the two cultures. For Thai people, seniority is important (Thijittang, 2010), and this notion is reflected in many contexts. In Thai university contexts, for example, freshmen are younger than their seniors and they are considered the newcomers in universities. They are expected to be respectful to the seniors and be humble when interacting to them. Unlike Thai students, students in universities in Australia are treated equally – there is no seniority among students. That is why the

native speakers' rating of relative power for a freshman were different. Despite the difference in the assessment of relative power, when the social distance is close, the norms were the same. Explicitly apologizing seems to be most preferred.

When the NE and NT apologized to an unfamiliar freshman for a minor offence which was considered as not really requiring an apology, explicit display of an apology and expression of responsibility by admitting facts were the native norms in both English and Thai. This seems to support what Brown and Levinson (1987, pp. 81-82) hypothesize about the relationship between social distance and the production of speech acts. That is, more apologies can be expected when there is an increase in social distance between the speaker and the hearer. Although both native speakers considered the offence minor and did not require an apology, they chose to employ both explicit display of an apology and expression of responsibility possibly because of an increase in social distance. Furthermore, although the subjects agreed that an apology is not necessary, but some of them still apologized for such a minor offence. These findings parallel with what previous researchers (e.g. Bergman and Kasper, 1993; Olshtain and Cohen, 1983; and Goffman, 1971, as cited in Bergman and Kasper, 1993) suggest, i.e. apologies are a tool to help maintain social harmony. An apology may not always be necessary in all situations, but the speaker chooses to apologize in order to remedy the situation.

In this section, the English and Thai norms of apologies in university context have been discussed in terms of their similarities and differences. It can be seen that situational variables: social distance, relative power, severity of the offence and obligation to apologize, play an important role in the selection of apology strategies in university contexts. The native speakers in this study were Australian English, selected

as representatives of native English speaker population, and Thai. The findings revealed the similarities and differences in the English and Thai norms of apologies.

5.5 Summary

This chapter reports and discusses the apology strategy choices in the views of two groups of native speakers of English and Thai. Generally, the NE and NT were similar in terms of apology strategy choices: explicit display of an apology, expression of responsibility for the offence and offer of repair. The first two strategies were employed across situations whereas the last strategy was rather situation-dependent. The frequency of use, however, varied in relation to situational variables. Some differences were found in the realizations of explicit display of an apology. That is, the subjects preferred to use different sub-strategies, which are commonly used formulaic apologetic expressions in their mother tongues. It is also found that the NE tended to intensify their explicit display of an apology more than the NT who rarely intensified their formulaic apologetic expressions. Then, the English and Thai norms of apologizing in university contexts were reported. It showed that the English and Thai norms differ in four situations. Comparing the English and Thai norms of apologizing in relation to the situational variables illustrates that such variables play an important role in apologizing. It also revealed that the perceptions of the situational variables affect the way the native speakers apologize. In the next chapter, the Thai EFL learners' apology strategies and metapragmatic awareness will be presented and discussed.

CHAPTER SIX: THE INTERLANGUAGE PRAGMATICS OF THAI EFL LEARNERS' APOLOGIES

This chapter investigates pragmatic production and pragmatic perception of Thai EFL learners by examining the learners' apology strategy choices and their metapragmatic awareness with an aim to find out if levels of English language proficiency and experience help enhance the EFL learners' pragmatic knowledge. The chapter begins with section 6.1 which presents apology strategy choices among the four groups of Thai EFL learners in comparison with those of the native speaker groups (NE and NT). In section 6.2, the results of Thai EFL learners' metapragmatic awareness are reported. The chapter summary is provided in section 6.3.

6.1 Thai EFL learners' apology strategy choices

In this section, Thai EFL learners' apology strategy choices collected using the oral DCT (see Appendix 4) are presented in four sub-sections: (6.1.1) apologizing to a professor (+P); (6.1.2) apologizing to the best friend and a classmate (=P); (6.1.3) apologizing to a freshman (-P); and (6.1.4) Interesting correlations found in the interlanguage pragmatic findings.

6.1.1 Apologizing to a professor (+P)

The hearer in situations 1 to 4 in the oral DCT is a professor who has higher relative power over the speaker (+P). In situations 1 and 3, the speaker is familiar with the professor (-D) while in situations 2 and 4, he or she is not (+D).

6.1.1.1 Apologizing to a familiar professor (-D)

The hearer in situations 1 (being late for the final oral presentation) and 3 (jumping in front of a professor's car) is a familiar professor (+P, -D). The offence of situation 1 is severe (+R) while that of situation 3 is minor (-R). Table 19 summarizes the frequently employed apology strategies in the two situations. The strategies in bold are the most frequently employed strategies by the participants.

Table 19: Thai EFL learners' most frequently used apology strategies when apologizing to a familiar professor (-D)

A familiar professor (+P, -D)		HH	HL	LH	LL
	+R (S1)	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=9, 21.42%)**	**1. Appealer (N=9, 19.15%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=7, 26.92%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=7, 26.92%)**
		2. Appealer (N=8, 19.05%)	2. Explanation (N=8, 17.02%)	2. Appealer (N=6, 23.08%)	2. Appealer (N=6, 23.08%)
		3. Downgrader: politeness marker (N=8, 19.05%)	3. Explicit display of an apology (N=7, 14.89%)		
	-R (S3)	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=12, 32.43%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=9, 24.32%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=9, 39.13)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=7, 25.93%)**
		2. Minimization of offence (N=6, 16.22%)	2. Minimization of offence (N=7, 18.92%)		

When they apologized to a familiar professor for a severe offence (+R), it is revealed that the HH, LH and LL employed the similar most frequently employed apology strategy – explicit display of an apology, followed by appealer. Unlike the other three groups, the HL used appealer most frequently, followed by explanation and explicit display of an apology.

The following are some examples of apology strategies employed by the four groups of Thai EFL learners:

HH2: I apologize for being late. Could you please let me present my work?

HL1: Can you give me final presentation again? I prepared for the presentation all night. I'm sorry.

LH3: I'm sorry. Can you accept me to presentation?

LL1: I'm sorry. Can you help me for presentation?

In this situation, where the speaker was late for a final presentation, all groups of Thai EFL learners found that an apology was needed and all groups opted for explicit display of an apology as one of their apology strategy choices, but the HL used it the lowest. The explicit display of an apology sub-strategy found most frequently in all groups of Thai EFL learners was expression of regret (e.g. *I'm sorry*). The offer of apology sub-strategy (e.g. *I apologize*) was found only in the HH data.

All groups of Thai EFL learners' opted for appealer but at different degrees of frequencies. The HL participants were found to employ appealer the most, using it more than explicit display of an apology. The use of appealer is possibly due to the fact that the presentation was very important to the speaker's grade. After offering an explicit apology, most of the subjects made use of appealer for their own benefit. The realization of appealer found among the EFL groups was conventionally indirect request (e.g. *Can I have a chance to take it?*). However, only the HH group was found to incorporate politeness marker "*please*" in their appealer.

The explanation strategy was employed by the HL. This strategy is different from the strategy admission of facts, which is a sub-strategy of expression of responsibility for the offence, in terms of the speaker's degree of acceptance of committing an offence. Explanation showed the hearer that the speaker did not take responsibility of the offence; he or she merely provided an explanation which accounted for the offence.

Comparing with the NE and NT's most frequently employed apology strategy choices, it is found that only the HL shared the same most frequently apology strategy with the NT – appealer. Apart from that, the other groups of Thai EFL learners opted for explicit display of an apology while the NE preferred expression of responsibility for the offence by admitting facts.

Although the HH, LH and LL groups opted for the explicit display of an apology using the expression of regret sub-strategy, a statistical analysis reveals significant differences in the frequency of use between the NE and the HH ($p<.05$), HL ($p<.05$), LH ($p<.05$) and LL ($p<.05$). This means that the NE employed this strategy significantly more frequently. In addition, although the realization of expression of regret was similar among the NE and Thai EFL learner groups, it is discovered that the Thai EFL learners upgraded their explicit apology using intensifiers less frequently than the NE. However, it is interesting to see that the Thai EFL learners did not employed expression of responsibility for the offence in this situation while such strategy was found rather frequently in the NE and NT data. The Thai EFL learners might feel that they have already apologized to the hearer using explicit display of an apology, which to them would show that they knew that it was their fault for being late to the presentation.

When apologizing to a familiar professor for a minor offence (-R), explicit display of an apology was the apology strategy most frequently employed by all groups of Thai EFL learners, which was similar to that found in the NE and NT data. The sub-strategy expression of regret was most frequently used under the realization pattern "I'm sorry", which was found in all groups of Thai EFL learners. In addition, sub-strategies offer of apology (e.g. I apologize) and request for forgiveness (e.g. Please

forgive me) were found only in the HH data but only in limited number (N=2 and N=1, respectively).

Although explicit display of an apology was the most frequently employed apology strategy among the native speaker groups and all four groups of Thai EFL learners, the HH and HL's second most frequently employed strategy was different from that of the natives. That is, the HH and HL preferred minimization of offence while the NE and NT opted for taking responsibility under the sub-strategy admission of facts. Minimization of offence was also employed by the NT but not as frequently as explicit display of an apology and taking responsibility by admitting fact. The following examples are the HH and HL's realizations of the sub-strategy minimization of offence:

HH2: Don't worry about me. I'm perfectly alright.

HL4: I'm fine. Don't scratch myself.

Both the HH and HL reassured the hearer that they were alright after jumping in front of the hearer's car. This sub-strategy was employed after explicit display of an apology, revealing that the speaker was aware of the offence committed and wanted to console the hearer that he or she did not hurt the speaker. The HH also added the adverb 'perfectly' to reinforce the message.

It is interesting to note that in the situational assessment, the Thai EFL learner groups rated the offence in the situation as somewhat serious while initially, the offence was designed to be minor. Although there was no damage caused, the speaker in the situation accidentally jumped in front of his familiar professor's car. The damage could potentially be caused. This might be the reason why the offence is considered somewhat serious.

The results illustrate that when offering an apology to a familiar professor for a severe offence, only the HL differed from the other Thai EFL learner groups in their most frequently employed apology strategy. That is, they favored appealer, which is similar to the NT's most frequently employed apology strategy, indicating the pragmatic transfer from their L1 to L2 apology. The other groups opted for explicit display of an apology more frequently than appealer. Regarding the minor offence, the Thai EFL learner groups similarly employed explicit display of an apology under the sub-strategy expression of regret most frequently, which is similar to that of the NE and NT. However, it is found that only the HH and HL opted for minimization while such strategy was not employed by the NE, LH and LL.

6.1.1.2 Apologizing to an unfamiliar professor (+D)

The hearer in situations 2 (submitting a questionnaire late to a professor) and 4 (losing a professor's books) is an unfamiliar professor (+P, +D). The offence of situation 4 is severe (+R) while that of situation 2 is minor (-R). Table 20 summarizes the frequently employed apology strategies in the two situations. The strategies in bold are the most frequently used strategies.

Table 20: Thai EFL learners' most frequently used strategies when apologizing to an unfamiliar professor

		HH	HL	LH	LL
An unfamiliar professor (+P, +D)	**+R (S4)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=12, 28.57%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology, Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=10, 22.22%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology, Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=8, 28.57%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=9, 40%)**
		2. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=10, 23.81)	2. Upgrader: intensifier (N=7, 15.56%)	2. Offer of repair (N=6, 21.43%)	2. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts, Offer of repair (N=5, 16.67%)
		3. Offer of repair, Upgrader: intensifier (N=6, 14.29%)	3. Offer of repair (N=5, 11.11%)		
	-R (S2)	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N= 8, 29.63%)**	**1. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=9, 29.03%)**	**1. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=6, 40%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=8, 40%)**
		2. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=5, 18.52%)	2. Alerter (N=7, 22.58%)	2. Explicit display of an apology (N=5, 33.33%)	2. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=7, 35%)
			3. Explicit display of an apology (N=5, 16.13%)		

When they apologized to an unfamiliar professor for a severe offence (+R), apology strategies most frequently employed in this situation were similar among the Thai EFL groups – explicit display of an apology under the sub-strategy expression of regret, expression of responsibility under the sub-strategy admitting facts and offer of repair. All groups of subjects agreed that losing a professor's books is a severe offence.

They, thus, chose to explicitly apologize, take responsibility by admitting that they have lost the books, and offer to compensate for the lost books. Examples of each group's apologies are as follows:

HH9: I'm sorry. I think I've lost your books and I don't know where they are. Can I buy new ones for you to compensate?

HL8: I'm sorry. I forgot to return you books and I can't find them. I'll buy the same books to return to you.

LH1: I'm sorry. I can't find your books anywhere and believe that they have been lost. I will pay for the books

LL6: I'm sorry. I can't find your books anywhere and believe that they have been lost. I'll buy new book to you.

From the above examples, it can be seen that following expression of regret, the LH and LL's realizations of the sub-strategy admission of facts are the repetition of the situation as described in the oral DCT; they did not come up with their own realizations. In fact, more than half of the LH and LL's admission of facts followed the same pattern. Another frequently employed apology strategy was offer of repair, which is a context-dependent strategy used when a damage is caused. In this case, the damage was the loss of a professor's books. The offer of repair strategy found involved buying new books as a replacement of the lost ones or paying for the new books. In the HH and HL data, offer of repair was more realized as direct (e.g. I'll buy new ones and give them to you) than indirect (e.g. Can I buy you a new one?), which is similar to the NE's offer of repair. For the LH and LL, offer of repair was realized as direct only (e.g. I will pay for the books).

Another frequently used apology strategy in the HH and HL data was upgrader: intensifier. It was used to intensify explicit display of an apology, making the apology more forceful (e.g. I'm terribly sorry).

Comparing the Thai EFL learners' apology strategy choices with the NE and NT, it is revealed that explicit display of an apology and expression of responsibility by admitting facts were the two apology strategies shared among the Thai EFL learner groups and the native speaker groups. Offer of repair was another apology strategy choice among the Thai EFL learners and the NE.

When apologizing to an unfamiliar professor for a minor offence (-R), apology strategies employed in this situation were similar among the Thai EFL learner groups, with explicit display of an apology under the sub-strategy expression of regret and expression of responsibility under the sub-strategy admission of facts as the two frequently used strategies, as seen in the following examples:

HH7: I'm so sorry. I completely forgot to hand in the questionnaire.

HL4: I'm sorry. I forgot to send it in class.

LH2: I'm sorry. I forgot to submit the questionnaire.

LL6: I'm sorry. I forgot.

It is also found that the apology strategies used in this situation were not varied, which might be because it was not stated in the situation that the questionnaire is very important to the professor, or that forgetting to submit it could result in the speaker's point deduction. Therefore, the subjects might feel that explicitly apologizing and taking responsibility by admitting the facts should be sufficient. In addition, it is revealed that the HL explicit display of an apology was less frequent. This correlates

with their rating of obligation to apologize in this situation that an apology is not really needed.

Comparing apology strategy choices in this situation with the native speaker groups, it is revealed that only the HH and LL differed from the NE, NT, HL and LH in that they employed explicit apology most frequently while the rest opted for expression of responsibility by admitting facts.

6.1.2 Apologizing to the best friend/a classmate (=P)

The hearer in situations 5 to 8 in the oral DCT is the best friend (situations 5 and 7) and a classmate (situations 6 and 8) who has equal relative power to the speaker (=P). In situations 5 and 7, the speaker is familiar with the best friend (-D) while in situations 6 and 8, he or she is not familiar with the classmate (+D).

6.1.2.1 Apologizing to the best friend (-D)

The hearer in situations 5 (damaging the best friend's laptop) and 7 (being late for an appointment) is the best friend whom the speaker is familiar with (=P, -D). The offence of situation 5 is severe (+R) while that of situation 7 is minor (-R). Table 21 summarizes the most frequently employed apology strategies in the two situations.

Table 21: Thai EFL learners' most frequently used strategies when apologizing to the best friend (-D)

The best friend (=P, -D)		HH	HL	LH	LL
	+R (S5)	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=13, 40.63%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=10, 26.32%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=9, 39.13%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=10, 34.48%)**
		2. Offer of repair (N=8, 25%)	2. Offer of repair (N=7, 18.42%)	2. Offer of repair (N=7, 30.43%)	2. Offer of repair (N=9, 31.03)
	-R (S7)	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=10, 35.71%)**	**1. Expression of responsibility : admission of facts (N=11, 32.35%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology, Expression of responsibility : admission of facts (N=9, 42.86%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=6, 30%)**
		2. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=9, 32.14%)	2. Explicit display of an apology (N=10, 29.41%)		2. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=4, 20%)

With the severe (+R), the Thai EFL learners shared the same apology strategies when apologizing to the best friend. The highest frequency of the use of explicit display of an apology was found in all groups of the Thai EFL learners. The four groups of Thai EFL learners also opted for offer of repair as the second most frequently employed apology strategy. Examples of the Thai EFL learners' apologies are as follows:

HH10: I'm really sorry. I'll have your laptop repaired right away.

HL1: I'm so sorry. I'll fix it and pay it later.

LH6: I'm sorry. I will send it to service to make this as good as new and I use my money.

LL8: I'm sorry. I'll pay for the repair.

The examples illustrate that for explicit display of an apology, the sub-strategy expression of regret was realized as I'm sorry among all groups of Thai EFL learners. It is also found that the strategy offer of repair is realized similarly among the Thai EFL learners as direct offer of repair. According to Ogiermann (2009), the use of the first person subject pronoun "I" with the future tense (e.g. I will) demonstrates the speaker's high intention and willingness to repair the damage caused. It is possibly that the subjects tried to please the hearer by compensating for the damaged laptop.

Comparing the Thai EFL learners' apology strategy choices in this situation with those of the NE and NT, it is revealed that all groups of subjects shared similar apology strategy choices. However, it is interesting to note that despite the high degree of severity of the offence, the Thai EFL learner groups did not use intensifiers as frequently as the NE did to upgrade their apology. The Thai EFL learners' low frequency of intensifier use was similar to that of the NT. It might be said that despite similar apology strategy choices, upgrading an apology by intensifying is probably less preferred by the NT and Thai EFL learner groups.

When the offence is minor (-R), two apology strategies were most frequently employed by all of the Thai EFL learner groups – explicit display of an apology under the sub-strategy expression of regret and expression of responsibility by admitting facts, which were similar to those of the NE and NT, as seen in these examples:

HH3: Sorry. I know I'm late but I forgot my wallet.

HL1: I'm sorry. I forgot my wallet and I'm late.

LH5: Sorry. I'm ten minutes late.

LL10: Sorry. I'm late.

It is found that the HL differed from the other groups of Thai EFL learners. While the other groups preferred explicit display of an apology most frequently, the HL employed expression of responsibility by admitting facts most frequently. Their choice of apology strategy was the same as the NE and the NT.

As Shardakova (2009) points out, explicit display of an apology and expression of responsibility by admitting facts are two strategies sensitive to situational variables. Being late for ten minutes is considered not highly severe, and was rated by all groups of Thai EFL learners as not serious at all. Still, an apology was offered to maintain harmony between the speaker and the hearer who is the speaker's best friend.

To conclude, the same apology strategy was shared among the Thai EFL learners and the native speaker groups when apologizing to the best friend for a severe offence – explicit display of an apology. However, when the offence is minor, the HH, LH and LL opted for explicit display of an apology while the HL and the NE and NT favored expression of responsibility by admitting facts.

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6.1.2.2 Apologizing to a classmate (+D)

The hearer in situations 6 (forgetting to inform classmates of class cancellation) and 8 (forgetting to tell a classmate to go see a professor) is a classmate whom the speaker is not familiar with (=P, +D). The offence of situation 8 is severe (+R) while that of situation 6 is minor (-R). Table 22 summarizes the frequently employed apology strategies in the two situations. The strategies in bold are the most frequently employed apology strategies.

Table 22: Thai EFL learners' apology strategy choices when apologizing to a classmate (+D)

A classmate (=P, +D)		HH	HL	LH	LL
	+R (S8)	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=12, 30.77%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=13, 33.33%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=8, 38.10%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=9, 36%)**
		2. Offer of repair (N=8, 20.51%)	2. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=10, 25.64%)	2. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=6, 28.57%)	2. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=6, 2450
		3. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=7, 17.95%)			
	-R (S6)	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=10, 34.48%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=11, 36.67%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology, Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=6, 2.57%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=6, 20.69%)**
		2. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=7, 24.14%)	2. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=7, 23.3%)		2. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=5, 17.24%)

When they apologized to a classmate for a severe offence, the Thai EFL learners shared the same most frequently employed apology: explicit display of an apology, which was realized as "*I'm sorry*". The severity of the offence in this situation was rated as serious. It is possibly because the hearer was deemed the wrongdoer by the professor without doing anything (the professor is mad at the hearer for not going to see the professor). The speaker, therefore, needed to explicitly apologize to the hearer.

Apart from explicit display of an apology, expression of responsibility by admitting facts was also frequently used among the Thai EFL learners. It is to show the speaker's responsibility to assure that the professor was informed of what actually happens.

HH7: I completely forgot to tell you to go see the professor.

HL9: I forgot that the professor called you.

LH2: I forgot to tell you.

LL4: I forgot to tell you.

In addition to explicit display of an apology and expression of responsibility for the offence, it is found that the HH also employed offer of repair frequently. The linguistic realizations of the offer of repair strategy were in the forms of direct offers of repair, as seen in the examples below:

HH7: I will go to the professor's room and tell her about the reason with you.

HH2: I'll come with you and tell the professor that it was my fault not you.

Since the hearer's positive face was damaged, offer of repair was favored. All the HH's offer of repair demonstrated that the speaker was willing to inform the professor of his or her wrongdoing, and the hearer was not the one to be blamed.

When they apologized to a classmate for a minor offence, it is found that the Thai EFL learners employed the same apology strategy: explicit display of an apology, followed by expression of responsibility by admitting facts. Examples of the Thai EFL learners' apologies in this situation are presented below.

HH1: I'm sorry. Teacher told me the class is cancelled, but I totally forgot to tell you.

HL6: I'm sorry. I forget to tell about the cancellation of the class in the afternoon

LH8: I'm sorry. I tell you late. I forgot.

LL9: I'm sorry. I forget it.

The Thai EFL learners' preferred apology strategies in this situation were the same as those employed by the NE and NT. The subjects chose to explicitly apologize and take responsibility by admitting that they forgot to inform the classmate. The realizations of explicit display of an apology and expression of responsibility for the offence strategies were also similar. That is, they chose to apologize by using expression of regret (e.g. I'm sorry) and admitting the fact that they forgot (e.g. I forgot to inform you).

It can be concluded that when apologizing to a classmate for both serious and minor offences, the Thai EFL learners and the NE and NT shared the same most frequently employed apology strategy – explicit display of an apology.

6.1.3 Apologizing to a freshman (-P)

The hearer in situations 9 to 12 in the oral DCT is a freshman who has lower relative power (-P). In situations 9 and 11, the speaker is familiar with a freshman (-D) while in situations 10 and 12, he or she is not (+D).

6.1.3.1 Apologizing to a familiar freshman (-D)

The hearer in situations 9 (forgetting to bring a flash drive to a presentation) and 11 (taking blurred photos) is a freshman whom the speaker is familiar with (-P, -D). The offence of situation 9 is severe (+R) while that of situation 11 is minor (-R). Table 23 summarizes the most frequently employed apology strategies in the two situations.

Table 23: Thai EFL learners' apology strategy choices when apologizing to a familiar freshman (-D)

A familiar freshman (-P, -D)		**HH**	**HL**	**LH**	**LL**
	+R (S9)	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=10, 32.26%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=9, 30%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=10, 52.63%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=9, 33.33%)**
		2. Upgrader: intensifier (N=5, 16.31%)			
	-R (S11)	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=10, 40%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=10, 34.48%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=9, 39.13%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=8, 38.10%)**
		2. Expression of responsibility : self-deficiency (N=5, 20%)	2. Expression of responsibility : self-deficiency (N=7, 24.14%)	2. Expression of responsibility : self-deficiency (N=8, 34.78%)	2. Expression of responsibility : self-deficiency (N=7, 33.33%)

The results demonstrate that, when apologizing to a familiar freshman for a severe offence, explicit display of an apology was the most frequently employed strategy among the four groups of Thai EFL learners and the native speaker groups. It is also found that, among the Thai EFL learners, explicit display of an apology strategy under the sub-strategy expression of regret "I'm sorry", which was the same as that of the NE. However, the Thai EFL learners' realizations of expression of regret differed from that of the NE in that they were not upgraded with intensifiers like those of the NE. Some of the HH and HL incorporated intensifiers in their apologies, but the frequency of use was not as high as that of the NE. In this situation, losing points in final presentation because the speaker forgot to bring the flashdrive could affect both the speaker and hearer's academic record. The results from the assessment study

indicate that all of the Thai EFL learners agreed that the offence was severe and they were absolutely obliged to apologize. That possible explains why explicit display of an apology was the most preferred apology strategy in this situation.

When the offence was minor, the Thai EFL learners shared the same most frequently used strategies – explicit display of an apology and expression of responsibility, respectively. Examples of the Thai EFL learners' apologies in this situation are presented below.

HH8: Sorry, I'm not good at taking photos.

HL2: Sorry. I'm not a good photographer.

LH9: I'm sorry. I weak take photo skill, and I not good.

LL5: I'm sorry. I don't know use this camera.

The examples illustrate that the most preferred sub-strategy of explicit apology among the Thai EFL learners was expression of regret (e.g. I'm sorry). For expression of responsibility for the offence, the sub-strategy self-deficiency was also favored (e.g. I'm not familiar with this camera). Although the damage was caused (blurred photos), the offence was considered not serious at all and an apology was not really required.

Comparing the Thai EFL learners' apology strategy choices in these two situations with those of the NE and NT, it is found that when they apologized to a familiar freshman for both severe and minor offences, all groups of subjects opted for explicit display of an apology.

6.1.3.2 Apologizing to an unfamiliar freshman (+D)

The hearer in situations 10 (forgetting to return a pen) and 12 (spilling coffee on a freshman's assignment) is a freshman whom the speaker is not familiar with (-P,

+D). The offence of situation 12 is severe (+R) while that of situation 10 is minor (-R). Table 24 summarizes the frequently employed apology strategies in the two situations. The strategies in bold are the ones most frequently employed.

Table 24: Thai EFL leaners' apology strategy choices when apologizing to an unfamiliar freshman (+D)

An unfamiliar freshman (-P, +D)		**HH**	**HL**	**LH**	**LL**
	+R (S12)	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=10, 37.04%)**	**1. Offer of repair (N=11, 33.33%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=10, 50%)**	**1. Offer of repair (N=15, 48.39%)**
		2. Offer of repair (N=8, 29.63%)	2. Explicit display of an apology (N=8, 24.24%)	2. Offer of repair (N=6, 30%)	2. Explicit display of an apology (N=8, 25.81%)
	-R (S10)	**1. Explicit display of an apology (N=9, 39.13%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology, Expression of responsibility : admission of facts (N=5, 21.74%)**	**1. Expression of responsibility : admission of facts (N=8, 42.11%)**	**1. Explicit display of an apology, Expression of responsibility : admission of facts (N=5, 27.78%)**
		2. Expression of responsibility: admission of facts (N=5, 21.74%)		2. Explicit display of an apology (N=7, 36.84%)	

When the Thai EFL learners apologized to an unfamiliar freshman for a severe offence, two apology strategies were mostly found in the Thai EFL learners' apologies – explicit display of an apology and offer of repair. However, differences in the most frequently employed apology strategy were found. That is, the HH and LH preferred explicit display of an apology whereas the HL and LL chose offer of repair. For the second most frequently used apology strategy, the former opted for offer of repair while

the latter preferred explicit display of an apology. Examples of the Thai EFL learners' apologies in this situation are as follows:

HH4: I'm sorry. I'll help you do a new one. I will rewrite it for you.

HL9: I'll help you make a new one. I'm sorry.

LH3: I'm sorry. I will do your new homework now.

LL1: I will do this new for you. Sorry.

An assignment that was due on the date when the offence occurred was deemed very important to the hearer. When the damage occurred, a positive politeness apology strategy offer of repair was used to "satisfy H' positive face wants" (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 125) by compensating for the damage caused. The realizations of offer of repair were both direct (e.g. I'll help you do a new one) and indirect (e.g. Can I help you or talk to the professor for you?) in the HH and HL data while only direct offer of repair was found in the LH and LL data (e.g. I will help you).

Comparing with the NE and NT's apology strategy choices in this situation, it is found that the HH and LH shared the same most frequently employed apology strategy with the NE; that is, explicit display of an apology. The HL and LL, in contrast, shared the most frequently used apology strategy with the NT; that is, offer of repair.

For a minor offence, it is found that all groups of Thai EFL learners employed the same apology strategies as the NE – explicit apology and expression of responsibility for the offence by admitting facts. However, each group differed in the frequency of use. That is, the HH employed explicit display of an apology most frequently while the LH preferred expression of responsibility by admitting facts. The HL and LL similarly used explicit display of an apology and expression of

responsibility for the offence by admitting facts equally. Examples of the Thai EFL learners' apologies in this situation are presented below.

HH8: Sorry. I forgot to bring it back to you.

HL5: Sorry. I forgot to return it.

LH2: I forgot to return you. I'm sorry.

LL10: Sorry. I forgot.

The realizations of explicit display of an apology and expression of responsibility for the offence by admitting facts were similar among all groups of subjects. That is, explicit display of an apology was realized in the form of expression of regret (e.g. I'm sorry) while expression of responsibility for the offence by admitting facts was realized using a similar structure and content (e.g. I forgot to return your pen.) According to Bergman and Kasper (1993), the more severe the offence, the more apologies are offered. All groups of Thai EFL learners agreed that the offence was not serious at all and that an apology is not really required. Forgetting to return a pen was not considered offensive. Besides, the damage was not costly at all as a pen was not that expensive. For these reasons, the range of apology strategies employed in this situation was rather limited in all groups of Thai EFL learners.

It can be concluded that although the apology strategy choices were rather similar among the Thai EFL learner groups and the native speaker groups, the frequency of use of each strategy was different. For a severe offence, explicit display of an apology was preferred among the HH, LH and NE while offer of repair was chosen by the HL, LL and NT. For a minor offence, the HL and LL were similar to the NE and NT in using explicit display of an apology and expression of responsibility for the offence by admitting facts equally. The HH and LH differed in the frequency of use

of these two apology strategies – the HH employed explicit display of an apology most frequently while the LH expression of responsibility for the offence by admitting facts.

In this section, the Thai EFL learners' apology strategy choices in university contexts were compared among the Thai EFL learners and with the native speaker groups. The results reveal the similarities in the selections of apology strategies across situations. Specifically, they employed explicit display of an apology using the sub-strategy expression of regret most frequently, followed by expression of responsibility for the offence using the sub-strategy admitting facts. Another apology strategy preferred in the situations involving damages was offer of repair. The differences lied in the fact that the frequency of use in each situation differed. Looking at linguistic realizations, it is found that the HH and HL were more native-like e.g. when they upgraded their explicit display of an apology with intensifiers more frequently than the LH and LL did. Overall, both the HH and HL demonstrated good pragmalinguistic knowledge in their apologies. On the other hand, it is found that the LH and LL tended to repeat the situations provided in the oral DCT when expressing responsibility by admitting facts. This possibly indicates that their pragmalinguistic knowledge was still inadequate for being able to use appropriate linguistic forms to apologize. In the next section, the Thai EFL learners' evidence of pragmatic transfer will be investigated. In the next section, the findings of Thai EFL learners' apologies will be discussed.

6.1.4 Interesting correlations found in the interlanguage pragmatic findings

The previous sections provide the interlanguage pragmatic findings of Thai EFL learners' apologies. To discuss the interlanguage pragmatic findings, a comparison of Thai EFL learners' apologies with the English and Thai norms of apologies is made.

The comparison is presented in Table 25, which displays the apology strategies employed by the Thai EFL learners in comparison with the native norms of apologies. Numbers 1, 2, 3 and 4 represent the most frequently employed apology strategies when the subjects apologized to a hearer under different variables. The encircled numbers represent the differences between the English and Thai norms. The numbers in brackets represent the apology strategies that the Thai EFL learners employed similarly to the Thai norms.

Table 25: Comparison of apology strategies among the native speakers of English, Thai and the Thai EFL learners

	Professor (+P)				**Best friend/classmate (=P)**				**Freshman (-P)**			
	-D		**+D**		**-D**		**+D**		**-D**		**+D**	
	-R	**+R**	**-R**	**+R**	**-R**	**+R**	**-R**	**+R**	**-R**	**+R**	**-R**	**+R**
NE	1	2	2	3	2	1	1	1	1	1	1, 2	1
NT	1	4	2	2	2	3	1	1	1	1	1, 2	3
HH	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
HL	1	[4]	2	1,[2]	2	1	1	1	1	1	1,2	[3]
LH	1	1	2	1,[2]	1, 2	1	1,2	1	1	1	2	1
LL	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1,2	[3]

Power: +P the hearer has higher status than the speaker
=P the hearer and the speaker have the equal status
-P the hearer has lower status than the speaker
Distance: +D the hearer and the speaker are not familiar with each other
-D the hearer and the speaker are familiar with each other
Severity: +R the offence is severe
-R the offence is minor
1= explicit display of an apology 2 = expression of responsibility by admitting facts
3 = offer of repair 4 = appealer

Table 25 reveals some interesting correlations found in the interlanguage pragmatic findings, which can be divided into the following subsections: (1) pragmatic transfer, (2) situational variables, (3) English language proficiency and (4) limitation of oral DCT.

6.1.4.1 Pragmatic transfer

This subsection discusses interesting findings concerning comparing the Thai EFL learners' most frequently used apology strategies in each situation with the English and Thai norms of apologies in Table 16 (see 5.4), which reveals that there was evidence of pragmatic transfer in three situations when the Thai EFL learners apologized to: (1) a familiar professor for a severe offence, (2) an unfamiliar professor for a severe offence and (3) an unfamiliar freshman for a severe offence. The discussion of each situation in relation to pragmatic transfer is as follows.

When they apologized to a familiar professor for a severe offence, the HL is found to employ the same most frequently apology strategy as that of the Thai norm; they employed appealer, asking for a make-up presentation. As discussed in 5.4.1, the NT placed so much importance to their academic records that most of them forgot to explicitly apologize to the professor, who was older and had more relative power than themselves. The situational assessment study (see Chapter 4) also revealed that the HL were the same as the NT in their rating of all situational variables, indicating the similarity in the perception of situational variables among the HH and NT despite the fact that the HH rated the situational variables in English while the NT did so in Thai. The HL employing the same norm as the Thai norms in this situation as well as the same rating of situational variables suggest an instance of negative pragmatic transfer as they transferred the Thai norms of apologizing when they apologized in English. It is possible to say that the HH were similar to the NT in their selection of apology strategies that can implicitly express apologies and are beneficial to the speaker at the same time.

Another evidence of pragmatic transfer can be found when the speaker apologized to an unfamiliar professor for a severe offence. It is found that the HL and the LH employed expression of responsibility by admitting facts, which was the same apology strategy found in the Thai norms. As previously discussed in 5.4.1, the NT felt obliged to apologize, but opted for the implicit way to apology by admitting the fact that they had committed an offence (losing a professor's books), but did not take full responsibility (Blum-kulka, et al, 1989). It has also been discussed in 5.4.1 that by admitting committing an offence in this situation, it possibly suggests that the NT might feel less superior to the hearer who was an unfamiliar professor, so they felt less comfortable to offer repairs, resulting in the selection of an apology strategy less threatening to their own face instead. The HL and LH employing the same apology strategy as that of the Thai norms in this situation is another evidence of negative pragmatic transfer as they transferred their native language norms of apologies when they apologized in English.

The last instance of pragmatic transfer is in the situation where the speaker apologized to an unfamiliar freshman for a severe offence. In this situation, the HL and LL employed the same apology strategy as the Thai – offer of repair – to compensate for the material damages caused. As discussed in 5.4.1, when causing damages, the NT seemed to offer repairs to the hearer with less relative power, but express responsibility by admitting facts to the hearer with higher relative power. This possibly suggests that when they felt that the hearer was inferior, the NT might feel that an explicit apology is less important. The HL and LL sharing the same apology strategy as the NT in this situation is also another evidence of negative pragmatic transfer found in the interlanguage pragmatic findings.

It can be seen that the HL's negative pragmatic transfer was more obvious and can be found in the three situations. The findings support Prachanant's (2006) and Takahashi and Beebe's (1993) findings that the occurrence of negative pragmatic transfer is more common among the learners with high proficiency as their available linguistic resources allow them to transfer their native language norms to the target language. It is possible to say that with an increase in English proficiency enables the HL to transfer their Thai pragmatic norms to the target language in order to compensate for their limited English pragmatics. From Table 25, it shows that comparing to the Thai norms, negative pragmatic transfer among the HH is not as obvious as that of the HL. That is, the HH did not employ the same apologies as those of the Thai norms of apologies except in the situations where the English and Thai norms of apologies were the same. This suggests that among the high proficiency learners, English experience is also important in developing the learners' English pragmatics. The HH were less likely to make negative pragmatic transfer due to their sufficient knowledge of English pragmatics and linguistic means.

Evidence of negative pragmatic transfer was found among the LH and LL in different situations. Considering both the levels of English proficiency and experience, it possibly suggests that among the LH, their limited linguistic resources may not enable them to approximate the English norms despite their knowledge of L2 pragmatics. However, when considering the linguistic realizations of the LH's expression of responsibility by admitting facts when they apologized to an unfamiliar professor for a severe offence (in which they repeated the situation described in the oral DCT), it also suggests that low proficiency may not the only possible explanation for the occurrence of negative pragmatic transfer among the LH in this situation. The LL's realizations of

such apology strategy also helps reveal the limitation of the research instrument (see 6.1.4.4).

The evidence of negative pragmatic transfer among the LL suggests that with their limited L2 proficiency and experience, the LL made an attempt to transfer the Thai norms of apologizing to use in this situation. An example of the LL's offer of repair is presented below.

LL9: I will do new for you.

This example illustrates the LL's realization of the strategy offer of repairs. It can be seen that the LL's realization of offer of repair was in the form of a direct repair. The ungrammatical structure demonstrates the LL's limited linguistic resources in an attempt to transfer the Thai norms of apologies to English.

To conclude, evidence of pragmatic transfer found in this study revealed the importance of high English language proficiency and high English language experience in developing pragmatic competence. Although pragmatic transfer in apologizing may not potentially result in pragmatic failure, the findings seem to suggest that language learners should improve both their English proficiency and experience in order to develop their English pragmatics.

6.1.4.2 Situational variables

Table 25 also illustrates the relationship between the situational variables and the apology strategies among the six groups of subjects. In relation to the situational variables, the following can be noticed: (1) in some situations, the Thai EFL learners' apologies were the same as those of both the English and Thai norms; (2) in the other situations, the Thai EFL learners' apologies differed from the native norms and (3) in

still the other situations, the Thai EFL learners' apologies differ from the English and Thai norms and the English and Thai norms differed from each other. Each will be discussed as follows.

6.1.4.2.1 The same norms among all groups of subjects

In some situations, the Thai EFL learners' apology strategies were the same as those of the English and Thai norms of apologies when apologizing to (1) a familiar professor for a minor offence, (2) a classmate for a minor offence, (3) a classmate for a severe offence; (4) a familiar freshman for a minor offence and (5) a familiar freshman for a severe offence. The summary of situations where all groups of subjects shared the same apology strategies is presented in Table 26.

Table 26: The situations where all groups of subjects shared the same apology strategies

Situations	Normal strategies used
1) Apologizing to a familiar professor for a minor offence	Explicit display of an apology
2) Apologizing to a classmate for a minor offence	Explicit display of an apology
3) Apologizing to a classmate for a severe offence	Explicit display of an apology
4) Apologizing to a familiar freshman for a minor offence	Explicit display of an apology
5) Apologizing to a familiar freshman for a severe offence	Explicit display of an apology

From the table, the apology strategy that all groups of subjects shared was explicit display of an apology. These results are in line with previous studies on interlanguage apologies (e.g. Trosbog, 1987; and Olshtain and Cohen, 1983) and Thai apologies (Thijittang, 2010; Prachanant, 2006) who also found that explicit display of an apology was employed by all subjects in their studies. The findings also confirmed

Olshtain and Cohen (1983), who claim that explicit display of an apology is universal among all speakers, both native and non-native speakers, of English.

The similarities in the apology strategies employed in some situations revealed that the English and Thai shared similar perception of situational variables when apologizing in university contexts. As discussed in 5.4.2, all groups of subjects' rating of all situational variables (see Chapter 4) was the same in the situations where the hearer was the professor and the classmate. This perhaps reflected in the same apology strategy employed most frequently in those situations. Although the NT and Thai EFL learners rated the relative power between the freshman and themselves differently from the NE, the same apology strategy was employed. Apart from that, the findings of the Thai EFL learners' sharing the same apology strategy as that of both the English and Thai norms suggest that explicit display of an apology is the neutral form of apologizing that is applicable in all situations in both English and Thai.

6.1.4.2.2 Learners' apologies differed from the same native norms

As seen from Table 25, there are two situations where the English and Thai norms of apologies are the same, but the Thai EFL learners' apologies are different. The first situation is when apologizing to the unfamiliar professor for a minor offence. The English and Thai norms of apologizing in this situation are expression of responsibility by admitting facts whereas the HH and LL opted for explicit display of an apology. In 5.4.2, it has been discussed that a minor offence may not require explicit apologies; thus, both the English and Thai native speakers opted for expression of responsibility by admitting fact, a rather implicit way to apologize. The HH and LL, despite the same assessment of situational variables, employed explicit display of an

apology possibly because it is the formulaic form of apologies that can be used in most situations.

The same explanation can also be applied to another situation where the English and Thai norms were the same (that is, expression of responsibility by admitting facts), but the HH and HL opted for another apology strategy (that is, explicit display of an apology). The situation is apologizing to the best friend for a minor offence. With the familiar, equal power hearer and the minor offence (being ten minutes late), the HH and HL might feel that explicit display of an apology would be appropriate. These findings parallel to what is presented in 5.4.2 that being ten minutes late is considered not severe among the NE and NT, as Gudy Kunst and Ting-Toomy (1988, as cited in Al-Adaileh, 2007, p. 123) points out; thus, a slight apology would be enough.

In relation to the situational variables, the HH and HL's use of explicit display of an apology reflects their similar assessment of such variables and their selection of such strategy. However, considering the differences in their English proficiency and experience, it is interesting to see why learners with different levels of English proficiency and experience shared the same apology strategy in the same situations. The discussion on this will be presented in 6.1.4.3.

6.1.4.2.3 Learners' apologies differed from the different native norms

Table 25 also illustrates that in some situations, the Thai EFL learners did not share the same apology with either of the English or Thai norms, or shared the apology strategy with one of the native norms.

a) Learners' apologies differed from both of the English and Thai norms

There are two situations where some groups of the Thai EFL learners did not use the same apology strategies as either of the native norms. The first situation is when the speaker apologized to a familiar professor for a severe offence. The English norms of apologizing in this situation were expression of responsibility by admitting facts while the Thai norms are appealer. As presented in 6.1.4.1, the HL demonstrated negative pragmatic transfer as they employed the Thai norms when they apologized in this situation (being late for the final presentation). The other three groups of Thai EFL learners, however, favored explicit display of an apology more frequently, which was different from both of the English and Thai norms of apologizing. Considering the situational variables, all groups of subjects agreed on the assessment of each variable. As discussed in 5.4.1, the English and Thai norms suggest that both groups of native speakers opted for two different strategies that implicitly express apologies, especially the Thai who chose an implicit apology strategy that can benefit themselves – appealer. The HH, LH and LL favored explicit display of an apology most frequently, with most of the HH and some of the LH and LL made use of intensifiers to upgrade their apologies. This suggests that the three groups of Thai EFL learners were aware of the situational variables, especially the severe offence, and they chose to employ the most explicit apology strategy in this situation.

Another situation where some of the Thai EFL learners did not share the norms with either of the native speaker groups is when they apologized to an unfamiliar professor for a severe offence (losing a professor's books). The English and Thai norms of apologizing in this situation differ – offer of repair for the NE and expression of responsibility by admitting facts by the NT. Unlike the English and Thai, the HH and

LL employed explicit display of an apology most frequently in this situation. As discussed in 5.4.1, the NE demonstrated the willingness to compensate for the lost books while the NT acknowledged the offence. The HH and LL, on the contrary, opted for explicit display of an apology to explicitly apologize. The HH and LL explicitly apologizing can be explained by the fact that they apologized in English and chose the formulaic form of apologizing that they considered appropriate for the situation.

b) Different native norms, learners shared NE's norms

There is one situation where all the Thai EFL learners approximated the English norms of apologizing is when apologizing to the best friend for a severe offence (damaging the best friend's laptop). Only the NT opted for offer of repair while the NE and the Thai EFL learners favored explicit display of an apology – expression of regret. The NT, as discussed in 5.4.1, apologized less and seemed more willing to offer repairs to the familiar hearer of equal relative power. For the NE, with the severe offence, they used explicit display of an apology most frequently in this situation, upgrading with intensifiers. All of the Thai EFL learners were the same as the NE in their explicit display of an apology. This possibly suggests that all of the Thai learners have acquired the forms and uses of English explicit apologies that they approximated the NE in their selection of apology strategies in this situation. Another possibility is that such use was the result of transfer of training since Thai EFL learners have learned the formulaic forms of English apologies and made use of them when possible.

Comparing the native norms of apologies with those of the Thai EFL learners in relation to situational variables illustrates the effects of those variables in selecting apology strategies in different situations where these variables come into play. It also shows that Thai EFL learners may assess the situational variables similarly to the native

Thai, but they may select different apology strategies when apologizing in English. This suggests the Thai EFL learners' developmental process in acquiring English pragmatics.

6.1.4.3 English language proficiency

As discussed in 6.1.4.2.2, that the HH and HL shared the same apology strategy in the same situations; the effect of English proficiency and experience should be discussed. The HH employed explicit display of an apology – expression of regret – most frequently in all situations, most was the same as the English norms. However, it is found that the HH's use of explicit display of an apology deviated from both the English and Thai norms when they apologized to: (1) a familiar professor for a severe offence, (2) an unfamiliar professor for a minor offence, (3) an unfamiliar professor for a severe offence and (4) the best friend for a minor offence.

These findings contradict the claim made by Olshtain and Cohen (1983) that deviation from the native speaker norms correlates with low L2 proficiency. The HH's deviation from the English norms was probably not the result of insufficient linguistic resources. It is possible that they have acquired the L2 pragmatic knowledge enough to know that explicit display of an apology – expression of regret – is rather formulaic and neutral (Al-Adaileh, 2007) that can be used in a variety of situations. Since all the situations are in university contexts where physical or serious damages are less likely to happen, expression of regret sufficiently conveys the speaker's intention to maintain social harmony and remedy the situations. In addition, investigating the HH's realizations of this apology strategy revealed that the HH employed intensifiers to upgrade their apologies in relation to the situations involving severe offences in the

same way as the NE did. They also incorporated this strategy with other apologies appropriate to the situations.

Interestingly, the LL also employed explicit display of an apology – expression of regret – most frequently in all situations except when they apologized to an unfamiliar freshman for a severe offence. They demonstrated the deviation from the English norms in the same situations as the HH did; that is, when apologizing to (1) a familiar professor for a severe offence, (2) an unfamiliar professor for a minor offence, (3) an unfamiliar professor for a severe offence and (4) the best friend for a minor offence.

The LL's deviation from the English norms supports Olshtain and Cohen's (1983) claim. It is possible to say that they relied on their limited linguistic resources. They used the formulaic form of explicit apology to apologize across situations. Comparing with the HH's realizations of explicit display of an apology – expression of regret, the LL exhibited a less frequent use of intensifiers. According to Selinker (1972), language learners sometimes employ the strategies of second language communication as a result of specific ways that they learn to communicate in the target language. The LL's use of explicit display of an apology probably showed that the LL were in the process of acquiring the pragmatics of the target language and have acquired some aspects of the pragmatics of English language by using formulaic forms to apologize. In other words, the LL used the routinized linguistic forms that ensure appropriateness in the given contexts.

The findings suggest that the deviation from the native speaker norms does not always correlate with the low L2 proficiency. It can also be found among the learners

with high proficiency and high experience who have acquired enough L2 pragmatic knowledge to know about the appropriateness of language use in certain situations.

6.1.4.4 Limitation of oral DCT

The last point in the interlanguage pragmatic findings that are worth discussing is one limitation of the oral DCT, which was used to collect the subjects' apology strategies. Among the various apology strategies realized by all groups of subjects, it is interesting to find that some of the LH and LL's realizations of the strategy expression of responsibility by admitting facts were the same as the situations described in the oral DCT. The following examples was previously presented in 6.1.1.2:

LH1: I'm sorry. I *can't find your books anywhere and believe that they have been lost*. I will pay for the books.

LL6: I'm sorry. I can't find your books anywhere and believe that they have been lost. I'll buy new book to you.

When compared to situation 4 in the oral DCT:

Situation 4: You have just found out that you have not returned some books to a professor whom you do not know well. *You cannot find the books anywhere and believe that they have been lost*. What would you say to the professor?

it can be seen that the underlined parts in the LH and LL's examples and the one in the oral DCT are the same, except the use of the pronoun "I" instead of "You" as described in the situation. It is possible that the subjects just read aloud what they had read instead.

The LH and LL's repeating the situations from the oral DCT can be explained as follows. The apology strategy expression of responsibility – admitting facts is not formulaic. It can be realized in different ways to show that the speaker acknowledges

the wrongdoing committed. With their limited linguistic resources due to their low English proficiency, it is possible that the LH and LL relied on the provided description of the situations printed in the notecard instead of realizing the strategy on their own. Since these instances were found only in the LH and LL data, it can be said that the low learners might not be able to realize some non-formulaic apology strategies (e.g. expression of responsibility, explanation and minimization of offence) due to their low language proficiency. For the LH, it also suggests that high experience in the target language is sometimes insufficient for realizing non-formulaic apology strategies.

Most importantly, the LH and LL copying the descriptions of the situations in the oral DCT reveals one drawback of the research tool apart from other weaknesses claimed by some researchers (e.g. Rintell and Mitchell, 1989; Kasper, 2000; Yuan, 2001; Golato, 2003; and Jucker, 2009). That is, it may not reflect the actual realizations of apology strategies that the learners are able to do. It is recommended that provided notecards should include the descriptions of the situations that is informative enough in order to aid the subjects in understanding what they are asked to do.

This section discusses the interesting findings of Thai EFL learners' apologies which reveal the correlations between Thai EFL learners' apologies, the situational variables and the English proficiency and experience. In the next section, the results of Thai EFL learners' metapragmatic awareness will be presented and discussed.

6.2 Metapragmatic awareness

In the previous section, the Thai EFL learners' pragmatic production was investigated by comparing and contrasting their apology strategy choices with those of the NE and NT. This section studies the Thai EFL learners' pragmatic perception by

examining their metapragmatic awareness when evaluating the apology offerings in different situations. In order to investigate whether levels of English language proficiency and English language experience are two factors that influence the learners' metapragmatic awareness, only the four groups of Thai EFL learners were asked to complete the task. In doing so, the present study attempts to examine the learners' abilities to (1) identify whether each apology offering in each given situation is appropriate or not; (2) provide reasons for their evaluation which show that they are consciously aware of the situational variables in each situation; and (3) make suggestions of apology offerings that they consider more appropriate. By investigating such abilities, the learners' metapragmatic awareness could be observed.

The findings will be presented in four sections as follows: (6.2.1) appropriateness judgments; (6.2.2) provided justifications; and (6.2.3) provided alternatives.

6.2.1 Appropriateness judgments

This section presents Thai EFL learners' appropriateness judgments. The subjects' judgments were marked as 'correct' (i.e. the subjects correctly identified the appropriateness of apology offerings) and 'incorrect' (i.e. the subjects failed to correctly identify the appropriateness of the apology offerings). One example of an appropriate apology offering is as follows:

<u>Situation 1:</u> It is the last day of an English course and a student was to give the final oral presentation. He/she spent the night before preparing for the presentation and got up late. As a result, the student cannot make it on time to class and has to talk to the professor whom he/she is familiar with.

<u>Student:</u> *I am terribly sorry, Professor. I know it's my fault that I missed the presentation. Please tell me if there is anything I can do to make up for this.*

One example of an inappropriate apology offering is as follows:

Situation 12: A 2nd year student is in the canteen having a big cup of coffee. Sharing the same table is a freshman whom the student does not know, writing his/her report. The student accidentally spills some coffee on the table and on that student's report. He/she angrily tells you that the report is due today.

Student: *Oh, sorry. Hope it's not that important.*

The results of Thai EFL learners' appropriateness judgments of apology offerings are presented in Table 27. The left column indicates the four groups of Thai EFL learners while the remaining columns illustrate the frequency and percentage of the subjects' correct and incorrect judgments in the 12 situations in the pragmatic judgment task.

Table 27: Frequencies and percentages of appropriateness judgments

	Appropriateness judgments			
	Correct		**Incorrect**	
	N	%	N	%
HH	95	79.16	24	20
HL	91	75.83	28	23.33
LH	82	68.33	35	29.166
LL	72	60	46	38.33

Out of 120 apology offerings (12 apology offerings judged by ten subjects per group) to be judged, the HH could make more correct judgments of apology offerings, followed by the HL, LH and LL, respectively. Regarding incorrect judgments, it was the LL group who made the most incorrect judgments while the HH made the least.

One-way analyses of variance show that the differences in the appropriateness judgments between the HH and the LH and between the HH and the LL are highly significant ($p<.01$). Statistically significant differences are also found between the HL and LH ($p<.05$), as well as between the HL and the LL ($p<.05$). The results reveal that, as expected, the learners with higher levels of English language proficiency were better

at evaluating apology offering appropriateness than those with lower levels of English language proficiency. In terms of English language experience, the significant difference between the HL and LH's appropriateness judgments seems to suggest that having only high levels of English language experience is inadequate for pragmatic perception.

6.2.2 Provided justifications

In this section, Thai EFL learners' justifications for their appropriateness judgments are showed. After making judgments, the subjects provided the reasons for their judgments. The provided justifications are analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively.

6.2.2.1 Quantitative analysis of provided justifications

The quantity of the Thai EFL learners' provided justifications for their appropriateness judgments is illustrated first. Table 28 presents the number of justifications provided by all four groups of Thai EFL learners, which are divided into justifications related to politeness (i.e. the justifications that reflects the subjects' awareness of situational variables, namely, distance, power, and severity of the offence) and justifications not related to politeness (i.e. the justification concerning grammatical aspects found in the apology offerings.) Metapragmatic awareness of the situational variables could be observed in the subjects' justification related to politeness – whether they were aware of such variables when evaluating the appropriateness of each apology offering.

Table 28: Frequencies and percentages of provided justifications

	Justifications			
	Politeness-related		Not politeness-related	
	N	%	N	%
HH	30	31.58	65	68.42
HL	20	22.47	69	77.53
LH	6	11.11	48	88.88
LL	4	6.35	59	93.65

All of the subjects' justifications for their appropriateness judgments of apology offerings were categorized into two categories: politeness-related and not politeness-related as shown in the. It can table be seen that the HH were able to provide more politeness-related justifications for their judgments, followed by the HL, LH and LL, respectively. One-way ANOVA results show that the differences in the number of justifications related to politeness are statistically significant between the HH and the LL groups ($p<.05$). The results seem to show that having high levels of English language proficiency and experience enables the HH to be aware of the situational variables and to provide more justifications related to politeness than other groups of Thai EFL learners could. Apart from that, it is found that the LH provided less politeness-related justifications than the HL. The results seem to suggest that having high levels English language experience may not be sufficient for promoting the awareness of situational variables.

6.2.2.2 Qualitative analysis of politeness-related justifications

To further investigate Thai EFL learners' metapragmatic awareness, the justifications related to politeness gathered from all groups of the Thai EFL learners were qualitatively analyzed in order to find out about their awareness of situational

variables. All of the justifications presented in this part were translated into English by the researcher. The justifications found in the data demonstrate that the Thai EFL learners were aware of and based their judgments mostly on the power of the offended party.

The HH's politeness-related justifications indicated the awareness of all situational variables (social distance, relative power and severity of the offence). For example, the following politeness-related justifications were given in situation 8 (see Appendix 7), where the relative power between the speaker and the offended party is equal (=P), the social distance is low (-D), the offence is serious (+R), and an inappropriate apology is offered.

HH8: This offence is extremely severe. It is inappropriate to say this to your classmate.

(R) (P)

HH2: Since the student and the other party are in the same level, they do not need to

(P)

be too polite. However, they should not use too many colloquial expressions because they are not familiar with each other.

(D)

Both subjects correctly judged the apology offering as inappropriate. The HH8's justification reflects his awareness of the severity of the offence and the power of the offended party. HH2 justified his judgment by making references to the equal power of the speaker and the offended party, as well as the distance between the speaker and the offended party.

For the HL, who also displayed relatively high awareness of the situational variables via their politeness-related justifications, two variables – distance and power, were found, as seen in the following examples.

In situation 1 (see Appendix 7), the power of the offended party is higher than that of the speaker, the distance is high and the offence is serious. The following justification was given:

HL2: It is appropriate given the professor's higher status.

(P)

This justification shows that the higher power of the professor was observed when evaluating the apology offering.

In situation 3 (see Appendix 7), where the power of the offended party is higher than that of the speaker, the distance is low and the offence is minor, one justification given was as follows:

HL6: The student is familiar with the professor.

(D)

This example shows that the subject considered the distance between both parties in his evaluation of an apology offering.

The above examples reveal that the HL were aware of the power and the distance between the speaker and the interlocutor when evaluating the appropriateness of apology offerings. None of the HL mentioned the severity of the offence in their justifications.

The LH's justifications related to politeness are presented below.

In situation 5 (see Appendix 7), where the offended party has equal relative power to the speaker, the distance is low and the offence is severe, this following justification was found in the LH data:

LH5: *Appropriate for a friend.*

(D)

This justification displays the subject's awareness of the social distance.

The following justification was given in situation 6 (see Appendix 7), where the offended party has equal relative power to the speaker, the distance is high and the offence is minor.

LH6: This is ok for a classmate. And it is not serious.

(D) (R)

From the politeness-related justifications given by the LH, only the justification provided by the LH6 in situation 6 shows the subject's awareness of the severity of the offence. Other than that, the LH's awareness of situational variables appears to concern mainly about the social distance.

The LL provided the least politeness-related justification when compared to the other groups of Thai EFL learners. The following justifications related to politeness were found in the LL data:

In situation 6 (see Appendix 7), where the offended party has equal relative power to the speaker, the distance is high and the offence is minor, this justification was given:

LL9: Appropriate for a classmate and better than using formal forms.

(D)

The following justification was provided in situation 7 (see Appendix 7), where the offended party has equal power to the speaker, the distance is low and the offence is minor:

LL9: It is appropriate because the other party is a close friend.

(D)

It can be seen that the LL subject was aware of the distance between the offended party and the speaker. Other variables were not mentioned in their justifications.

Analysis of politeness-related justifications among the four groups of Thai EFL learners reveals some insightful information about their metapragmatic awareness. It is found that the four groups of Thai EFL learners were aware of the social distance between the offended party and the speaker. They subjects seemed to be aware of whom the speaker apologizes to. In terms of the extent to which the situational variables were recognized, the HH's justifications related to politeness suggest that they were aware of all of the investigated situational variables. For the HL's justifications, it is revealed that they were aware of the relative power and the social distance. With their limited number of justifications provided, the data show that the LH were aware of the social distance and the severity of the offence while in the LL's justifications, only the awareness of the social distance was observed.

6.2.3 Provided alternatives

After judging the appropriateness of the apology offering in each situation and providing justifications for their judgment, the Thai EFL learners were asked to provide

an alternative for the apology offering that they considered inappropriate. The Thai EFL learner's provided alternatives were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively.

6.2.3.1 Quantitative analysis of provided alternatives

The Thai EFL learners' number of provided alternatives is presented in Table 29.

Table 29: Frequencies and percentages of provided alternatives

	Alternatives			
	Appropriate		**Inappropriate**	
	N	%	N	%
HH	14	100	0	0
HL	10	76.92	3	23.08
LH	1	100	0	0
LL	0	0	1	100

Table 29 presents the frequencies and percentages of the alternatives provided by the Thai EFL learners for the apology offerings they considered inappropriate for the situations. It is obvious that the HH could suggest more alternatives for the inappropriate apology offerings. In fact, all of their alternatives given by the HH were considered appropriate in the situations given the relevant situational variables. For the HL, some of their alternatives were inappropriate. Similar to the HH, all of the LH's alternatives were considered appropriate although the number of their provided suggestions was limited. The LL's alternatives, however, were all inappropriate in the given situations.

6.2.3.2 Qualitative analysis of provided alternatives

For further investigation, the Thai EFL learners' appropriate alternatives provided were qualitatively analyzed by comparing the alternatives given in the same situations.

In situation 2 (see Appendix 7), where the offended party has more relative power, the distance is high and the offence is minor, the following alternatives were given:

HH9: I'm really sorry that I forgot to submit the questionnaire in class. Please take the questionnaire.

HL2: I am sorry, Professor. I forgot this. Could you accept it, please?

LH5: I'm sorry for handing it in late. Is it still on time to submit now?

The above alternatives illustrate the similarities in the appropriate alternatives for situation 2 among the HH, HL and LH, which include (1) IFID expression of regret (*I'm sorry*.), (2) expression of responsibility for the offence by admitting facts (*I forgot to submit the questionnaire* and *I forgot this*.), and (3) appealer (*Could you accept it, please?* and *Is it still on time to submit now?*). It can be seen that IFID expression of regret was used to express a direct apology. The subjects agreed on the use of bold on-record strategy, threatening his or her own positive face. An indirect apology strategy expression of responsibility for the offence by admitting fact was then employed to redress the offence and to please the hearer. The use of appealer indicates that the subjects were also concerned about the offended party's benefit.

More examples of appropriate alternatives can be found in situation 4 (see Appendix 7), where the offended party has more power, the distance is high and the offence is severe.

HH9: I really apologize for not being able to find your books. May I buy you new ones to compensate the lost ones?

HL2: I'm really sorry professor. I lost your books. Could you tell me what I should do for make up?

These alternatives reveal the apology strategies used by the HH and HL. It can be seen that they shared similar use of apology strategies: IFID expression of regret, expression of responsibility by admitting facts and offer of repair, which are considered appropriate for the given situation.

The differences in the numbers of appropriate alternatives may indicate that levels of English language proficiency and experience could potentially help promote EFL learners' metapragmatic awareness. As can be seen, with the higher level of English language proficiency and experience, the HH were able to provide more alternatives that are appropriate for the given situations. In addition, the HL, with their lower level of English language experience, could not provide as many appropriate alternatives as the HH. Moreover, considering the HL and LH' alternatives, it is found that the HL could provide more appropriate alternatives than the LH. Only one appropriate alternative was found in the LH data while the LL was unable to provide any appropriate alternatives.

6.2.4 Relationship between metapragmatic awareness and English language proficiency and experience

The findings reveal that different levels of metapragmatic awareness can be observed among the four groups of Thai EFL learners. When considering the appropriateness judgments, provided justifications related to politeness and provided

alternatives, it is found that the HH showed the higher level of metapragmatic awareness when compared to the other three groups of Thai EFL learners. They could make the highest appropriateness judgments of apology offerings. They were also more aware of all situational variables as seen from their politeness-related justifications. Furthermore, they were able to provide the most appropriate alternatives when compared to the other three groups. It is clear that the high levels of English language proficiency and experience are important; that is, both of them complement each other in promoting the language learners' metapragmatic awareness.

Although the HL were close to the HH in their appropriateness judgments, their politeness-related justifications show that the social distance and relative power are two variables that they were more aware of. It would be unfair to say that they were not aware of the severity of the offence. However, from their justifications, it is possible to say that they were more aware of the two variables than the severity of the offence. Regarding their appropriate alternatives, the HL could provide less when compared to the HH. It can be said that high level of English language proficiency alone may not be sufficient in enhancing metapragmatic awareness.

For the LH and LL, it is clear that the LH were able to make more appropriate judgments than the LL and provide slightly more politeness-related justifications which show that they were more aware of the social distance and the severity of the offence. However, with limited data collected from the LH and LL in terms of politeness-related justifications and appropriate alternatives, one cannot conclude that the LH were better than the LL in metapragmatic awareness just because they were aware of two variables: social distance and severity of the offence, while the LH the LL were aware of only one variable: the social distance, or that the LL were unable to provide any appropriate

alternatives at all. There may be some possible explanations. First, regarding the nature of the task, the subjects were asked to write their responses with the time allotment of 20 minutes. Although the subjects could write their responses in Thai (i.e. their mother tongue), all the situations and apology offerings are in English. With their low level of English language proficiency, the LL would need more time to understand the apology offerings provided in each situation. Consequently, it is possible that, with the time constraint, the subjects were unable to finish the task on time. Still, it revealed that with the low levels of English language proficiency and experience, the LH and LL's metapragmatic awareness diverge from the HH and HL.

The findings in this section correspond with those of some previous studies. According to Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei (1998), level of language proficiency, learning environment, and access to authentic L2 input are the three factors that enhance language learners' pragmatic perception. The HH in this study were those who took several extra hours of English classes with native speakers of English, were taught in some courses in English and used English textbooks and had experiences going abroad to English speaking countries. It is not surprising to find that they outperformed the other groups of Thai EFL learners in all aspects, showing their higher level of metapragmatic awareness. The fact that the HH outperformed the other groups of subjects supports Garcia (2004), who found that there was a connection between the high pragmatic awareness and the high language proficiency. The findings are also in line with some previous studies (e.g. Matsumura, 2003; Olshtain and Blum-kulka, 1994; and Schauer, 2006). That is, the amount of exposure to the target language and overall proficiency are two factors that enhance learners' metapragmatic awareness.

The findings that the HL's metapragmatic awareness was lower than that of the HH and the metapragmatic awareness of the LL was lower than that of the LH parallel with previous studies (Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei, 1998, and Niezgoda and Roever, 2011) in that pragmatic awareness developed independently from linguistic competence. That is, despite the same level of language proficiency, their level of metapragmatic awareness was rather different.

The results from the LL data also supports Garcia's (2004) explanation that the low proficiency learners relied on their current linguistic knowledge and contextual knowledge in their pragmatic comprehension. For this reason, their limited knowledge of the target language possibly resulted in their low pragmatic awareness.

The metapragmatic awareness findings revealed the relationship between metapragmatic awareness and English proficiency and experience. First, it is evident that high English proficiency and experience enhance the development of metapragmatic awareness. Without either of them, the language learners' metapragmatic awareness cannot be increased. In addition, the HL's metapragmatic awareness suggests that high English proficiency alone cannot ensure the language learners' high metapragmatic awareness. The L2 pragmatic knowledge must be promoted simultaneously as the learners improve their L2 proficiency. Still, the findings suggest that at least with the high proficiency, the HL's metapragmatic awareness is increasing. Also, with the high proficiency, the HL's metapragmatic awareness was higher than the LH whose level of English experience were higher. Although there were no significant differences between the HL and LH's metapragmatatic awareness, the findings of the appropriateness judgments suggest that

the high English proficiency enables the learners to perform better in pragmatic evaluation.

In conclusion, the metapragmatic awareness study sheds some light on the relationship between metapragmatic awareness and English language proficiency and experience. It provides the evidence that confirms the importance of both English proficiency and experience in promoting the language learners' metapragmatic awareness.

6.3 Summary

This chapter reports and discusses the findings of the interlanguage pragmatic study of Thai EFL learners' apologies. The results of the comparison and contrast of apology strategy choices among the Thai EFL learner groups across situations, and between the Thai EFL learner groups and the English and Thai norms are presented and discussed, followed by the results of metapragmatic awareness among the Thai EFL learner groups. It is found that apart from the perceptions of situational variables, levels of English proficiency and experience also affect the Thai EFL learners in their selection of apology strategies as well as their metapragmatic awareness. In the next chapter, the summary of the main findings and the topics for further research will be provided.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION

This chapter summarizes the main findings of the present study, which primarily concern the English and Thai norms of apologies and Thai EFL learners' apologies and metapragmatic awareness. Topics for further research will also be provided.

7.1 Summary of the main findings

The study investigated the Thai EFL learners' apologies in university contexts in interlanguage perspectives. The apology strategies of Thai EFL learners whose levels of English proficiency and experience differed were compared to those of the English and Thai norms of apologizing in order to investigate the effect of English proficiency and experience on apology strategy choices. Thai EFL learners' metapragmatic awareness was also examined. The main findings of this study are summarized as follows.

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7.1.1 English and Thai norms of apology

The comparison of apology strategy choices of the NE and NT revealed that overall, in university contexts, the NE and NT were similar in their selection of apology strategies. There were three apology strategies most commonly employed by the NE and NT across situations: explicit display of an apology, expression of responsibility for the offence by admitting facts and offer of repair, respectively. Explicit display of an apology and expression of responsibility for the offence by admitting facts were

found in most situations while offer of repair was a context-sensitive apology strategy, usually found in situations involving damaging the hearer's personal belongings.

Despite the similarities in the apology strategy choices, the NE and NT were different in their selection of sub-strategies of explicit display of an apology. Expression of regret "*I'm sorry*" was the most frequently employed sub-strategy for the NE whereas offer of an apology "kʰǒːtʰôːt̚" or "*I apologize*" was more preferred by the NT. It is also found that the NT rarely upgraded their apologies with intensifiers, unlike the NE who intensified their explicit display of an apology with adverbial intensifiers such as *really, very* and *so*. In addition, the NT usually included alerter (e.g. professor) in their apologies while the NE rarely used alerter.

A comparison of the NE and NT's most frequently employed apology strategies in each situation allows the native norms of apologizing in English and Thai to be established (see Table 5.7). It is found that the English and Thai norms of apologizing in university contexts are the same except in the four situations when apologizing to: (1) a familiar professor for a severe offence; (2) an unfamiliar professor for a severe offence; (3) the best friend for a severe offence; and (4) an unfamiliar freshman for a severe offence. In these situations, the situational variables (namely, social distance, relative power and severity of offence) varied, and they resulted in the selection of apology strategies. It is found that the Thai did not always apologize explicitly, and they usually offered repairs to the hearer of equal or less relative power. The NE, on the other hand, were more willing to apologize and offer repairs to the hearer with more relative power.

To conclude, comparing apology strategy choices between the native speakers of English and the native speakers of Thai in a university context illustrates that both

were similar in their selections of explicit display of an apology, expression of responsibility for the offence and offer of repair. The distribution of these three apology strategies differ in relation to the situational variables.

7.1.2 Thai EFL learners' apologies and metapragmatic awareness

The summary of main findings regarding the Thai EFL learners' apology strategy choices and metapragmatic awareness will be presented below.

In terms of apology strategy choices, the four groups of Thai EFL learners exhibited the similarities in their selections of apology strategies. Overall, the four groups of Thai EFL learners employed explicit display of an apology most frequently, followed by expression of responsibility for the offence by admitting facts and offer of repair, which are similar to the apology strategy choices made by the NE and NT. In terms of linguistic realizations, for explicit display of an apology, the most chosen sub-strategy was expression of regret, which was realized as "I'm sorry". It seems that "I'm sorry" is the formulaic apologetic expression the learners typically study in their English classrooms, and they employed this strategy in every situation.

Using the English and Thai norms of apologizing as a baseline, a comparison of Thai EFL learners' apologies and the English and Thai norms of apologizing was compared (see Table 6.7). Some interesting findings include:

(1) The HL made more negative pragmatic transfer than the other three groups of Thai EFL learners while the HH did not display negative pragmatic transfer, i.e. they did not employ the Thai norms when they apologized in English. The LH and LL made less negative pragmatic transfer due to their limited English proficiency which

prevented them from transferring the Thai norms of apologies when apologizing in English.

(2) The HH employed explicit display of an apology most frequently in every situation, but it did not mean they lacked English pragmatic knowledge. They were aware of situational variables and used the appropriate strategies e.g. intensifier to make their apologies more intense for severe offences.

(3) A comparison of Thai EFL learners' apologies and the English and Thai norms of apologies revealed that even when the situational assessments were the same, the Thai EFL learners did not always employ the same apology strategies as the Thai did when apologizing in English. It suggests that the Thai EFL learners are in the continuum of developing their English pragmatic knowledge.

(4) The HH and LL deviated from the English norms and employed the same apology strategies in some situations. However, for the HH, the deviation was not the result of their low English proficiency. It is possible to say that they have acquired enough English pragmatics to choose the apology strategies appropriate to a given context. For the LL, it is probably because they had to rely on the formulaic form of apologies in order to play safe.

Regarding metapragmatic awareness, the findings indicated that the HH participants demonstrated the highest level of metapragmatic awareness, followed by the HL, LH and LL, respectively. High metapragmatic awareness can be seen in the HH's significantly more accurate appropriate judgments of apology offerings, awareness of all situational variables and more alternatives provided for any inappropriate apology offerings. It is also found that social distance was the situational variable that all of the Thai EFL learner participants observed. Relative power of the

hearer over the speaker and severity of the offence were less observed – only the HH participants exhibited their awareness of these two variables and included them in their justifications for appropriateness judgments. For the provided alternatives for any inappropriate apology offerings, despite the limited number of alternatives considered appropriate to the given contexts, it was the HH who could provide appropriate alternatives the most, followed by the HL and LH while the LL failed to provide any at all.

It can be concluded that that levels of English language proficiency and English language experience contribute to the learners' pragmatic competence, both in pragmatic production and perception. The findings showed that the HH performed better than the other groups of Thai EFL learners, demonstrating no negative pragmatic transfer in their apologies and the high metapragmatic awareness. This confirms the results of previous research (e.g. Shauer, 2009, among others) that highlights the importance of both proficiency and experience in the target language. The differences in pragmatic production and perception between the HH, HL and LH especially suggest the importance of experience in the target language. High levels of proficiency alone are insufficient for language learner' pragmatic development. Both proficiency and experience are very important in promoting language learners' pragmatic competence.

7.2 Topics for further research

There are some possible topics for further research. One would be the comparison of pragmatic production and/or perception of learners with wider range of proficiency levels (e.g. beginners, intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced). This would allow researchers to investigate further into how pragmatic knowledge

develops at different levels of L2 proficiency. Similarly, learners with wider range of L2 experience levels would also be worth investigating. For example, learners who have stayed in the target country for a period of time can be compared with learners who have high L2 experience but never stay in the target country. By comparing pragmatic production and pragmatic perception of learners with wider range of both L2 proficiency and experience levels, more detailed investigation into the role of these factors on language learners' pragmatic development can be made.

Another possible area for further research involves the comparison of language learners' apologies in their first and target languages. By comparing apology strategy choices and their linguistic realizations in both languages, the evidence of pragmatic transfer can be investigated as such comparison truly reflects how language learners apologize in both first and target languages.

In addition, since an apology is offered to maintain social harmony, it would also be interesting to study whether the language learners' apologies are acceptable in the view of speakers from different language backgrounds. Apologies in other speech acts should also be investigated in order to find out more about the functions of apologies in other speech acts.

In relation to the obligation to apologize, the relationship between the obligation to apologize and the selection of apology strategies should also be investigated. The urge to apologize may result in the selection of certain linguistic forms that convey the speaker's intention. Another possible topic related to the obligation to apologize is the sincerity of apologies offered. How the hearer perceives the sincerity to apologize or how sincere apologies are linguistically realized would be another interesting topic for further studies.

Lastly, the effect of pragmatic instruction on the development of pragmatic competence in the target language would also be another interesting topic worth investigating. By investigating the effect of awareness raising activities (e.g. watching or listening to authentic input which include L2 speech act performances and introducing sociocultural conditions in which such speech acts are performed), language learners have an opportunity to develop their pragmatic competence both pragmalinguistically and sociopragmatically. This would benefit language instructors in developing appropriate lessons which would help enhance the learners' pragmatic competence and raise the awareness of the importance of pragmatic instruction.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: English language experience questionnaire (English version)

Thank you very much for your kind cooperation.

Guidance Information:

This questionnaire is composed of 2 parts: 1) personal information, and 2) English language experience. The second part, English Language experience, has sections: A, B, and C. Please answer by placing a checkmark (✓) or writing down your answer ***according to your true experiences.***

I. Personal Information

1. I am ☐ undergraduate student ☐ graduate student post grad
2. Year of study ☐ -- 1st ☐ -- 2nd ☐ -- 3rd
   ☐ -- 4th ☐ other than 4th (please specify) .....
3. Faculty: ..... University:.....
4. Major: .....
5. Age: ..... years old
6. I was born in ☐ Thailand
   ☐Other countries (please specify) .....
7. The first language I learned to speak is
   ☐ Thai ☐ Other languages (please specify)
8. The language I usually use with my family is
   ☐ Thai ☐ Other languages (please specify)
9. The language/languages I comfortably use is/are:
   1) ..... 2) .....
   3) ..... 4) .....
10. I have studied English since I was ..... years old.

II. English Language Experience

A. Please place a checkmark (✓) to indicate your true experiences ***at school and university.***

1. On average, my grades in English courses at school and university are:

Grade / Level	1	2	3	4
At school				
At university				

2. On average, this is how long my English teachers at school and university speak English to me in English courses ***within an hour (60 minutes):***

Min: 1 hr / Level	0 min.	1-10 min.	11-20 min.	21-30 min.	31-40 min.	41-50 min.	51-60 min.
At school							
At university							

B. Please thoroughly read every situation in this section, and write down your answers***according to your true experiences.*** If any of these situations do not correspond with your true experiences, you could omit them.

1. Below are subjects other than English that I used / used textbooks in English.

   At school:

   1) ..... 2) .....

   3) ..... 4) .....

   At university:

   1) ..... 2) .....

   3) ..... 4) .....

2. I attended an international school in Thailand from ..... to .....

3. I have done some extra curriculum activities / some part-time jobs using English.

   English tutor:.....hour per 1 week: From.....to…….

   Tour guide:.....hours per 1 week: From……to……

   Correspondent:.....hours per 1 week: From ……to……..

   Public relations.....hours per 1 week: From.....to.....

   Operator.....hours per 1 week: From …….to……..

   Other activities / jobs: (please specify).....

4. a) I have been abroad in some English-speaking countries .....times(s):

   1st time: Country: .....From ..... to .....

   2nd time: Country: .....From.....to.....

   3rd time: Country: .....From .....to.....

   More than three times: (please specify) .....

   b) During the stay(s) in the place(s) I reported above, I could place a checkmark (✓) to indicate the average extent to which I think I used English as follows:

   No use of English

   Exclusive use of English

   ←————————————————————————→

0%	1-20%	21-40%	41-60%	61-80%	81-100%

5. I have taken some English course(s) abroad in an English speaking country .....time(s):

   1st time: Country name: .....From.....to.....

English study time:.....hours per week.

2nd time: Country name: .....From.....to.....

English study time:.....hours per week.

3rd time: Country name: .....From.....to.....

English study time:.....hours per week.

More than three times: (please specify) .....

6. I have taken intensive course(s) of English language in Thailand.....time(s):

1st time: An intensive course of .....hours per 1 week: From.....to.....

2nd time: An intensive course of .....hours per 1 week: From.....to.....

3rd time: An intensive course of .....hours per 1 week: From.....to.....

More than three times: (please specify) .....

C. Please place a checkmark (✓) to indicate the extent to which you think you have had opportunities to expose to English language *in and outside school* by estimating on average how many hours *per one week* you do the activities in each of the following situations. (Please turn to the next page).

จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย
CHULALONGKORN UNIVERSITY

Situations	Time						
	Never	Less than 4 hours a week	4-8 hours a week	8-12 hours a week	12-16 hours a week	16-20 hours a week	More than 20 hours a week
1. I have English classes 1.1 At school/university							
1.2 Outside school/university							
2. I have studied English with a teacher who is anative English speaker 2.1 At school/university							
2.2 Outside school/university							
3. I have studied with a foreign (English speaking) student 3.1 At school/university							
3.2 Outside school/university							
4. I have studied in an English lab 4.1 At school/university							
4.2 Outside school/university							
5. I have presented reports in English 5.1 At school/university							
5.2 Outside school/university							
6. I read English textbooks 6.1 At school/university							
6.2 Outside school/university							
7. I write assignments in English 7.1 At school/university							
7.2 Outside school/university							
8. I have joined extra curricula activities using English, e.g., debating, play, show, competition, exhibition 8.1 At school/university							
8.2 Outside school/university							
9. I have attended extra English courses besides the school time 9.1 At school/university							
9.2 Outside school/university							
10. I listen to English teaching tapes 10.1 At school/university							
10.2 Outside school/university							
11. I listen to English songs 11.1 At school/university							
11.2 Outside school/university							

Situations	Time						
	Never	Less than 4 hours a week	4-8 hours a week	8-12 hours a week	12-16 hours a week	16-20 hours a week	More than 20 hours a week
12. I read English newspapers / magazines							
12.1 At school/university							
12.2 Outside school/university							
13. I read English fiction / cartoon books							
13.1 At school/university							
13.2 Outside school/university							
14. I read information in English from the internet							
14.1 At school/university							
14.2 Outside school/university							
15. I watch English movies and DVDs							
15.1 At school/university							
15.2 Outside school/university							
16. I watch English news / documentaries							
16.1 At school/university							
16.2 Outside school/university							
17. I play games such as scrabble and crosswords using English							
17.1 At school/university							
17.2 Outside school/university							
18. I practice speaking English by talking to myself/ tape recording							
18.1 At school/university							
18.2 Outside school/university							
19. I have English conversations with foreigners							
19.1 At school/university							
19.2 Outside school/university							
20. I correspond in English by (e-) mail with friends and people							
20.1 At school/university							
20.2 Outside school/university							

Thank you very much for your kind cooperation.

Appendix 2: English Language Experience Questionnaire (Thai version)

แบบสอบถามประสบการณ์การใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ

คำชี้แจง

แบบสอบถามนี้มี 2 ส่วน: 1) ข้อมูลส่วนบุคคล และ 2) ประสบการณ์การใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ แบบสอบถามส่วนที่เป็นประสบการณ์การใช้ภาษาอังกฤษมี 3 ตอน คือ A B และ C กรุณาตอบโดยทำเครื่องหมาย✓หรือเขียนคำตอบ***ตามประสบการณ์จริงของท่าน***

II. ข้อมูลส่วนบุคคล

1. ฉันเป็นนิสิต / นักศึกษาระดับปริญญา ☐ตรี ☐โท ☐เอก
2. ชั้นปีที่ ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4
   ☐มากกว่าชั้นปีที่ 4(โปรดระบุ) .....
3. คณะ: ..... มหาวิทยาลัย: .....
4. วิชาเอก: .....
5. อายุ: .....ปี
6. ฉันเกิดใน ☐ประเทศไทย
   ☐ประเทศอื่น (โปรดระบุ) ...
7. ภาษาแรกในชีวิตที่ฉันพูดได้คือ
   ☐ภาษาไทย
   ☐ภาษาอื่น (โปรดระบุ) .....
8. ภาษาที่ฉันใช้พูดกับคนในครอบครัวของฉันคือ
   ☐ภาษาไทย
   ☐ภาษาอื่น (โปรดระบุ) .....
9. ภาษาที่ฉันใช้สื่อสารได้โดยสะดวก คือ:
   1) ..... 2) .....
   3) ..... 4) .....
10. ฉันเริ่มเรียนภาษาอังกฤษตั้งแต่อายุ..ปี

II. ประสบการณ์การใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ

A. กรุณาทำเครื่องหมาย✓ในช่องที่ตรงกับประสบการณ์จริงของท่าน ในขณะที่เป็นนักเรียนและในขณะที่เป็นนักศึกษา

1. โดยเฉลี่ยแล้วระดับคะแนนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษของฉันในขณะที่เป็นนักเรียนและในขณะที่เป็นนักศึกษามักเป็นดังนี้

ระดับคะแนน / ช่วงเวลา	เกรด 1	เกรด 2	เกรด 3	เกรด 4
ในขณะที่เป็นนักเรียน				
ในขณะที่เป็นนักศึกษา				

2. โดยเฉลี่ยแล้วภายในระยะเวลาต่อ ***1 ชั่วโมง หรือ 60 นาที*** อาจารย์วิชาภาษาอังกฤษที่สอนฉันในขณะที่เป็นนักเรียนและในขณะที่เป็นนักศึกษา พูดภาษาอังกฤษกับฉันในชั้นเรียนภาษาอังกฤษคิดเป็นเวลาดังนี้

นาที: 1 ชั่วโมง / ช่วงเวลา	0 นาที	1-10 นาที	11-20 นาที	21-30 นาที	31-40 นาที	41-50 นาที	51-60 นาที
ในขณะที่เป็นนักเรียน							
ในขณะที่เป็นนักศึกษา							

B. กรุณาอ่านสถานการณ์ต่อไปนี้ทุกข้อ และเขียนคำตอบตามประสบการณ์จริงของท่าน หากท่านไม่มีประสบการณ์ในข้อใด กรุณา***เว้นว่าง***ข้อดังกล่าวไว้

1.วิชาที่ไม่ใช่วิชาภาษาอังกฤษแต่ฉันต้องใช้ภาษาอังกฤษกับวิชาเหล่านี้ (เช่นใช้ตำราภาษาอังกฤษในการเรียนวิชาคณิตศาสตร์) คือ

ในโรงเรียน:

1) ..... 2) .....

3) ..... 4) .....

ในมหาวิทยาลัย:

1) ..... 2) .....

3) ..... 4) .....

2.ฉันเคยเรียนโรงเรียนนานาชาติในประเทศไทย

เมื่อ.....ถึง.....

3. ฉันใช้ภาษาอังกฤษทำกิจกรรมพิเศษต่าง ๆ / ฝึกงานหาความประสบการณ์ / ทำงานหารายได้พิเศษ ฯลฯ ดังต่อไปนี้

สอนพิเศษภาษาอังกฤษ:.....ชั่วโมงต่อ 1 สัปดาห์รวมระยะเวลา.....สัปดาห์.....เดือน.....ปี

มัคคุเทศก์นำเที่ยว:.....ชั่วโมง ต่อ 1 สัปดาห์รวมระยะเวลา.....สัปดาห์.....เดือน.....ปี

พนักงานโต้ตอบจดหมาย:.....ชั่วโมง ต่อ 1 สัปดาห์รวมระยะเวลา.....สัปดาห์.....เดือน.....ปี

ประชาสัมพันธ์:.....ชั่วโมง ต่อ 1 สัปดาห์รวมระยะเวลา.....สัปดาห์.....เดือน.....ปี

พนักงานรับโทรศัพท์:.....ชั่วโมง ต่อ 1 สัปดาห์รวมระยะเวลา.....สัปดาห์.....เดือน.....ปี

กิจกรรมพิเศษ / ฝึกงาน / ทำงานแบบอื่น ๆ: (โปรดระบุ)

4. a) ฉันเคยไปทัศนาจร ท่องเที่ยว หรือพักอาศัยในต่างประเทศที่สื่อสารกันด้วยภาษาอังกฤษ.....ครั้ง:

ครั้งที่ 1: ประเทศ.....รวมระยะเวลา.....สัปดาห์.....เดือน.....ปี

ครั้งที่ 2: ประเทศ.....รวมระยะเวลา.....สัปดาห์.....เดือน.....ปี

ครั้งที่ 3: ประเทศ.....รวมระยะเวลา.....สัปดาห์.....เดือน.....ปี

เกินกว่า 3 ครั้ง: (โปรดระบุ) .....

b) ขณะอยู่ต่างประเทศดังกล่าวข้างต้น ฉันได้ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในปริมาณเฉลี่ยเป็นร้อยละดังนี้

ไม่ได้ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ ⟷ **ใช้เฉพาะภาษาอังกฤษ**

0%	1-20%	21-40%	41-60%	61-80%	81-100%

5. ฉันเคยเข้าชั้นเรียนภาษาอังกฤษในต่างประเทศที่สื่อสารกันด้วยภาษาอังกฤษ.....ครั้ง:

ครั้งที่ 1: ประเทศ.....เวลาเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ.....ชั่วโมง ต่อ 1 สัปดาห์

รวมระยะเวลาการเข้าชั้นเรียนในครั้งนี้.....สัปดาห์ .....เดือน.....ปี

ครั้งที่ 2: ประเทศ.....เวลาเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ.....ชั่วโมง ต่อ 1 สัปดาห์

รวมระยะเวลาการเข้าชั้นเรียนในครั้งนี้.....สัปดาห์ .....เดือน.....ปี

ครั้งที่ 3: ประเทศ.....เวลาเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ.....ชั่วโมง ต่อ 1 สัปดาห์

รวมระยะเวลาการเข้าชั้นเรียนในครั้งนี้.....สัปดาห์ .....เดือน.....ปี

เกินกว่า 3 ครั้ง: (โปรดระบุ) .....

6. ฉันเคยเรียนภาษาอังกฤษแบบเข้มข้น (intensive course) ในประเทศไทย.....ครั้ง

ครั้งที่ 1: เป็นเวลา.....ชั่วโมงต่อ 1 สัปดาห์; รวมระยะเวลา.....สัปดาห์.....เดือน.....ปี

ครั้งที่ 2: เป็นเวลา.....ชั่วโมงต่อ 1 สัปดาห์; รวมระยะเวลา.....สัปดาห์.....เดือน.....ปี

ครั้งที่ 3: เป็นเวลา.....ชั่วโมงต่อ 1 สัปดาห์; รวมระยะเวลา.....สัปดาห์.....เดือน.....ปี

มากกว่า 3 ครั้ง: (โปรดระบุ) .....

C. **กรุณาทำเครื่องหมาย✓**ในช่องที่ท่านคิดว่าสามารถระบุระยะเวลาของประสบการณ์การใช้ภาษาอังกฤษที่ท่านเคยมีในขณะที่เป็นนักเรียนและกำลังมีอยู่ในขณะที่เป็นนักศึกษา โดยประมาณค่าเฉลี่ยจำนวนชั่วโมงต่อ 1 สัปดาห์ ในการทำกิจกรรมแต่ละสถานการณ์ดังต่อไปนี้

สถานการณ์	เวลา						
	ไม่เคย	น้อยกว่า 4 ช.ม. ต่อ 1 สัปดาห์	4-8 ช.ม. ต่อ 1 สัปดาห์	8-12 ช.ม. ต่อ 1 สัปดาห์	12-16 ช.ม. ต่อ 1 สัปดาห์	16-20 ช.ม. ต่อ 1 สัปดาห์	มากกว่า 20 ช.ม. ต่อ 1 สัปดาห์
1. ฉันมีชั้นเรียนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ 1.1 ที่โรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
1.2 นอกโรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
2. ฉันเรียนภาษาอังกฤษกับอาจารย์ชาวต่างชาติเจ้าของภาษาอังกฤษ 2.1 ที่โรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
2.2 นอกโรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
3. ฉันเรียนกับเพื่อนนักเรียน/ นักศึกษาชาวต่างชาติเจ้าของภาษาอังกฤษ 3.1 ที่โรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
3.2 นอกโรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
4. ฉันเรียนภาษาอังกฤษในห้องปฏิบัติการทางภาษา (English Lab) 4.1 ที่โรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
4.2 นอกโรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
5. ฉันนำเสนอรายงานเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ 5.1 ที่โรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
5.2 นอกโรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
6. ฉันอ่านตำราภาษาอังกฤษ 6.1 ที่โรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
6.2 นอกโรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
7. ฉันทำการบ้านเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ 7.1 ที่โรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
7.2 นอกโรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
8. ฉันเข้าร่วมกิจกรรมเสริมหลักสูตรที่ต้องใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ เช่น โต้วาที ละคร การแสดง การแข่งขัน การจัดนิทรรศการ 8.1 ที่โรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
8.2 นอกโรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
9. ฉันเรียนพิเศษภาษาอังกฤษ 9.1 ที่โรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
9.2 นอกโรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
10. ฉันฟังเทปสอนภาษาอังกฤษ 10.1 ที่โรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
10.2 นอกโรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							

สถานการณ์	เวลา						
	ไม่เคย	น้อยกว่า 4 ช.ม. ต่อ 1 สัปดาห์	4-8 ช.ม. ต่อ 1 สัปดาห์	8-12 ช.ม. ต่อ 1 สัปดาห์	12-16 ช.ม. ต่อ 1 สัปดาห์	16-20 ช.ม. ต่อ 1 สัปดาห์	มากกว่า 20 ช.ม. ต่อ 1 สัปดาห์
11. ฉันฟังเพลงภาษาอังกฤษ							
11.1 ที่โรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
11.2 นอกโรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
12. ฉันอ่านหนังสือพิมพ์/นิตยสารภาษาอังกฤษ							
12.1 ที่โรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
12.2 นอกโรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
13. ฉันอ่านหนังสือนิยาย/การ์ตูนภาษาอังกฤษ							
13.1 ที่โรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
13.2 นอกโรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
14. ฉันอ่านข้อมูลข่าวสารที่เป็นภาษาอังกฤษจากอินเตอร์เน็ต							
14.1 ที่โรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
14.2 นอกโรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
15. ฉันดูภาพยนตร์และดีวีดีภาษาอังกฤษ							
15.1 ที่โรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
15.2 นอกโรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
16. ฉันดูข่าว/สารคดีภาษาอังกฤษ							
16.1 ที่โรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
16.2 นอกโรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
17. ฉันเล่นเกมที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ เช่น scrabble และ crosswords เป็นต้น							
17.1 ที่โรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
17.2 นอกโรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
18. ฉันฝึกภาษาอังกฤษโดยพูดภาษาอังกฤษกับตนเอง/บันทึกเสียงพูดตนเอง							
18.1 ที่โรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
18.2 นอกโรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
19. ฉันสนทนาภาษาอังกฤษกับชาวต่างชาติ							
19.1 ที่โรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
19.2 นอกโรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
20. ฉันติดต่อกับเพื่อนและผู้อื่นทางจดหมาย (อิเล็กทรอนิกส์) ด้วยภาษาอังกฤษ							
20.1 ที่โรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							
20.2 นอกโรงเรียน/มหาวิทยาลัย							

ขอขอบคุณอย่างสูงที่ให้ความร่วมมือในงานวิจัย

Appendix 3: Scoring Criteria of English Language Experience Questionnaire (Modehiran, 2005)

Criteria for scoring English language experience questionnaire:

Part 1: Personal Information

1-10: No mark. Information from this part is used to support the score results from other sections.

Part 2: English Language Experience

A. Total of maximum score: 40 marks

1. Maximum score: 16 marks

At school/at university:

Grade 1: 2 marks Grade 2: 4 marks

Grade 3: 6 marks Grade 4: 8 marks

2. Maximum score: 24 marks

At school/at university

0 minute: 0 marks 1-10 minute(s): 2 marks

11-20 minutes: 4 marks 21-30 minutes: 6 marks

31-40 minutes: 8 marks 41-50 minutes: 10 marks

51-60 minutes: 12 marks

B. Total of maximum score: 80 marks

1. Maximum score: 8 marks

At school/at university: No responses 0 mark 1 subject name: 1 mark

2. Maximum score: 14 marks

No response: 0 mark

Amount of time reported by respondents is calculated and arranged in order from the longest to the shortest. The range received is divided into seven intervals. These seven intervals are assigned marks as follows:

1st interval: 2 marks 2nd interval: 4 marks

3rd interval: 6 marks 4th interval: 8 marks

5th interval: 10 marks 6th interval: 12 marks

7th interval: 14 marks

3. Maximum score: 14 marks

No response: 0 marks

Number of activities/jobs, hours per week, and amount of time reported by each respondent are added together. The result is then brought to arrange in order form the longest to the shortest. The range received is divided into seven intervals. The seven intervals are assigned marks as follows:

1st interval: 2 marks 2nd interval: 4 marks

3rd interval: 6 marks 4th interval: 8 marks

5th interval: 10 marks 6th interval: 12 marks

7th interval: 14 marks

4. Maximum score: 14 marks

No response: 0 mark

4a) Maximum score: 4 marks

The total of time being abroad in an English speaking country is brought to arrange in order from the longest to the shortest. The range received is divided into four intervals. The four intervals are assigned marks as follows:

1st interval: 1 marks 2nd interval: 2 marks

3rd interval: 3 marks 4th interval: 4 marks

4b) Maximum score: 10 marks

0%: 0 mark 1-20%: 20 marks

21-40%: 4 marks 41-60%: 6 marks

61-80% 8 marks 81-100%: 10 marks

5. Maximum score: 14 marks

No response: 0 mark

The time total reported in having English course(s) abroad in an English speaking country is brought to arrange in order from the longest to the shortest. The range received is divided into seven intervals. The seven intervals are assigned marks as follows:

1st interval: 2 marks 2nd interval: 4 marks

3rd interval: 6 marks 4th interval: 8 marks

5th interval: 10 marks 6th interval: 12 marks

7th interval: 14 marks

6. Maximum score: 16 marks

The time total reported in having intensive course(s) of English in Thailand is brought to arrange in order from the longest to the shortest. The range received is divided into eight intervals. The right intervals are assigned marks as follows:

1st interval: 2 marks	2nd interval: 4 marks
3rd interval: 6 marks	4th interval: 8 marks
5th interval: 10 marks	6th interval: 12 marks
7th interval: 14 marks	8th: 16 marks

C. Maximum score: 120 marks

1-20: Marks are assigned for both "at school/university" and "outside school/university" as follows:

Never: 0 mark	Less than 4 hours a week: 1 mark
4-8 hours a week: 2 marks	8-12 hours a week: 3 marks
12-16 hours a week: 6 marks	16-20 hours a week: 5 marks
More than 20 hours a week: 6 marks	

As for the marks assigned, the whole section including "at school/university" and "outside school/university" receives 240 marks. The marks are then divided by 2 and become 120. One hundred and twenty would be the result of maximum score for this section.

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Appendix 4: Oral DCT scenarios (English version)

Oral Discourse Completion Task

Directions: There are twelve situations below. In each situation, you will represent yourself as an offender. Please provide your possible oral responses to each situation. In any case you feel the need to have a nonverbal response, please specify it.

Situation 1: It is the last day of your English course and you are to give the final oral presentation which is very important for your grade. You spent the night before preparing for the presentation and you got up late. As a result, you cannot make it on time and are an hour late. You need to talk to the professor whom you have known for a long time and ask for a make-up presentation. What would you say to the professor?

Situation 2: You forget to submit a questionnaire in the class to a professor whom you do not know well. You hurry to the professor's office right after class. When you see the professor, you hand in the questionnaire. What would you say to the professor?

Situation 3: You are rushing to class. While you are crossing the road, you do not look carefully and accidentally jump in front of a car. You are alright and do not scratch yourself, nor the car. The driver, a professor whom you have known for a long time, has to stop the car and see if you are okay. What would you say to the professor?

Situation 4: You have just found out that you have not returned some books to a professor whom you do not know well. You cannot find the books anywhere and believe that they have been lost. What would you say to the professor?

Situation 5: Your best friend, who is also your classmate, lends you her/his laptop so that you can work on a group project. You accidentally spill some water on the keyboard, causing the computer to break down. What would you say to your best friend?

Situation 6: At noon, you run into the professor of the afternoon class at the canteen. The professor asks you to inform everyone about the cancellation of the class in the afternoon, but you completely forget. You remember to do so while waiting for the professor in the class with your classmates, whom you do not know. What would you say to them?

Situation 7: You have an appointment with your best friend at the university's library. On the way, you find that you leave your wallet at home and have to go back to get it. You are ten minutes late. What would you say to your best friend?

Situation 8: You forget to inform one of your classmates, whom you do not know, that a professor wants to see her/him. As a result, your classmate does not go to see the professor and the professor is very upset. What would you say to your classmate?

Situation 9: This semester you are taking an elective course with some freshmen whom you are familiar with. For the final group project, you are responsible for doing a Power Point presentation. On the day of the presentation, you forget to bring your flash drive. The professor let your group do the presentation the following week with some points deducted. What would you say to your group mates?

Situation 10: You borrow a pen from a freshman whom you do not know and forget to return it to the freshman. You remember to do so right before the freshman leaves the class. What would you say to the freshman?

Situation 11: One of the freshmen whom you know from your elective class and you are familiar with asks you to take some of her/his photos during the presentation. You are not familiar with her/his camera. As a result, most photos are blurred. When you return the camera to him/her, what would you say to the freshman?

Situation 12: You are in the canteen having a big cup of coffee. Sharing the same table with you is a freshman whom you do not know, working on his/her assignment. You accidentally spill your coffee on the table and on that freshman's work. He/she angrily tells you that the assignment is due today. What would you say to the freshman?

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Appendix 5: Oral DCT scenarios (Thai version)

1. วันนี้เป็นวันสุดท้ายของการเรียนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษที่คุณจะต้องนำเสนองานหน้าชั้น คุณใช้เวลาทั้งคืนในการเตรียมงานและคุณตื่นสาย ทำให้คุณมาสอบไม่ทันและต้องไปคุยกับอาจารย์ที่คุณรู้จักมานาน คุณจะพูดกับอาจารย์ว่าอย่างไร
2. คุณลืมส่งแบบสอบถามให้อาจารย์ที่คุณไม่รู้จักดี ด้วยสายไป 1 สัปดาห์ เมื่อคุณไปส่งแบบสอบถาม คุณจะพูดกับอาจารย์ว่าอย่างไร
3. คุณกำลังรีบไปเข้าชั้นเรียน ขณะกำลังข้ามถนน คุณไม่ระวังและไปเดินตัดหน้ารถคันหนึ่ง คนขับซึ่งเป็นอาจารย์ที่คุณรู้จักมานานได้หยุดรถและลงมาดูว่าคุณเป็นอะไรหรือเปล่า คุณจะพูดกับอาจารย์ว่าอย่างไร
4. คุณเพิ่งทราบว่าคุณยังไม่ได้คืนหนังสืออาจารย์ที่คุณไม่รู้จักดี คุณหาหนังสือไม่เจอ คุณจะพูดกับอาจารย์ว่าอย่างไร
5. เพื่อนสนิทของคุณซึ่งเป็นเพื่อนร่วมชั้นกับคุณด้วย ให้คุณยืมคอมพิวเตอร์แลปท็อปเพื่อมาทำงานกลุ่ม คุณทำน้ำหกใส่คีย์บอร์ดทำให้คอมพิวเตอร์เสีย คุณจะพูดกับเพื่อนของคุณว่าอย่างไร
6. คุณได้รับเลือกให้เป็นประธานรุ่น ในฐานะประธานรุ่น คุณต้องแจ้งให้เพื่อนทราบเรื่องวิชาเรียนและการบ้านต่างๆ วันหนึ่งคุณลืมแจ้งให้เพื่อนทราบว่าอาจารย์งดสอนตอนเช้า ทุกคนรวมทั้งคุณมาเรียนตามปกติ เมื่อเจอเพื่อนร่วมชั้น คุณจะพูดกับเพื่อนร่วมชั้นว่าอย่างไร
7. คุณมีนัดกับเพื่อนสนิทที่ห้องสมุดของมหาวิทยาลัย ระหว่างทางคุณพบว่าคุณลืมกระเป๋าสตางค์ไว้ที่บ้านและต้องกลับบ้านไปเอากระเป๋า คุณมาสายไป 10 นาที คุณจะพูดกับเพื่อนสนิทของคุณว่าอย่างไร
8. คุณลืมแจ้งให้เพื่อนร่วมชั้นคนหนึ่งทราบว่าอาจารย์ต้องการพบ ทำให้เพื่อนร่วมชั้นไม่ได้ไปพบอาจารย์และอาจารย์ไม่พอใจ คุณจะพูดกับเพื่อนร่วมชั้นว่าอย่างไร
9. คุณเป็นประธานรุ่น ในเทอมนี้คุณลงทะเบียนเรียนวิชาเลือกพร้อมกับนักศึกษารุ่นน้องชั้นปีที่ 1 ที่คุณคุ้นเคยด้วยในการทำโครงงานกลุ่มครั้งสุดท้าย คุณรับผิดชอบทำโปรแกรมนำเสนองาน ในวันเสนองาน คุณลืมเอาแฟลชไดร์ฟมา อาจารย์ผู้สอนอนุญาตให้กลุ่มของคุณเสนองานในสัปดาห์ถัดไปโดยจะหักคะแนนบางส่วนออกไป คุณจะพูดกับนักศึกษารุ่นน้องในกลุ่มว่าอย่างไร

10. คุณยืมปากกาจากนักศึกษาชั้นปีที่ 1 ที่คุณไม่รู้จักและลืมคืน คุณจำได้ว่าต้องคืนปากกาตอนที่นักศึกษาคนนั้นกำลังจะออกจากห้อง คุณจะพูดกับนักศึกษาชั้นปีที่ 1 คนนั้นว่าอย่างไร
11. นักศึกษาชั้นปีที่ 1 ที่คุณรู้จักเพราะเรียนวิชาเลือกเดียวกับคุณขอให้คุณถ่ายภาพของเขาขณะกำลังเสนองานหน้าชั้นเรียน คุณไม่คุ้นกับกล้องของเขา ทำให้ถ่ายภาพออกมาไม่ชัดเป็นส่วนใหญ่ เมื่อคุณคืนกล้องให้เขา คุณจะพูดกับนักศึกษาชั้นปีที่ 1 ว่าอย่างไร
12. คุณนั่งดื่มกาแฟอยู่ที่โรงอาหารและนั่งโต๊ะเดียวกับนักศึกษาชั้นปีที่ 1 ที่คุณไม่รู้จัก นักศึกษาคนนั้นกำลังเขียนรายงานอยู่ คุณบังเอิญทำกาแฟหกและเปื้อนรายงานของนักศึกษาคนนั้น เขาโกรธมากและบอกคุณว่ารายงานต้องส่งวันนี้ คุณจะพูดกับนักศึกษาคนนั้นว่าอย่างไร

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Appendix 6: Situational Assessment Questionnaire

Directions: Each situation is from Oral DCT. Please answer the following questions according to your opinion.

Situation 1: Being late to the final oral presentation

1) How close are you and your professor in this situation?

1	2	3
very close	somewhat close	distant

2) What is the status relationship between you and your professor in this situation?

1	2	3
You higher than professor	you = professor	professor higher than you

3) How serious is the offence?

1	2	3
not serious at all	somewhat serious	very serious

4) Do you really need to apologize?

1	2	3
not really	yes	absolutely

Situation 2: Submitting a questionnaire late

1) How close are you and the professor in this situation?

1	2	3
very close	somewhat close	distant

2) What is the status relationship between you and the professor in this situation?

1	2	3
you higher than professor	you = professor	professor higher than you

3) How serious is the offence?

1	2	3
not serious at all	somewhat serious	very serious

4) Do you really need to apologize?

1	2	3
Not really	yes	absolutely

Situation 3: Jumping in front of a professor's car

1) How close are you and your professor in this situation?

1	2	3
Very close	somewhat close	distant

2) What is the status relationship between you and your professor in this situation?

1	2	3
You higher than professor	you = professor	professor higher than you

3) How serious is the offence?

1	2	3
Not serious at all	somewhat serious	very serious

4) Do you really need to apologize?

1	2	3
Not really	yes	absolutely

Situation 4: Losing a professor's books

1) How close are you and the professor in this situation?

1	2	3
Very close	somewhat close	distant

2) What is the status relationship between you and the professor in this situation?

1	2	3
You higher than professor	you = professor	professor higher than you

3) How serious is the offence?

1	2	3
Not serious at all	somewhat serious	very serious

4) Do you really need to apologize?

1	2	3
Not really	yes	absolutely

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Situation 5: Damaging your best friend's laptop

1) How close are you and your friend in this situation?

1	2	3
Very close	somewhat close	distant

2) What is the status relationship between you and your friend in this situation?

1	2	3
You higher than friend	you = friend	friend higher than you

3) How serious is the offence?

1	2	3
Not serious at all	somewhat serious	very serious

4) Do you really need to apologize?

1	2	3
Not really	yes	absolutely

Situation 6: Forgetting to inform classmates of class cancellation

1) How close are you and your classmates in this situation?

1	2	3
Very close	somewhat close	distant

2) What is the status relationship between you and your classmates in this situation?

1	2	3
You higher than classmates	you = classmates	classmates higher than you

3) How serious is the offence?

1	2	3
Not serious at all	somewhat serious	very serious

4) Do you really need to apologize?

1	2	3
Not really	yes	absolutely

Situation 7: Being late for an appointment with your best friend

1) How close are you and your best friend in this situation?

1	2	3
Very close	somewhat close	distant

2) What is the status relationship between you and your best friend in this situation?

1	2	3
You higher than friend	you = friend	friend higher than you

3) How serious is the offence?

1	2	3
Not serious at all	somewhat serious	very serious

4) Do you really need to apologize?

1	2	3
Not really	yes	absolutely

Situation 8: Forgetting to tell a classmate to go see the professor

1) How close are you and your classmate in this situation?

1	2	3
Very close	somewhat close	distant

2) What is the status relationship between you and your classmate in this situation?

1	2	3
You higher than classmate	you = classmate	classmate higher than you

3) How serious is the offence?

1	2	3
Not serious at all	somewhat serious	very serious

4) Do you really need to apologize?

1	2	3
Not really	yes	absolutely

Situation 9: Forgetting to bring your flash drive

1) How close are you and your group mates in this situation?

1	2	3
Very close	somewhat close	distant

2) What is the status relationship between you and your group mates in this situation?

1	2	3
You higher than group mates	you = group mates	group mates higher than you

3) How serious is the offence?

1	2	3
Not serious at all	somewhat serious	very serious

4) Do you really need to apologize?

1	2	3
Not really	yes	absolutely

Situation 10: Forgetting to return a freshman's pen

1) How close are you and the freshman in this situation?

1	2	3
Very close	somewhat close	distant

2) What is the status relationship between you and the freshman in this situation?

1	2	3
You higher than freshman	you = freshman	freshman higher than you

3) How serious is the offence?

1	2	3
Not serious at all	somewhat serious	very serious

4) Do you really need to apologize?

1	2	3
Not really	yes	absolutely

Situation 11: Taking blurred photos for a freshman

1) How close are you and the freshman in this situation?

1	2	3
Very close	somewhat close	distant

2) What is the status relationship between you and the freshman in this situation?

1	2	3
You higher than freshman	you = freshman	freshman higher than you

3) How serious is the offence?

1	2	3
Not serious at all	somewhat serious	very serious

4) Do you really need to apologize?

1	2	3
Not really	yes	absolutely

Situation 12: Spilling coffee on a freshman's assignment

1) How close are you and the freshman in this situation?

1	2	3
Very close	somewhat close	distant

2) What is the status relationship between you and the freshman in this situation?

1	2	3
You higher than freshman	you = freshman	freshman higher than you

3) How serious is the offence?

1	2	3
Not serious at all	somewhat serious	very serious

4) Do you really need to apologize?

1	2	3
Not really	yes	absolutely

Thank you for your cooperation.

Appendix 7: Pragmatic Judgment Task

Directions: There are twelve situations with an apologetic response provided for each situation. Is the response appropriate for each situation? Please provide your reason. For any inappropriate responses, please suggest an alternative. You may respond in Thai.

คำสั่ง แบบสอบถามนี้มีเหตุการสมมติ 12 สถานการณ์พร้อมคำตอบเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ มีคำตอบใดที่เหมาะสมต่อสถานการณ์หรือไม่ กรุณาให้เหตุผล หากมีคำตอบใดไม่เหมาะสมกับสถานการณ์ กรุณาให้คำตอบอื่นเป็นข้อเสนอแนะ คุณสามารถตอบเป็นภาษาไทยได้

Situation 1: It is the last day of your English course and a student is to give the final oral presentation which is very important for his/her grade. He/she spent the night before preparing for the presentation and got up late. As a result, he/she cannot make it on time and is an hour late. He/she needs to talk to the professor whom he/she has known for a long time and ask for a make-up presentation.

Student: *I am terribly sorry, Professor. I know it's my fault that I missed the presentation. Please tell me if there is anything I can do to make up for this.*

Your Judgment: _____ Appropriate เหมาะสม _____ Inappropriate ไม่เหมาะสม

Reason (เหตุผล):

Alternative (if any) (คำตอบอื่น ถ้ามี):

Situation 2: A student forgets to submit a questionnaire in the class to a professor whom he/she does not know. He/she hurries to the professor's office right after class. When he/she sees the professor, he/she hands in the questionnaire.

Student: *Sorry for the delay. Hope it's not too late.*

Your Judgment: _____ Appropriate เหมาะสม _____ Inappropriate ไม่เหมาะสม

Reason (เหตุผล):

Alternative (if any) (คำตอบอื่น ถ้ามี):

Situation 3: A student is rushing to class. While crossing the road, he/she does not look carefully and accidentally jumps in front of a car. The student is alright and does not scratch him/herself, nor the car. The driver, who is a professor whom the student has known for a long time, has to stop the car and see if the student is okay.

Student: *Oh, I'm so sorry, Professor. I'm late for class and I wasn't looking.*

Your Judgment: _____ Appropriate เหมาะสม _____ Inappropriate ไม่เหมาะสม

Reason (เหตุผล):

Alternative (if any) (คำตอบอื่น ถ้ามี):

Situation 4: A student has just found out that he/she has not returned some books to a professor whom he/she does not know well. He/she cannot find the books anywhere and believe that they have been lost.

Student: *Sorry I've lost the books. I need to register for the next semester now so tell me what to do.*

Your Judgment: _____ Appropriate เหมาะสม _____ Inappropriate ไม่เหมาะสม

Reason (เหตุผล):

Alternative (if any) (คำตอบอื่น ถ้ามี):

Situation 5: A student borrows a laptop from his/her best friend, who is also his/her classmate, so that the student can work on a group project. The student spills some water on the keyboard, causing the computer to break down.

Student: *I'm so sorry about the computer. Please don't be mad at me. I'll pay for the repair.*

Your Judgment: _____ Appropriate เหมาะสม _____ Inappropriate ไม่เหมาะสม

Reason (เหตุผล):

Alternative (if any) (คำตอบอื่น ถ้ามี):

Situation 6: At noon, a student runs into the professor of the afternoon class at the canteen. The professor asks the student to inform everyone about the cancellation of the class in the afternoon, but he/she completely forgets. He/she remembers to do so while waiting for the professor in the class with the classmates, whom he/she is not familiar with.

Student: *Oh, I forgot to tell you guys about the cancellation. Let's go.*

Your Judgment: _____ Appropriate เหมาะสม _____ Inappropriate ไม่เหมาะสม

Reason (เหตุผล):

Alternative (if any) (คำตอบอื่น ถ้ามี):

Situation 7: A student has an appointment with his/her best friend at the university's library. On the way, the student finds that he/she leaves his/her wallet at home and has to go back to get it. The student is ten minutes late.

Student: *Thanks for waiting for me. I'm really sorry but I have to go get my wallet first.*

Your Judgment: _____ Appropriate เหมาะสม _____ Inappropriate ไม่เหมาะสม

Reason (เหตุผล):

Alternative (if any) (คำตอบอื่น ถ้ามี):

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Situation 8: A student forgets to inform one of his /her classmates, whom the student is not familiar with, that a professor wants to see her/him. As a result, the classmate does not go to see the professor and the professor is very upset.

Student: *I totally forgot. Hope it's okay. Was the professor mad at you?*

Your Judgment: _____ Appropriate เหมาะสม _____ Inappropriate ไม่เหมาะสม

Reason (เหตุผล):

Alternative (if any) (คำตอบอื่น ถ้ามี):

Situation 9: A student is taking an elective course with a freshman whom the student is familiar with. For the final group project, the student is responsible for doing a Power Point presentation. On the day of the presentation, he/she forgets to bring his/her flash drive. The professor let the group do the presentation the following week with some points deducted.

Student: *It is my fault. I'm really sorry. I shouldn't have forgotten the flash drive.*

Your Judgment: _____ Appropriate เหมาะสม _____ Inappropriate ไม่เหมาะสม

Reason (เหตุผล):

Alternative (if any) (คำตอบอื่น ถ้ามี):

Situation 10: A student borrows a pen from a freshman whom he/she is not familiar with and forgets to return it to the freshman. He/she remembers to do so right before the freshman leaves the class.

Student: *Sorry. You should have reminded me to return the pen to you.*

Your Judgment: _____ Appropriate เหมาะสม _____ Inappropriate ไม่เหมาะสม

Reason (เหตุผล):

Alternative (if any) (คำตอบอื่น ถ้ามี):

Situation 11: A student is asked by one of the freshmen whom the student knows from an elective class and is familiar with to take some of her/his photos during the presentation. The student is not familiar with the freshman's camera. As a result, most photos are blurred.

Student: *I didn't mean to. I'm not familiar with this model.*

Your Judgment: _____ Appropriate เหมาะสม _____ Inappropriate ไม่เหมาะสม

Reason (เหตุผล):

Alternative (if any) (คำตอบอื่น ถ้ามี):

Situation 12: A 2nd year student is in the canteen having a big cup of coffee. Sharing the same table is a freshman whom the student does not know, writing his/her report. The student accidentally spills some coffee on the table and on that student's report. He/she angrily tells you that the report is due today.

Student: *Oh, sorry. Hope it's not that important.*

Your Judgment: _____ Appropriate เหมาะสม _____ Inappropriate ไม่เหมาะสม

Reason (เหตุผล):

Alternative (if any) (คำตอบอื่น ถ้ามี):

ขอบพระคุณที่ให้ความอนุเคราะห์

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VITA

Atinuch Pin-ngern was born on August 20, 1978. She received her B.A. in English from Faculty of Arts, Chulalongkorn University. She then continued her Master Degree in Language and Communication at National Institute of Development Administration (NIDA). She has worked as an English lecturer at Faculty of Industrial Education, King Mongkut's Institute of Technology, Ladkrabang (KMITL) since 2004. In 2009, she pursued her Ph.D. study at English as an International Language Program, Chulalongkorn University. Her research interests include interlanguage pragmatics and academic English.

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