REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

EXPLORING PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE OF PRESCHOOL CHILDREN WITH A SPECIFIC REFERENCE TO THE SPEECH ACT OF APOLOGY IN TURKISH

Özge Gül ZEREY

PhD. DISSERTATION

ADANA / 2019

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PhD. DISSERTATION

ADANA / 2019

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ÖZET

ANAOKULUNA GİDEN ÇOCUKLARIN TÜRKÇE ÖZÜR SÖZEYLEMİ KONUSUNDA EDİMSEL YETERLİLİKLERİNİN ARAŞTIRILMASI

Özge Gül ZEREY

Doktora Tezi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı
Danışman: Prof. Dr. Hatice SOFU
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Özür dileme, zarar görmüş ilişkileri onarma ve kişiler arasında sosyal bir normun ihlalinden dolayı zedelenen sosyal uyumu eski haline getirme işlevine sahip olması sebebiyle en önemli söz edimlerinden biri olarak kabul edilir. İlgili literatürde varolan çalışmalar bu edimin algılanma ve gerçekleştirilmesinde diller arasında benzerlikler olduğu gibi farklılıklar bulunduğunu da göstermektedir. Çoğunlukla aradil edimbilim ya da kültürlerarası edimbilim alanında yapılan bu çalışmalar sayesinde Türkçe de dahil olmak üzere pek çok dilde yetişkin kullanım tercihleri iyi tanımlanmış bir alan haline gelmiştir. Fakat, bu durum çocukların özürleri algılama ve kullanım biçimleri için geçerli değildir çünkü bu konudaki çalışmalar nispeten az sayıdadır ve sadece birkaç dili kapsamaktadır.

Bu yüzden, bu betimsel çalışmanın amacı anaokulunda okuyan Türk çocukların özür dileme söz edimini gerçekleştirme kalıpları bakımından edimsel yeterliklerini araştırmaktır. İlk olarak, özürler hakkında meta-edimbilimsel bilgileri test edilmiş ve daha sonra iki farklı yaş grubu (4;0-4;11 ve 5;0-6;0) kullanılan stratejilerin yapısı (tekli ya da çoklu), stratejilerin çeşidi ve çeşitliliği açısından artan yaşla meydana gelen olası gelişimsel eğilimleri ortaya çıkarmak amacıyla kıyaslanmıştır. Buna ek olarak, tüm katılımcı çocuklar, cinsiyet, aile eğitim durumu, ve anaokul deneyimi gibi toplumdilbilimsel değişkenlerin onların bu söz edimi gerçekleştirme kalıpları üzerindeki olası etkisini araştırmak amacıyla bu değişkenlere göre gruplandırılmıştır. Son olarak, çocukların, sosyopragmatik becerileri, araştırmacılar (örn. Fraser, 1981; Brown & Levinson, 1987) tarafından konuşucuların özür dileme davranışları üzerinde etkili olduğu bildirilen birkaç bağlamsal değişkene duyarlılıkları ile ölçülmüştür. Bu parametreler işlenen suçun şiddeti, çeşidi ve konuşucular arasındaki sosyal statü ilişkisidir.

Bu amaçları gerçekleştirmek üzere, suç içeren sekiz senaryo yukarıda bahsedilen bağlamsal parametreler etrafında şekillendirilerek hazırlanmış ve Sözlü Söylem Tamamlama Testi formatında uygulanmıştır. Böylelikle, bu çalışma için elde edilen verileri, anaokuluna giden, yaşları 4 ila 6 arasında değişen 100 çocuğun kendilerine sözel olarak sunulan senaryolara verdikleri yanıtlar oluşturmuştur. Daha sonra bu yanıtların dökümü çıkarılmış, ortaya çıkan özür dileme ifadeleri çalışmada kullanılmak üzere seçilen taksonomiye dayanarak sınıflandırılmış, ve istatistiksel olarak analiz edilmiştir.

Sonuçlar, çocukların özür dileme söz edimini diğer söz edimlerden ayırt ederek suç içeren durumlarda özür dileme gerekliliği bağlamında meta-edimbilimsel bilgiye sahip olduklarını göstermiştir. Gelişimsel desenlerle ilgili olarak, yaşça küçük çocukların tekli stratejileri anlamlı derecede yüksek oranda kullandıkları gözlemlenmiştir. Buna paralel olarak, çocukların üretimlerinin artan yaşla birlikte yapısal olarak daha detaylı duruma geldiği bulunmuştur. Toplumdilbilimsel değişkenler söz konusu olduğunda, kullanılan stratejilerin yapısı açısından anlamlı bir cinsiyet etkisi gözlemlenmemiştir. Sadece kız ve erkeklerin strateji seçimleri ve strateji kombinasyon kategorilerinde birkaç fark bulunmuştur. Benzer şekilde, sonuçlar bazı strateji tercihlerinde anlamlı bir farklılığa işaret etse de, aile eğitim durumu ve anaokulu deneyimi kullanılan kalıpların karmaşıklığı (tekli/çoklu strateji) üzerinde belirleyici faktörler olarak ortaya çıkmamıştır. Bununla birlikte, çocukların önemsiz ve ciddi şiddette suçları ayırt edebildikleri ve kullanım kalıplarını buna göre şekillendirdikleri gözlemlendiği için belli bir seviyede sosyopragmatik beceriler gösterdikleri bulunmuştur. Aynı durum sosyal statü değişkeni için de geçerlidir çünkü çocukların öğretmenlerine değil de arkadaşlarına karşı işledikleri suçlar için çoğunlukla çoklu strateji kullandıkları gözlemlenmiştir. Son olarak da sonuçlar çocukların işlenen hata çeşidine de duyarlı olduğunu göstermiştir ki bu farkındalık onların hak ihlalleri için çoklu kalıplar ve farklı stratejiler kullanmaları ile yansıtılmıştır. Sonuç olarak, çalışma bulguları anadil edinimine olduğu gibi yabancı dil öğretimine de pek çok açıdan önemli katkılar sunmaktadır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Edimsel yeterlik, sosyopragmatik beceriler, özür dileme söz edimi

ABSTRACT

EXPLORING PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE OF PRESCHOOL CHILDREN WITH A SPECIFIC REFERENCE TO THE SPEECH ACT OF APOLOGY IN TURKISH

Özge Gül ZEREY

Ph. D. Dissertation, English Language Teaching Department
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Apologies are regarded as one of the most important speech acts since they have the function of redressing damaged relationships and restoring social harmony between the interactants following a violation of a social norm. Existing research in the relevant literature points at the existence of variations as well as universals across languages in the conceptualization and realization of this act. Thanks to these studies, conducted mostly in the field of interlanguage or cross-cultural pragmatics, adult-usage has grown into a well-defined area in various languages including Turkish. However, the same does not hold true for children's perceptions and productions of apologies with a relatively narrow range of studies in a small number of languages.

Hence, the aim of this descriptive study was to explore Turkish preschool children's pragmatic competence with regard to their apology realization patterns. Firstly, children's meta-pragmatic knowledge of apologies was tested and then two different age groups (4;0-4;11 and 5;0-6;0) were compared to trace possible developmental trends with increasing age in terms of complexity of patterns, variety and types of strategies. Additionally, all the participant children were grouped according to such sociolinguistic variables as gender, parent's level of education, and preschool experience in order to detect the potential effect of such factors on children's apologizing behaviors. Finally, the range of children's socio-pragmatic skills was tested, which was evidenced by sensitivity to a number of contextual variables regarded by scholars (e.g. Fraser, 1981; Brown & Levinson, 1987) as influential on speakers' manner of apologizing. These parameters were severity and type of the offence and the social status relationship between the interactants.

In order to fulfill these aims, eight offence scenarios were designed by manipulating the abovementioned contextual parameters and implemented in the form of Oral Discourse Completion Task (ODCT). Thus, the data obtained for the study consisted of 100 preschool children's (aged between 4;0 and 6;0) responses to these scenarios presented to them orally. The responses were then transcribed, phrases for apologizing were classified into categories relying on the taxonomy chosen for the study, and analyzed statistically.

Results pointed at children's meta-pragmatic knowledge of apologies traced in their provision of appropriate responses in terms of the need to use apologies when an offence was involved distinguishing among other speech acts. Regarding the developmental patterns, younger children were observed to have a marked tendency to rely on single strategies with a significantly higher usage rate. In parallel, children's productions were found to become more elaborate with increasing age. When it comes to sociolinguistic variables, no significant gender effect was observed in terms of the complexity of patterns. There were only slight differences in female and male choices of strategies and strategy-combination categories. Similarly, parents' level of education and preschool experience did not emerge as decisive factors on the complexity of patterns although the results revealed significant differences in certain strategy preferences. However, the children were found to display socio-pragmatic skills to a certain extent as they could distinguish between minor and serious offences and adjusted their patterns accordingly. The same was the case for the effect of interlocutor's social status as they were found to utilize more complex patterns for the offences committed against friends rather than their teacher, which implied the importance they attached to their friendship relations at those ages. Finally, the results indicated children's sensitivity to the type of offence as well, which was reflected in their employment of more complex patterns and diverse strategies for right violations. All in all, the findings of the study have some important implications for foreign language teaching in addition to the first language acquisition in many respects.

Keywords: Pragmatic competence, sociopragmatic skills, the speech act of apology

DEDICATION

Dedicated to my beloved and precious mom;

AYSEL ZEREY

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

ÖZET ..... **iv**

ABSTRACT ..... **vi**

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ..... **ix**

LIST OF TABLES ..... **xv**

LIST OF FIGURES ..... **xviii**

LIST OF APPENDICES ..... **xix**

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.0. Introduction 1

1.1. Background to the Study 1

1.2. Statement of the Problem 6

1.3. Significance of the Study 7

1.4. Aim of the Study 8

1.5. Research Questions 9

1.6. Limitations of the study 10

1.7. Operational Definitions 10

1.8. Abbreviations 10

1.9. Summary 11

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0. Introduction 12

2.1. Pragmatics 12

2.2. Pragmatic Competence 17

2.3. Speech Acts 21

2.3.1. Speech Act Theory 22

2.3.2. Development and Use of Speech Acts 24

2.4. Politeness Theory 29

2.4.1. Approaches to Politeness 29
2.4.2. Brown and Levinson's Politeness Theory 30
2.4.3. The Notion of Face 31
2.4.4. Positive or Negative Politeness Strategies 34
2.4.5. Sociological Variables in B&L's Theory 36
2.5. Acquisition of Politeness Routines 37
2.6. Acquiring Social Variation in Speech 44
2.7. The Speech Act of Apology 47
2.7.1. Taxonomies of Apology 51
2.7.2. Previous Studies on Apologies 56
2.7.2.1. Apologies in Turkish 57
2.7.2.2. Children's Apologies 61
2.8. Apologies and Social and Contextual Variables 65
2.8.1. Apologies and Gender 66
2.8.2. Apologies and Type of Offence 68
2.8.3. Apologies and Severity of Offence 69
2.8.4. Apologies and Social Status 70
2.9. Summary 72

CHAPTER III
METHODOLOGY

3.0. Introduction 73
3.1. Setting and Participants 73
3.2. The Rationale for the Data Collection Tool 75
3.2.1. Development of the Scenarios 78
3.3. Pilot Study and the Modifications to the Instrument 83
3.4. Data Collection Procedure 85
3.5. Materials 87
3.6. Data Analysis 89
3.7. Summary 92

CHAPTER IV
DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.0. Introduction 93
4.1. Metapragmatic Knowledge Related to the Speech Act of Apologizing 93
4.2. Analysis of the Characteristics of Children's Realisation Patterns of Apologies 94
4.3. The Influence of Social Variables on Apology Strategies 105
4.3.1. Gender 106
4.3.2. Parents' Level of Education 112
4.3.2.1. Mothers' Level of Education 112
4.3.2.2. Fathers' Level of Education 118
4.3.3. Preschool Experience 123
4.3.4.Interlocutor's Social Status 128
4.4. The Influence of Contextual Factors on Apology Strategies 133
4.4.1. The Severity of the Offence 133
4.4.2. Type of Offence 139
4.5. Summary 146

CHAPTER V
DISCUSSION

5.0. Introduction 148
5.1. Discussion 148
5.2. Summary 171

CHAPTER VI
CONCLUSION

6.0. Introduction 172
6.1. Summary of the Findings 172
6.2. Implications of the Study 177
6.3. Implications for ELT 178
6.4. Recommendations for Further Research 179
6.5. Summary 181

REFERENCES **182**
APPENDICES **198**
CURRICULUM VITAE **216**

LIST OF TABLES

Page

Table 1. Profile of the Participants 74
Table 2. Overall Profile of Participants Based on Sociolinguistic Variables 74
Table 3. Distribution of Contextual Variables of the Scenarios Employed in the Study 82
Table 4. Taxonomy of Apology Strategies 91
Table 5. Distribution of Responses related to Metapragmatic Knowledge of Apologies 94
Table 6. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Total Strategies across the Two Age Groups 95
Table 7. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Basic Apology Strategies across the Two Age Groups 96
Table 8. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Two-strategy Combinations across the Two Age Groups 100
Table 9. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Three-strategy Combinations across the Two Age Groups 104
Table 10. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Total Strategies Based on Gender 106
Table 11. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Basic Strategies Based on Gender 107
Table 12. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Two-Strategy Combinations Based on Gender 109
Table 13. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Three-strategy Combinations Based on Gender 111
Table 14. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Total Strategies Based on Mother's Level of Education 113
Table 15. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Basic Strategies Based on Mother's Level of Education 114
Table 16. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Two-strategy Combinations Based on Mother's Level of Education 115
Table 17. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Three-strategy Combinations According to Mothers' Level of Education 117

Table 18. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Total Strategies Based on Fathers' Level of Education 118
Table 19. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Basic Strategies Based on Fathers' Level of Education 119
Table 20. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Two-strategy Combinations Based on Fathers' Level of Education 120
Table 21. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Three-strategy Combinations Based on Fathers' Level of Education 122
Table 22. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Total Strategies Based on Preschool Experience 123
Table 23. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Basic Strategies Based on Preschool Experience 124
Table 24. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Two-Strategy Combinations Based on Preschool Experience 125
Table 25. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Three-strategy Combinations Based on Preschool Education 127
Table 26. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Total Strategies Based on Social Status 128
Table 27. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Basic Strategies Based on Social Status 129
Table 28. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios ofTwo-Strategy Combinations Based on Social Status 130
Table 29. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Three-strategy Combinations Based on Social Status 132
Table 30. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Total Strategies Based on Severity of the Offence 134
Table 31. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Basic Strategies Based on the Severity of the Offence 135
Table 32. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Two-Strategy Combinations Based on Severity of the Offence 137
Table 33. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Three-strategy Combinations Based on Severity of the Offence 138
Table 34. Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Total Strategies Based on Type of Offence 140

Table 35.LL Ratiosof Total Strategies Based on Type of Offence 140
Table 36. Observed Frequencies of Basic Strategies Based on Type of Offence 142
Table 37. LL Ratios of the Usage of an Offer of Apology Based on Type of Offence 142
Table 38. Observed Frequencies of Two-Strategy Combinations Based on Type of Offence 144
Table 39. Observed Frequencies of Three-strategy Combinations Based on Type of Offence 146

LIST OF FIGURES

Page

Figure 1. Possible strategies for doing FTAs 33
Figure 2. Chart of positive politeness strategies 34
Figure 3. Chart of negative politeness strategies 35
Figure 4. Pictures of scenario 1 for male participants 87
Figure 5. Pictures of scenario 6 for female participants 87
Figure 6. Outline of the slapping scenario 88
Figure 7. Outline of the scratching scenario 88

LIST OF APPENDICES

Page

Appendix 1. Permission from the Ministry of National Education 198
Appendix 2. Consent Form 199
Appendix 3. Translated Version of Consent Form 200
Appendix 4. Demographic Form 201
Appendix 5. Translated Version of Demographic Form 202
Appendix 6. Scenario Assessment Questionnaire for Teachers 203
Appendix 7. Translated Version of the Scenario Assessment Questionnaire for Teachers 204
Appendix 8. Scenario Assessment Questionnaire for Teachers 205
Appendix 9. Translated Version of the Scenario Assessment Questionnaire for Teachers 206
Appendix 10. Scenarios in the ODCT 207
Appendix 11. Translated Version of the Scenarios in the ODCT 209
Appendix 12. Sample Preliminary Analysis 211

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.0. Introduction

This chapter presents a brief overview of the background of the study, which is followed by the statement of the problem, significance and purpose of the study, research questions, limitations, and lastly operational definitions.

1.1. Background to the Study

Child language researchers tended to devote much attention to explore the developments in formal aspects of language; phonology, morphology or syntax until the end of the 19thcentury, mainly due to the adoption of Chomsky's prominent concept of competence, which views language as a rule system. More precisely, they mostly focused on grammatical development, leaving the meanings or functions of children's utterances out of search (McTear, 1985). This substantial research has made invaluable contributions in their own sense and has proven useful in broadening our understanding of the path children go through in reaching adult linguistic competence. However, it has later been acknowledged by the theoretical work of philosophers (e.g. Austin, 1962; Searle,1969) that using language necessitates knowledge far beyond the rules of syntax and semantics (Ninio & Snow, 1996), and knowledge of abstract linguistic rules is not sufficient for becoming a competent speaker in that language community. This knowledge needs to be put into appropriate language use, which requires taking contextual features into account. To put it simply, the speaker's knowledge of structural rules has to be supported by the social rules of language use.

As a natural outcome, Chomsky's excluding the sociocultural dimension of use by focusing on linguistic structures was challenged with Hymes's (1972) concept of *communicative competence*, which "embraces rules of form as well as rules of use"; a competence that enables appropriate communication in the given contexts (Trosborg, 1995, p. 9). In a sense, it was regarded as complementary to the Chomsky's concept of linguistic competence as this pioneering concept combines the knowledge of grammar rules with the ability to exert this competence in various communicative situations (McTear, 1985). This view of competence, as Bagaric and Djigunovic (2007) assert,

brings in the sociolinguistic perspective into the mere linguistic perspective of competence suggested by Chomsky, which was insufficient in accounting for the real instances of language use (Trosborg, 1995). Thus, the 1970s and 1980s have seen a shift in emphasis from almost exclusive interest in the formal properties of language to the language use and nature of communication, which has made the conversational data relevant for researchers. Therefore, the view of language as the primary tool for communication has gained a great deal of exponents and attracted researchers' attention to the developing social uses which children put into language (McTear, 1985).

With the shift in emphasis within the linguistic theory, the term communicative competence has been put into a comprehensive framework by Canale and Swain (1980) and then reformulated by Bachman (1990) for language instruction. Both models have attached a considerable emphasis to the communicative aspect of language as they do for the grammatical aspect. Additionally, in both models, *pragmatic competence* has been presented as the key sub-component, consisting of two kinds of competences: while illocutionary competence is defined as the knowledge of speech acts and speech functions; sociolinguistic competence refers to speakers' ability to use language in a way that is appropriate to social context (Bagaric & Djigunovic, 2007). Additionally, this competence enables speakers to select communicative acts and appropriate strategies to implement them depending on the contextual features of the situation (Bachman, 1990). In this respect, these two types of competence are regarded as complementary to each other since speakers' knowledge of various forms should be supported with the conventions of use which vary across different contexts.

The growing interest in communicative competence and the prominence of pragmatic ability in the multi-dimensional models of language competencies stimulated research into pragmatics (Barron, 2003; McTear, 1985). Thus, pragmatics has come to the fore of inquiry in the field of language acquisition over the last few decades. As a branch of linguistics, it covers all aspects of language use and refers to the relation that unites "linguistic forms and the communicative functions these forms are capable of serving, with contexts or settings in which given forms have given functions". It is a "heterogeneous field" and broadly deals with the ways speakers use linguistic forms in a language for effective and successful communication (Fillmore, 1974, p.1).

Similar to the conceptualization of pragmatic competence in various frameworks of language, Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983) (in Kecskes, 2014) have divided pragmatics into two components as consisting of pragmalinguistics and socio-

pragmatics, which proved to be an influential line of inquiry. According to the definitions provided by Kecskes (2012, p. 600-601), the former stands for the resources that speakers have so as to convey speech acts using various pragmatic strategies that are used for intensifying or softening speech acts. On the other hand, sociopragmatics is concerned with "... the social perceptions underlying participants' interpretation and performance of their communicative action" such as their assessments on "speakers' and hearers' social distance and social power, their rights and obligations, and the degree of imposition involved in particular communicative acts". Whereas, according to Thomas (1983), pragmalinguistics is related to grammar, since it comprises linguistic forms and their respective functions, sociopragmatics refers more to correct behavior; namely "the social appropriateness of communicative behavior" (Kecskes, 2014, p. 16).

In parallel to these developments, the pragmatics of early child language has been mostly studied with speech acts as the unit of analysis. Defined as a speaker's intention behind his/her behaviour, speech acts are regarded as a prerequisite for the acquisition of language in general (Levinson, 1980) since, as a "basic unit of linguistic communication", they consist of "a proposition and an illocutionary force", expressed with certain grammatical and pragmatic rules (Dore, 1974, p. 344). According to the speech act theory (Austin, 1962), when we, as language users, talk, we do not just make statements but often perform such actions as requesting, promising, complaining, suggesting, and so on. Thus, it is the speech act that carries the communicative sense of a linguistic utterance (Bierwisch, 1980). Researchers have paid considerable attention to children's development of communicative intent through the analysis of children's everyday speech in order to find out the type of functions they express in their language. Speech act analysis has been commonly used to characterize this kind of development (Cameron-Faulkner, 2014).

As Ninio and Snow (1996, p. 13) claim, learning how to use speech for performing these "social-communicative acts" is a primary developmental task for children since it requires social and conceptual readiness. Children need to have sufficient verbal skills as well as the mastery of several socio-cognitive capacities. In this regard, the authors argue that learning in which situation it is appropriate to use direct demand and in which a polite request necessitates children's having knowledge about the meaning of demands and requests. Their abilities to verbally express communicative intentions are directly related to developments in their cognitive abilities, social understanding, and linguistic skills as well (Snow, Pan, Bailey, &

Herman, 1996). In parallel, as Astington (1988) states, whereas such speech acts as request, protest, and greeting are the ones acquired earlier, promise and persuade emerge as the ones that develop relatively later. Dore (1973, p. 624) portrays a developmental sequence and asserts that following the pre-linguistic stage with "primitive speech acts", the child progresses to establish "conventionalized speech acts" with several verbal strategies which necessitate employing both social and cognitive competence and with growing age, children's utterances include more and more different speech acts. In time, they achieve a gradual mastery of adult usage. From a developmental perspective, children's speech acts are investigated to identify the types of communicative intents they are able to express at various ages, and the extent of the linguistic means they utilize to convey these intents at various periods in the course of development (Ninio & Snow, 1996).

As one of the speech acts, apologies, in recent years, have gained more popularity as an area of research in various fields compared to others (Cohen, 1996) due, mainly, to their pervasive existence in society (Cordella-Masini, 1989). They are regarded as "face-threatening acts" in that the speaker acknowledges his/her own quilt and therefore threatens his/her own positive face (Brown & Levinson, 1987). As "social tools", apologies are resorted to redress damaged relations and "mitigate loss of face" (Ely & Gleason, 2006, p. 599). However, unlike such politeness terms as "thanks" and "please", the situations that necessitate apologies are not routinized and uniform (Ely & Gleason, 2006, p. 603) and children's realization of apologies reflects their awareness of violation of a social rule and their concern for people's face wants (Chang, 2018). In this regard, children's gaining competence in the use of apologies is considered as a major developmental endeavour in the overall socialization process (Ely & Gleason, 2006).

Although a substantial portion of research has been reserved for exploring certain speech acts-mainly requests-, there still exists a number of studies, mostly in the field of social psychology, which present information particularly on children's perceptions on apologies. Thanks to these studies, we have been informed about children's metapragmatic knowledge on apologies such as their evaluations of the wrongdoer (e.g., Darby & Schlenker, 1982) and their perceptions on the effect apologizing creates on the offended party (Smith et al., 2010). The general conclusion obtained from these studies is even four-year-old children's being aware of the alleviating function of apology. Although even young children exhibit some form of

ability in perceiving the conflict resolution role of apology, older children (9-12 year olds) have been reported to judge more elaborate apologies as more effective to express greater regret following a misdeed when compared to the younger ones (5 year olds) (Darby and Schlenker, 1982). Thus, it seems apparent that as apologies accommodate a certain degree of complexity, it's not unusual to expect developmental changes in perception and production at different ages (Smith, 2009). In parallel to "cognitive maturation", which implies accompanying changes in children's perceptions of responsibility, children gradually become more concerned about others' feelings and intentions, which makes their productions more sophisticated (Meier, 2004).

In Kampf and Blum-Kulka's (2007, p. 12) terms, successful performance of these remedial acts requires choosing the appropriate form and complying with the fundamental felicity conditions as well. Equally important, for a complete pragmatic competence, in addition to the acquisition of essentials of the remedial behavior, children must also be cognizant of the existence of multiple forms and functions of the act. They further argue that learning many forms of apologies is critical as they are means of saving others' face "... or that of the self" at the same time threatening them. In this respect, they mirror children's abilities to manage face in their interpersonal relations. Choice of linguistic forms among a range of options requires socio-pragmatic skills evidenced by the ability to adjust speech depending on the social demands of the context (Backus & Yağmur, 2017). The main contextual parameters voiced by scholars (e.g. Holmes, 1989; Fraser, 1981) as having a potential to influence speakers' apology productions are the severity and type of offence, and social status relationships between the interactants.

In a broader sense, acquiring politeness routines such as apologies is regarded as part of the socialization process during which children get into various kinds of interactions and hence gain an opportunity to get input on the social and cultural norms particular for that language community (Schieffelin and Ochs, 2014). This can be termed as "pragmatic socialization", which refers to "the ways in which children are socialized to use language in context in socially and culturally appropriate ways" (Blum-Kulka, 1997, p. 3). Becker (1991) argues that parents as competent members enthusiastically provide extensive modelling of pragmatic skills, which is followed by a rich range of feedbacks concerning children's pragmatic performance. In this respect, the content and form of the language input obtained through these interactions have proven useful in developing children's linguistic skills as well as social ones required

for appropriate language use (Becker, 1990). As the main caregivers, parents' educational background has been associated with children's language development in general as it directly affects the quality and quantity of the input, which in turn, differentiate the interactional styles (Hoff et al., 2002). Apart from parents, preschool is also considered as a setting which provides children with extensive opportunities to use language in peer interactions by socializing them into culturally and socially acceptable conventions of the speech community (Schieffelin and Ochs, 2014; Blum-Kulka & Snow, 2004; Öztürk, 1995).

Relying on what has been included under the frameworks of communicative and pragmatic competence in the available empirically well-formulated models, in the present study we regard pragmatic competence as comprising of pragmalinguistic and socio-pragmatic skills. In this sense, children's pragmatic competence will be assessed in terms of their metapragmatic knowledge about the speech act of apology. Additionally, their pragmalinguistic skills will be tested by their knowledge of various forms to realize apologies and lastly, their sociopragmatic skills will be explored by tracing their ability to tailor their manner of apologizing depending on such contextual variables as interlocutor's social status, severity of the offence, and type of offence.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

To date, child language data has enabled researchers to obtain a number of conclusions on children's repertoires of communicative acts and the linguistic means they've utilized to convey these acts. However, as Küntay et al. (2014) state, these are limited to particular speech acts, namely directives (e.g., requests, commands, and orders). This considerable number of studies has, undoubtedly, provided a substantial contribution to our understanding of children's acquisition and use of speech acts; particularly requests. However, further scrutiny is needed to find out unrevealed details related to children's productions of other speech acts such as apologies as well.

Up till now, apologies have become well-established area of research exclusively in terms of adult-usage thanks to various studies in many languages including Turkish (e.g. Özyıldırım, 2010; Çetinavcı, 2012; Hatipoğlu, 2003), mostly with cross-cultural perspective following the seminal work of Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989) Cross-cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) which has aimed to establish similarities and variations among languages with regard to realisation patterns of apologies and requests. Additionally, the potential effect of several contextual

parameters on adults' apologizing behaviors has been adequately explored. However, it is not yet possible to state that the same holds true for children's apologies as, to the best of our knowledge, there are relatively few studies in the relevant literature conducted in a limited number of languages (English: see Ely & Gleason, 2006; Hebrew: Blum-Kulka & Kampf, 2007; Kurdish and Persian: Sadeghi, 2013; and Mandarin Chinese: Chang, 2016). In this respect, it would be enlightening to uncover Turkish children's metapragmatic knowledge about apologies and the linguistic forms and strategies they employ to realize this act. This, in turn, may provide a baseline to make cross-linguistic and cross-cultural judgments on children preferences in addition to the comparisons with the adult-usage. In Turkish, as Özyıldırım (2010) states, speakers' realization strategies are highly patterned. It is important to identify children's linguistic tendencies as well to find out the extent they acquire remedial competencies at a certain age and the range of their apology strategies.

Additionally, as Küntay et al. (2014) argue, the existing research on children's speech acts has, to a great extent, focused on middle-class, English-speaking children, though there are a few exceptions (e.g. French, or Japanese-speaking children), which necessitates broadening the scrutiny by including other languages like Turkish as well. Furthermore, within the relevant studies, the most extensively-studied period is in many cases from birth to three- and- a-half (Küntay et al., 2014). Thus, a greater wealth of information on the productions of older children is needed to obtain a deeper insight into children's pragmatic development in general and pragmatic competence at a certain age.

Finally, we have been already well-informed about children's sensitiveness to the contextual factors as evidenced in their speech tailored to the needs of the addressee and his/her social status in many aspects such as the length of utterances and politeness devices they've chosen to utilize (see Anderson, 1990; Gleason & Perlmann, 1985). However, this kind of knowledge is mainly based on the outcomes drawn on children's requests, leaving us uninformed whether the same will hold true for children's apologies.

1.3. Significance of the Study

It has been widely acknowledged that the field of child language acquisition was dominated by research on structural aspects of children's utterances allocating very little

space for analysis of language use until the late 1970s. This has caused a paucity of data on speech uses in certain aspects. Hence, explorations on children's speech acts in general add to our knowledge about the development in their sensitivity to the addressee needs reflected in their speech styles in many respects, their ability to rely on non-situated context as well as the situated one, and their expanding repertoire of conventions used to convey these acts (Ochs & Schieffelin, 1979). Besides, delving into children's speech acts will hopefully enrich our knowledge about their pragmatically appropriate linguistic behavior at a certain age since performing these acts requires knowledge of forms and rules of use as well.

In this regard, research on speech acts are highly worthy as they document both linguistic and pragmatic development of children. More specifically, the outcomes of the present study can promote a better understanding of preschool children's systematic knowledge about how to use their structural knowledge to produce apologies appropriate for a particular context. In addition, when we consider the fact that there are relatively few studies on children's experiences with apologies, the current study can inspire more research in this area in other languages as well, which makes cross-linguistic comparisons possible. Then, more certain generalizations can be made on children's overall manner of apologizing.

Furthermore, in Wolfson's (1984) words, examining the rules and patterns of a given community provides a chance of getting empirical evidence on the use of cultural norms. In this sense, addressing apology strategies realized by Turkish children may shed light on their awareness of Turkish cultural norms with regard to the use of apology at this age. Equally important, comparing the two age groups in terms of their strategy choices, this study may present information about the extent of the gradual mastery of speech uses. Finally, the study may trigger research on the other speech acts used by Turkish children that are left under-researched such as offers, promises, refusals, and so on.

1.4. Aim of the Study

The current study aims to scrutinize the pragmatic competence of a group of Turkish children enrolled in a state preschool in Turkey with regard to their performances of the speech act of apology. Firstly, the study seeks to ascertain the developmental patterns keeping track of the differences in complexity, variety, and

types of apology productions by comparing the two age groups (4;0-4;11 and 5;0-6;0). An additional aim is to find out whether children's overall productions display variations depending on such social variables as gender, parents' level of education, their preschool experience, and interlocutor's social status. The final point aimed to be explored is the potential effect of a number of contextual parameters such as severity of the offence and type of offence on children's overall apologizing performance.

1.5. Research Questions

As aforesaid, given the scarcity of research on children's realization patterns of apology, we aim to seek answers to a number of questions about preschool children's apologies. The queries addressed throughout the study are as follows:

1. Do the children aged between 4;0 and 6;0 display metapragmatic awareness related to correct way of using language for apologizing?
2. What are the characteristics of 4-6-year-old children's apology strategies in terms of complexity, variety, and types? Is there a developmental trend?
3. Do the children's preferences of apologizing strategies display change in terms of such social variables as
    a) gender
    b) parents' level of education
        - mother's level of education
        - father's level of education
    c) children's preschool experience
    d) interlocutor's social status

    while realizing this act?
4. Do the children's preferences of apologizing strategies display change across such contextual factors as
    a) severity of the offence
    b) the type of offence

    while realizing this act?

1.6. Limitations of the study

The present study is limited to 100 Turkish preschool children and the findings are limited to the analysis of the stated number of children's apology realization patterns. Thus, it would be misleading to generalize the strategies and the linguistic means utilized by the informant children to all preschool children. Moreover, the nature of the data obtained via Oral Discourse Completion Task (OCDT) in the present study may also pose limitations with regard to the level of authenticity as the responses provided to designed scenarios may not reflect children's real manners in daily interactions. As an additional point, the identified apology strategies cannot be generalized to all offence situations since they have been elicited with eight scenarios, consisting of three types of offence as physical harm, right violations, and verbal harm. Connected with this, since the study was conducted with preschool children, the content of the scenarios is limited to the offence situations that they mostly encounter at preschool during their interactions with peers or teacher rather than at home with parents or siblings. Finally, as one variable tested in the study, the effect of parents' level of education on children's manner of apologizing was investigated by taking into account mother's and father's level of education separately, which may have yielded in different results if they had been taken together.

1.7. Operational Definitions

Pragmatic competence: Knowledge of the linguistic resources available in a given language for realizing particular illocutions, knowledge of the sequential aspects of speech acts and finally, knowledge of the appropriate contextual use of the particular languages' linguistic resources (Barron, 2003, p. 10).

Speech act:A speech act is the basic unit of the language used to express meaning, an utterance that expresses an intention (Searle, 1969).

Apology: Regretful acknowledgment of fault or failure; assurance that no offence was intended (The Concise Oxford Dictionary, 1980; p. 43-44).

1.8. Abbreviations

The abbreviations used in the study are presented below:

CcSARP: Cross-cultural Speech Act Realization Project

COPT: Cartoon Oral Production Task

ODCT: Oral Discourse Completion Task

SPSS: Statistical Package of Social Sciences

LL: Log-likelihood

IFIDs: Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices

Offer of apology: Of. Ap.

Minimizing: Minimizing the degree of offence

Promise: Promise of Forbearance

Repair: Offer of Repair

Forgiveness: A Request for Forgiveness

CH: Child

1.9. Summary

In this chapter, after presenting a brief background of the study, the need to conduct the study has been clearly explained in the statement of the problem section, which is followed by the expected contributions of the research to the field of child language acquisition. The chapter proceeds with the purpose of the study together with the research questions that will be answered throughout the study. Finally, operational definitions and abbreviations are provided at the end of the section.The next Chapter includes a comprehensive review of the literature on the many issues related to the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0. Introduction

This study is an attempt to investigate Turkish preschool children's pragmatic competence in terms of their apology realization patterns specifically focusing on the complexity, type, and variety of the linguistic choices they've made and the possible variation in these patterns depending on a number of contextual factors. The study covers a number of concepts which are presented in this chapter. This section begins with a comprehensive overview of pragmatics and pragmatic competence and proceeds with a summary of speech act theory together with children's development of speech acts in general. The next part provides detailed information on Brown and Levinson's Politeness Theory, which is followed by children's acquisition of politeness routines. Additionally, the definitions of the speech act of apology are presented and the taxonomies designed to accommodate apology strategies are introduced together with a detailed explanation of the one utilized in this study. The last part is devoted to empirical studies on apologies in Turkish, children's apologies in several languages, and the ones on the influence of several social and contextual factors on speakers' realization of the act.

2.1. Pragmatics

For a long time, philosophy of language had a persistent focus on the analysis of formal or linguistic expressions assigning only a little attention to language use. In fact, meanings were put aside or separated from the linguistic items with which they are expressed, and sentences were regarded as equal to statements, which were then equalized to propositions. Put it another way, exploring the abstract principles underlying language was the only concern of linguists and philosophers during the early periods of the twentieth century. Such kind of analysis did not allocate much room for analyzing language in its social and communicative context and its influences on the audience (Bach, 2008; Yule, 1996; Jucker, 2012).

As Huang (2007) states, the first enthusiastic attempt to introduce the term "pragmatics" was made by Morris in the late 1930s when he divided the study of

language into three: syntax, semantics, and pragmatics under the field of “semiotics”, defined as “a general science of signs”. Within this typology, he describes syntax as the study of formal relations of signs with one another; semantics is concerned with “the relations of signs to what they denote” and pragmatics is regarded as “the relation of signs to their users and interpreters (Huang, 2007, p. 2). Drawing on the claims of Carnap and Recanati, Huang (2007, p. 2) asserts that these three branches differ in the degree of abstractness; syntax being the most and pragmatics the least, with semantics standing “somewhere in between”. Therefore, syntax presents input to semantics and semantics to pragmatics. According to Jucker (2012, p. 496), each sign must, all the time, involve “all three dimensions of semiosis”; they are indistinguishable except for analytical purposes.

Then the 1950s have witnessed the emergence of two schools of thought with different analytic perspectives within the philosophy of language: “the school of ideal language philosophy” (Anglo-American) and “the school of ordinary language philosophy (European Continental). The philosophers of the former school (Gottlob Frege, Alfred Tarsi and Bertrand Russel) had mainly focused their study on “the logical system of artificial languages” although some practitioners of this school partially succeeded in applying the theory and methodology to natural language. This school, basically, defined pragmatics as “the systematic study of meaning by virtue of, or dependent on, language use” including such “central topic of inquiry as implicature, presupposition, speech acts, and deixis”. This perspective is regarded as “component view of pragmatics” in which pragmatics is treated as the central constituent of “a theory of language” like the other branches of linguistics such as phonology and semantics. However, such fields as applied linguistics and psycholinguistics were put outside these components. In contrast, the second tradition presents a broader definition of pragmatics including what has been proposed under the conventions of “sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics and discourse analysis” (Huang, 2007, p. 4).

The followers of this tradition state that “pragmatics constitutes a general functional (i.e., cognitive, social, and cultural) perspective on linguistic phenomena in relation to their usage in the form of behavior” (Verschueren, 1999, as cited in Huang, 2007, p. 4). This point of view is called as “perspective view of pragmatics” and according to this view, pragmatics must be thought as “presenting a functional perspective on every aspect of linguistic behavior” (Huang, 2007, p. 4). The works of ordinary language philosophers –Austin’s speech act theory and Grice’s theory of

conversational implicature- had an undeniable impact on the "development of a systematic, philosophically inspired pragmatic theory of language use" which is still very influential (Huang, 2007, p. 3; Jucker, 2012).

The differences between the two schools in terms of their basic conceptualizations of pragmatics have influenced the way the relevant handbooks or textbooks provide definitions of the field. While some "exclude the broader, sociologically based European view of pragmatics" and adopt "more narrowly circumscribed, mainly Anglo-American conception of linguistic and philosophical pragmatics and its applications", some others embrace the comprehensive view suggested by Continental European approach and involve such issues as "the social and cultural contexts in which language is used" (Jucker, 2012, p. 502-503).

The different points of view have naturally resulted in many different definitions, making it not possible to come up with the one that has been unanimously agreed on. For instance, in Verschueren's (1999) terms, pragmatics is "… the study of language use … or the study of linguistic phenomena from the point of view of their usage properties and processes" (as cited in Huang, 2007, p. 5). On the other hand, a typical Anglo-American type of definition has been put forward by Cruse (2000) as follows:

> [P]ragmatics can be taken to be concerned with aspects of information (in the widest sense) conveyed through language which (a) are not encoded by generally accepted convention in the linguistic forms used, but which (b) nonetheless arise naturally out of and depend on the meanings conventionally encoded in the linguistic forms used, taken in conjunction with the context in which the forms are used" (as cited in Jucker, 2012, p. 501)

This Anglo-American view, often called "cognitive-philosophical pragmatics", has put intentions in communication to the center of the study of language use. Accordingly, communication is formed with "recipient design and intention recognition": the speaker's knowledge comprises of "constructing a model of the hearer's knowledge relevant to the given situational context". Accordingly, communication will be unproblematic on the condition that the hearer is able to recognize the speaker's intent making pragmatic inferences. Therefore, what pragmatics needs to explicate is "how exactly the hearer makes these inferences" and understands "… the speaker's meaning" (Kecskes, 2012, p. 599).

Conversely, the former view, named as the "socio-cultural interactional paradigm", is opposed to the central importance attached to intention. The followers of this perspective claim that "… communication is not always dependent on speaker intentions in the Gricean sense". The basic difference between the two approaches is that while the former regards intention as "… a priori mental state of speakers" underlying communication, for the latter intention is "… a *post factum* construct that is achieved jointly through the dynamic emergence of meaning in conversation. In this process, socio-cultural factors play the leading role" (Kecskes, 2012, p. 600). According to Thomas (1995), while the latter has devoted much attention to the receiver of the message which ignores the social restrictions during the interaction process, the former deals much with the producer of the message. In Kecskes's (2012, p. 600) terms, as the two have adopted different perspectives, it is not possible to reject any of them completely. According to him, the complexity can be handled if "both the encoded and co-constructed sides of intention" is considered together while making analyses on the communicative process. Therefore, the socio-cognitive approach may combine the two perspectives.

Yule (1996, p. 3) provides a more integrated definition proposing a range of aspects that should be covered under the field of pragmatics. Accordingly, pragmatics is regarded as "the study of speaker meaning" as "communicated by a speaker and interpreted by a listener". Highlighting the contributions that context makes to the meaning, he further points out that pragmatics deals with "contextual meaning" including "the interpretation of what people mean in particular context and how the context influences what is said". At the same time, for him, pragmatics should focus on "how more gets communicated than is said" questioning "how listeners can make inferences about what is said in order to arrive at an interpretation of the speaker's intended meaning". Together with all these, he states that inquiries under the field of pragmatics should study "the expression of relative distance" with the question of "what determines the choice between the said and unsaid" having the assumption that it's the speaker who determines "how much needs to be said" depending on his/her distance to the listener.

In what way it has been defined or in which perspective it has been looked into, pragmatics has been reported to be an indispensable domain of linguistic theory and complementary part of linguistic interpretations. Huang (2007, p. 6) has voiced the necessity of including pragmatic interpretations to linguistic aspects in order to prevent

ambiguity in understanding speaker intentions. He argues that particular linguistic phenomena can only be interpreted by "recoursing to extralinguistic, pragmatic factors such as context, real-world knowledge, and inference". That is, the ambiguity caused by "linguistic undeterminacy" can be handled only by including pragmatics as a constituent "in the overall theory of linguistic ability".

Pragmatics, as one branch of linguistics, is still in its infancy since it was not until the 1970s that increasing number of language philosophers devoted much attention to the study of language use. These efforts have made pragmatics one of the influential areas of linguistics rather than a small subfield. In other words, it turned into "a discipline in its own right" and "radically changed the landscape of linguistics" creating "major paradigm shifts". These are "(1) from competence to the use of language" which highlights that speakers do not solely utilize one unified form of language use. Rather, they tailor their speech depending on the situational changes; (2) introspective data has been replaced with the empirical investigations of various types of "contextualized data" including not only spoken but also written instances of language use "from formal to informal, from polite to aggressive…", (3) "from homogeneity to heterogeneity" viewing language as "a dynamic system subject to spatial, social and diachronic variation" and lastly"(4) from synchrony to diachrony" in which language change is regarded as a crucial factor while defining languages. All these shifts, individually or in combination, have strengthened and broadened the field of pragmatics (Jucker, 2012, p. 495-503).

Research in the field of pragmatics in first language acquisition has directed attention to mainly four aspects of communicative competence: children's acquisition and development of speech acts; the development of conversational skills; acquisition of politeness; "children's growing sensitivity to the social parameters of talk", and also "children's acquisition of extended discourse genres such as narratives, explanations and definitions" (Cekaite, 2013, p. 1). Among these areas of inquiry, the major concern of this study is to explore children's productions of the speech act of apology from politeness perspective together with their ability to modify their speech to fit the social situations, which requires taking into account a number of contextual factors such as severity and type of offence and social status relationships.

2.2. Pragmatic Competence

In the field of linguistics, from the very beginning, there was a marked tendency among linguists to regard language as a rule system, which, in turn, made a grammatical analysis of utterances a prominent area of inquiry. Adopting mainly Chomskian approach to language, scholars at that time focused their studies on linguistic competence which refers to speakers' structural knowledge excluding contextual and pragmatic concerns.

However, Hymes' (1972) opposition to the concept of linguistic competence proposed by Chomsky created a shift in the analysis as it narrowly covers the knowledge of the syntactic and semantic rules of the language, which was not, for Hymes, sufficient for appropriate language use in daily interactions. Rather, he introduced a comprehensive and more elaborated concept of communicative competence, which unites both the knowledge of grammar rules and the capability to use this competence in various communicative situations (McTear, 1985). In this respect, the concept was regarded as complementary to Chomskian linguistic competence as it seemed apparent that mere knowledge of syntactic rules and ordering words grammatically does not guarantee successful communication (Trosborg, 1995).

The concept has been defined in various ways each including common points. Basically, according to Saville-Troike (1982, p. 22), communicative competence includes "knowing not only the language code, but also what to say to whom, and how to say it appropriately in any given situation". In addition, it covers "the social and cultural knowledge" speakers need to possess for using and interpreting linguistic forms. It has been unanimously agreed on by many advocators of the concept that speakers of any language need to have this competence for sustaining a successful interaction and becoming a competent language user in a specific language community.

Together with the enthusiastic welcome of the concept within the linguistic theory, several applied linguists have attempted to further develop the concept making a specialized effort to systematize its components. Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) have proposed the most widely accepted and applied model of communicative competence. Bagaric and Djigunovic (2007) present a comprehensive account of this model. Accordingly, what Canale and Swain regard as communicative competence is the composition of the linguistic system of knowledge and skill required for interaction. Hence, their model contains three major components: grammatical competence refers to

the mastery of the formal or linguistic system including vocabulary knowledge in addition to the knowledge of rules related to morphology, semantics or syntax.

With this competence speakers can utilize knowledge and skills required for comprehending and producing literal meanings; sociolinguistic competence contains "knowledge of rules and conventions" underlying "the appropriate comprehension and language use in different sociolinguistic and socio-cultural context"; another component discourse competence covers the mastery of rules required for combining forms and meanings to accomplish "a meaningful unity of spoken or written text"; as the last constituent, strategic competence consists of "knowledge of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies" employed to recompense "the breakdowns in communication" that stem from inadequate ability "in one or more components of communicative competence". Paraphrase and repetition are examples of these strategies (Bagaric & Djigunovic, 2007, p. 96).

A somewhat similar but more comprehensive and elaborated model has been proposed by Bachman (1990) which is then slightly modified by Bachman and Palmar (1996). The new model consists of two broad components–"language knowledge" and "strategic competence"-. These two types of areas are nearly the same with Canale and Swain's model in terms of the kinds of knowledge of rules required in each component. However, in this model Bacman and Palmer (1996) introduced pragmatic knowledge which is not included in Canale and Swain's model. According to Bagaric and Djigunovic (2007, p. 96), in their conceptualization, pragmatic knowledge, together with organizational knowledge, is one part of language knowledge and is concerned with the abilities to create and interpret discourse. Basically, it contains two kinds of knowledge: "knowledge of pragmatic conventions" required to express appropriate "language functions" and interpret "the illocutionary power of utterances or discourse (functional knowledge)", and also "knowledge of sociolinguistic conventions" to create and interpret statements that are acceptable in a specific language use setting "(sociolinguistic knowledge)".

Bachman's (1990, p. 94-95) model highlights the relation between utterances and the acts the speakers aim to realize using these utterances. He further emphasizes the complementary function of these two types of competence by stating that whereas illocutionary competence allows speakers to use language for expressing an extensive variety of functions and "to interpret the illocutionary force of utterances or discourse" and "the appropriateness of these functions" and in what way their realizations vary

across different contexts, sociolinguistic competence “is the sensitivity to or control of the conventions of language use that are determined by the features of the specific language use context”. Therefore, this kind of competence permits speakers to fulfil language functions in the ways which are acceptable in that setting. In this respect, it can be inferred that speakers’ illocutionary competence should be supported by the knowledge of conventions which vary across different contexts.

Similar to what has been proposed by Bachman as components of pragmatic competence, Kecskes (2012, p. 600-601) associates the emergence of pragmalinguistics and socio-pragmatics with the contributions of Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983). According to him, the former, namely pragmalinguistics, is concerned with the resources that speakers have so as to convey communicative acts or speech acts, and “relational or interpersonal meanings” including pragmatic strategies like “directness and indirectness, routines, and a great variety of linguistic forms” that are used for intensifying or softening speech acts. For instance, the speaker selects among a wide range of available pragmalinguistic resources that will function as a request –either with interrogative or imperative form. Yet the two forms exhibit a very discrete social relation which makes sociopragmatics indispensable for speech analysis. On the other hand, sociopragmatics is regarded as “the sociological interface of pragmatics” that is “... the social perceptions underlying participants’ interpretation and performance of their communicative action” such as their assessments on “speakers’ and hearers’ social distance and social power, their rights and obligations, and the degree of imposition involved in particular communicative acts”. Relying on Thomas, Keckes (2012) states that whereas pragmalinguistics is similar to grammar to some extent, as it includes linguistic forms and the functions they carry, sociopragmatics refers to appropriate social behavior. Thus, speakers should be cognizant of the results of pragmatic preferences they’ve made. To put it another way, both kinds of knowledge are indispensable to make speakers pragmatically competent: great variety of linguistic forms enable them to fulfil language functions (e.g., greeting), and also they must learn sociocultural norms and rules required for using these forms “(e.g., what to say to greet to whom)” (Taguchi, 2009, p. 1).

A great deal of research in the field of developmental psychology and language acquisition has evidently revealed that pragmatic competence is a component of people’s social cognition and evolves inherently in parallel with maturing linguistic and cognitive skills (Taguchi, 2009). Similarly, researchers in the field of language

socialization like Schieffelin and Ochs (2014) regard children's acquiring pragmatic competence as part of socialization process during which they become exposed to social and cultural norms specific for that speech community through interactions of many kinds. The process of socialization is interactive and competent members (e.g., parents, teachers) provide extensive modelling of pragmatic skills followed by feedbacks related to children's pragmatic performance.

Similar to the process of their acquiring grammatical competence, children are an active recipient of socio-cultural values attempting to formulate appropriate pragmatic rules and searching for confirmation for their knowledge (Becker, 1991, p. 1). In a way, metapragmatic comments –talking about pragmatic rules- is a powerful indicator of children's pragmatic knowledge. Becker (1991, p. 5) has categorized children's metapragmatic comments into five classes: "comments about other people's pragmatic errors, comments, and questions about pragmatic rules, comments to regulate and maintain the conversation, self-promptings of pragmatic behaviors, and accounts for pragmatic errors by reference to conflicting pragmatic rules". For instance,in her study, children were observed to comment on several pragmatic errors which include speaking at improper times, utilizing such politeness routines as "hello, goodbye, and thank you" in an inappropriate way, and "using the slang" or "not responding when spoken to" (p. 6). Becker (1991) states that children's comments mainly carry a social function.

These comments reflect their repertoire of pragmatic rules and resentment towards their parents' violating these rules themselves while they warn their children against violation. At the same time, she reports that in her study children exhibited knowledge of the consequences when they adopt pragmatic behaviors correctly. She gives an example from her data with regard to a child's using *please*: the child said: "When I say *please* then they say *Yeah, you can have a bite* and I take it away and I eat it all up". Drawing on these findings, the researcher further argues that we can obtain information about children's pragmatic development by considering not only the pragmatic skills they display but also the metapragmatic comments they've made. In her words, these comments provide us a basis for assessing the extent to which the pragmatic rules are internalized or if they are more temporary and immature.

Concerning speech acts (requests or apologies), metapragmatic knowledge refers to children's ability "to talk and think about those acts" (Bernicot & Laval, 1996, p. 103).As Becker (1991) states, children's metapragmatic knowledge has been mostly

explored through the use of judgment tasks in which they are asked to make comments on the appropriateness of a communicative act (e.g., requests), or identify or give explanations for violations of discourse rules. For instance, in her study with French children, Bernicot (1991) tested metapragmatic knowledge by asking 5-, 7-, and 10-year old children to judge on the appropriateness of a request together with an explanation on their choice and offer an alternative form after reading them short narratives that include two speakers' conversation. The results of the analysis indicated that 5-year-olds possess metapragmatic knowledge taking account the context of the communication and politeness and the repertoire of knowledge expands as children get older. Additionally, reflecting this knowledge is attributed to the linguistic expression of the act and the extent of the collaboration between interactants.

Similar findings have been reported in Astington's (1990) study in which she investigated children's metapragmatic knowledge about promises by asking children to comment on speech acts realized by other individuals. The findings revealed 5-year-old children's ability to make promises in appropriate contexts. In addition, it's only when the children become six-year-old that they start to use the performative verb "promise". A Similar developmental pattern on promises has also been found in Bernicot and Laval's (1996) study.

As illustrated with the above-mentioned research, the similar study findings have shown that even preschool children have displayed metapragmatic knowledge to some extent. However, the elaborateness of their judgments, the contextual variables taken into consideration and the variety of the explanations they've provided have been observed to rise during the primary school period (Becker, 1991). In fact, pragmatic development does not have an endpoint; it is a process, similar to lexical development, which continues throughout the lifetime (Ninio & Snow, 1999).

2.3. Speech Acts

Before presenting information on the fundamental principles of Speech Act Theory, it is necessary to state that the present study has been shaped around speech acts since acquiring an ability to perform these acts is considered as a crucial part of children's pragmatic competence (Küntay et al., 2014; Ninio & Snow, 1996). Investigations on children's speech acts also provide a framework for cross-cultural and cross-linguistic analysis (Küntay et al., 2014).

2.3.1. Speech Act Theory

The term “speech act” was first introduced by Austin (1962, p. 5) in his seminal book *How to Do Things with Words*, in which he argues that we use language in more complicated ways than only for making statements. The essence of the speech act theory relies on the claim that “the uttering of the sentence is, or is a part of, the doing of an action, which again would not normally be described as, or as just saying something”. Huang (2007) has provided a comprehensive account of the theory with the subsequent details. As he points out, Austin initially classified utterances into only two broad categories: *performatives* and *constatives*. While the former included utterances which perform an act with saying a sentence, the latter comprised of utterances that only make a statement or an assertion. He asserts that what we need to do is to explore the performatives in terms of the intended role they’ve fulfilled rather than questioning their truthfulness. According to him, when a speaker utters sentences carrying the grammatical form of declaratives, the aim is not to describe something. He gives a number of examples of declaratives which are not utilized for making true or false statements but for performing an action. However, he changed his mind when he observed that most part of the conversation includes questions, exclamations, and commands, not statements. According to him, although such kind of sentences are not descriptions, and one cannot say if they are true or false, they are meaningful and have a vital role in conversation. In his new theory, all utterances are included in the category of *performatives* due to the communicative force they carry. In other words, every utterance functions to perform an act and they include a specific kind of verb; that is, a performative verb.

At this point, realizing the crucial role of the context in which a performative utterance is used, Austin (1969) states that an utterance could be a performative only if it meets some necessary requirements which are called felicity conditions. Accordingly, performatives become feliticious on the condition that they are uttered in appropriate contexts. On the other hand, they are regarded as infelicitous if they do not realize their intended goal because of not fulfilling the contextual conditions. These conditions are described as appropriate circumstances that are essential for a speech act to be acknowledged as intended (Yule, 1996). These three conditions described by Austin (1969, p. 8) is as follows: an accepted conventional procedure must exist with a specific conventional effect and the procedure includes a certain person who utters certain words

in certain circumstances and the person and circumstances in the given situation need to be appropriate for carrying out the specific procedure resorted to. Together with all these, the procedure has to be fulfilled by all the participants in a correct and complete way. Lastly, participants must have the intentions and thoughts that are demanded by the procedure and they must consequently execute the expected action in the wake of uttering that sentence.

Besides, according to Austin, in addition to the specific situational conditions, performatives should, at the same time, satisfy certain grammatical conditions. That is, all performatives should be written in the present tense having the first-person subject. He distinguishes between the explicit or direct performatives and the implicit or indirect ones. Accordingly, the formers are the utterances which have a performative verb, and the latters are the ones which lack a performative verb but have a performative aspect if they are uttered in the proper context. All these evaluations have brought Austin (1962, p. 139) to the conclusion that what should be paid attention to is "the issuing of an utterance in a speech situation" rather than the individual sentences and all utterances constitute one kind of speech act. He claims that when a speaker issues an utterance, he/she performs three acts at the same time. From this point of view, the speech act theory analyzes any utterance in terms of three different dimensions: locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary. A Locutionary act stands for the act of saying something or performing an utterance. An illocutionary act is communicative force or function of an utterance; the action that the speaker intends to convey in saying something such as promising or requesting. The third dimension, perlocutionary act, refers to the actual effect that is achieved, such as "being a married person" or "being sentenced to prison" as the consequence of an illocutionary act.

The performative verbs are classified into five general categories by Austin. However, further developing the theory due to a number of gaps he detected in Austin's categorization, Searle (1979b) has suggested a novel categorization of speech acts, which again includes five classes: **Representatives** or **Assertives**: are those types of acts which "commit the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition" and therefore "carry a truth value". These acts convey speakers' belief (e.g., asserting); **Directives**: are the utterances that reflect speakers' attempt "to get the addressee to do something" (e.g., requesting); **Commissives**: express a contract by the addresser for doing a future act (e.g., promising); **Expressives**: include those acts which exhibit the speaker's psychological state (e.g. thanking, congratulating); **Declaratives**: are the acts that bring

changes to a particular situation. Speakers, performing these acts, create changes in the world (e.g., “declaring war”, “firing from employment”) (Huang, 2007, p. 106-107). Among these categories, the speech act of apologizing that is placed into the category of expressives will be explained in detail in the next section as it is the foci of the present study.

Although the theory has a crucial place in the field of pragmatics and has been utilized as a method of investigation in many cross-cultural studies, it does not mean that it is flawless. In other words, a number of scholars criticize the theory questioning it both from practical and theoretical aspects. The first one is the existence of an overlap among the categories. For instance, Leech (1983) states that some speech acts can be placed into more than one category because of the lack of certain criteria. Another criticism belongs to Levinson (1983) who has described the taxonomy presented within the theory as language-specific, which means that a speech act that is placed into one category in a language, may not possibly be settled into the same category in another language.

Furthermore, when he compiles the criticisms in a comprehensive way, Trosborg (1995) states that the felicity conditions described by Searle are sometimes proved to be void and not universal as in the case of commanding, which is the act that is frequently found in interactions between people having equal status, though it requires an authority to be the act of commanding, and hence meets the felicity condition. In addition, felicity conditions, which are claimed as universal, may vary across cultures. Simply put, the determination of felicity conditions for the given act may be different in the west and east due to the differences in cultural values.

The criticisms do not end at this point. However, despite the shortcomings identified by several scholars discussed above, the theory has proved its usefulness in many aspects and become an essential component of linguistic theory. The next section is committed to an overview of children’s speech acts from a developmental standpoint focusing on the details of comprehension and production.

2.3.2. Development and Use of Speech Acts

Gaining lexical, syntactical, and semantic knowledge is a great accomplishment of children in the language acquisition process. However, their language development is far from complete without the knowledge of using linguistic structures appropriately in

various social settings, which is a crucial part of pragmatic development. In this sense, they need to learn “how to do things with language”: “how to use language in order to make statements, to ask questions, to request, to greet, to refuse and so on” (Clark, 2009, p. 306). These are “illocutionary speech acts” which are “a clear instance of linguistically signalled uses of speech that are appropriate and effective only when produced in accordance with certain rules” (Ninio & Snow, 1996, p. 5). In order to achieve this, children need to expand the variety of speech acts at their disposal. In this process, while mastering the various words and structures for each communicative act, what they need to be cognizant is that “there is no single match of form and function”: certain forms can be utilized for several functions depending on such factors as “the speaker, addressee, setting, and preceding conversation” (Clark, 2009, p. 306).

As children’s repertoire is flourished with various forms and functions, their language use will be more efficient (Budwig, 1995) and their “capacities to express communicative intentions verbally reflect developments in their cognitive abilities and their social understandings, as well as more strictly linguistic skills” (Snow et al., 1996, p. 56). Before distinguishing between a direct demand and a polite request, they need to know what a demand and a request is, which requires an essential amount of social and cognitive development (Ninio & Snow, 1996). However, even at the prelinguistic or preverbal stage, children are “socially interactive” to a great extent, and distinguish “social from nonsocial stimuli” and they can “produce behaviors which are interpreted as explicitly communicative by adults”. Thus, they are characterized as “pragmatically precocious” (Ninio& Snow, 1996, p. 57). Drawing on some relevant research, Snow et al. (1996, p. 57) state that these earliest “intentional communications” are actualized using “gestures, vocalizations, idiosyncratic phonetic forms, or combinations thereof rather than through conventional linguistic forms”. These are called “proto-versions of asserting or requesting” (Clark, 2009, p. 570) or “primitive speech acts” (Dore, 1974, p. 344) or “(proto) imperatives and (proto) declaratives” (Bates, Camaioni, & Volterra, 1976, p. 51) which are commonly observed acts in the very early years of children’s life. Nevertheless, these linguistically restricted sources are utilized to express a wide range of intents such as greetings, markings, or requests (Snow et al., 1996).

Children combine early use of gestures or points with a single word and then with combinations of words as they get more control of language (Clark, 2009). For example, the initial requests are expressed through a combination of gesture and such words as “gimme” or “more” (Ervin-Trip, Guo, & Lampert, 1990). Gradually, starting

from the age of 2;5, their productions become more elaborated and refined as they add more acts to their agendas (Cekaite, 2013).

The concept of speech act has been subject to a great deal of research in the field of cognitive psychology and language acquisition since analyzing these acts provides an explanation on children's transitions from prelinguistic to linguistic communication as they contain linguistic and communicative characteristics (Dore, 1974; Cameron-Faulkner, 2014; Ninio & Snow, 1996). Studies have generally focused on certain types of speech acts; namely children's directives (e.g., requests, orders), on both comprehension and production level in many different languages. The general conclusion drawn from these cross-linguistic studies is that children show an early development in terms of directives and they are sensitive to such contextual factors as "activity type and age of interactants" (Küntay et al., 2014, p. 13).

Several studies have explored the level of difficulty encountered in understanding or producing indirect speech acts. For instance, in his study, Garvey (1975) has focused on direct and indirect requests used by the younger group (3;6-4;4) and the older group (4;7-5;7) and found that two groups of children differed in the number of direct requests they produced. Garvey has also noted that children's adjunct clauses embedded next to requests include a felicity condition by mentioning a reason to actualize the request, which lent support to the researcher for claiming that children, at this age, have an understanding of the felicity conditions of a request although they use a direct speech act to perform it. The overall result of the study indicated children's using not only direct but also indirect acts at the age of 3;6 although their use was predominated by imperatives. On the other hand, indirect forms were found to increase in parallel with an increasing age, which was not surprising for the researcher because of their grammatical complexity compared to direct ones. This finding, according to Zufferey (2014), is in parallel with the acquisition of politeness rules and showing sensitivity to contextual factors, which enables children to use polite directives and indirect forms following the acquisition of more complex linguistic structures during the preschool years.

Similar findings were also reported in a number of studies that investigated the request forms produced by children from the age of 2;6 and onwards (e.g., Read & Cherry, 1978; Dore, 1977). Accordingly, children already have various indirect forms to perform requests at their disposal with a gradual progression in the repertoire of indirect

forms which continues until they are seven or eight when their usage of indirect forms approaches that of adults.

Regarding children's comprehension of indirect requests, the relevant studies have revealed an earlier ability to distinguish between offers and requests in a number of judgment tasks in which they have to choose the equivalent of a request in question form. That is, at the age of three, children were observed to select the appropriate variant not only for offers, but also for requests (see Reeder, 1980), which indicated that they "can pair different illocutionary forces with a single sentence..." (Zufferey, 2014, p. 8). On the other hand, the findings on the comprehension of more indirect request forms like hints are from being coherent because of the different methodologies the researchers choose to adopt(Zufferey, 2014).In summary, from a compilation of research findings that provide cognitive explanation for the hierarchy in development of speech acts, Zufferey (2014) claims that children's gradual proficiency of various implicit means to perform requests may depend on the complexity of linguistic structures utilized to perform them and the degree of complexity in making inferences on speakers' intention in speech acts.

This considerable number of studies has provided an invaluable contribution to our understanding of children's acquisition of speech acts, particularly requests. Although the number is not comparable with those of requests, there are also other studies which present information about children's pragmatic development in terms of other speech acts like apologies, mainly in the field of social psychology. According to Meier (2004, p. 4), apology production is related to "cognitive maturation and concomitant changes in perceptions of responsibility, intentionality, and self". That is, children's production of apologies depends on the developments in their cognitive abilities and their perception of the meaning of responsibility. They also need to have a perception about the intentionality of a transgression. Relying on the findings of research on developmental patterns of children's apologies, he highlights the gradual changes in children's perceptions and productions by stating that "as children become more self-aware, are more concerned about what others think of them, and are increasingly able to take into account intentions and motives, their production and perception of apologies become more sophisticated".

As can be inferred, children's gradual mastery of apologies indicates that they independently take on responsibility for their transgressions being aware of the negative results caused by their actions. In addition, this implies developments in their

perceptions with regard to an “awareness of negative face wants” as well as positive ones because the realization of apologies reflects children’s ability to behave appropriately to comply with “basic norms” (Kampf & Blum-Kulka, 2007, p. 12). More specifically, children’s apologies prove that they are familiar with the two norms: “the norm violated which threatened the face of the offended party, and the norm by which it is appropriate to apologize in such circumstances” (Tavuchis, 1991, as cited in Kampf & Blum-Kulka, 2007, p. 12).

Therefore, children need not only to choose appropriate form, but also conform to the fundamental felicity conditions. Accomplishment in this sense shows their competence to redress social relations and resolve conflicts. However, as Kampf and Blum-Kulka (2007) state, in addition to the acquisition of essentials of the apologetic behavior, so as to have complete pragmatic competence children must be aware that the act has multiple forms and functions. Learning various forms of apologies is crucial since they are a medium of saving “the face of the other or that of the self as well as to threaten them” and they reflect children’s abilities to manage face in their interactions with adults or peers (Kampf &Blum-Kulka, 2007, p. 12).

Much of our information on children’s metapragmatic knowledge on apologies comes from developmental studies in the field of psychology. While some of them have focused on children’s evaluations of the wrongdoer (e.g. Darby and Schlenker, 1982), some have concerned with their inferences about the way the offended party is affected by an apology (see Smith et al., 2010). The general conclusion drawn from these studies is that even four-year-old children are aware that an apology will help to make the offended feel better.

By compiling several findings from research in the field of experimental psychology, Meier (2004, p. 4) provides a developmental model of apology and states that although even preschool children possess a basic perception as to responsibility and its consequences and adjust excuses and justifications depending on the types of offence, there are several dimensions of apologies that indicate changes as children grow up like “making amends, externalizing causes for a wrongdoing, providing more elaborate apologies”. It is clear that as children grow older, the developments in their perceptions contribute to their production of apologies making them more sophisticated rather than being simple in form.

With regard to the kinds of forms children choose to use in interactions, relying on the findings of Sell and Rice (1988), Meier (2004) claims that since they give much

importance to their friendship relations in adolescence, more sophisticated or elaborate forms are used for friends rather than parents. In addition, while the initial performance of apologies is for avoiding punishment (Darby and Schlenker, 1989), the ones at later stages are produced to protect self-esteem (Meier, 2004). Although even two and three-year-old children (see Kochanska et al., 1995) and the ones who are 4-5 years of age (see Smith et al., 2010) have been found to use apologies indicating that they are aware of the role of apologies in mitigating the wrongdoing and as a way of expressing remorse and as a conflict resolution strategy (see Sackin&Thelen, 1984), older children (9-12 year olds) have been reported to judge more elaborate apologies as more effective to express greater regret after a transgression compared to younger ones (5 year olds) (Darby and Schlenker, 1982).

In this regard, since apologies include a certain degree of complexity, it's not surprising to expect developmental changes in children's understanding and using apologies at different ages (Smith, 2009). Their apologies develop in accordance with the developments in the "sense of self and protection thereof as social acceptance becomes increasingly important". The development in apologetic behavior may imply that some forms have a better function in redressing a damaged self-concept (Meier, 2004, p. 5). Relying on these claims, the present study aims to uncover possible differences in the complexity and variety of forms children at two different ages choose to apologize in Turkish as a language on which, to our best knowledge, there are no studies related to children's apology realization patterns.

2.4. Politeness Theory

Before highlighting the details of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory, it will be better to introduce a number of approaches to politeness that can be adopted while structuring pragmatic studies around a politeness theory. Therefore, this section first starts with the four approaches as described by Fraser (1990), which is followed by the essentials of Brown and Levinson's theory which the current study is shaped around.

2.4.1. Approaches to Politeness

Fraser (1990, p. 222-233) reports the existence of a number of different approaches to politeness, each having its own point of focus. These are: "social-norm

view, “the conversational contract view”, “face-saving view”, and “the conversational maxim view”. In the current study, the face-saving view has been adopted. However, the remaining three approaches will be introduced briefly with Fraser’s descriptions in his article entitled *Perspectives on Politeness*. According to him, the social-norm view is the historical perception of politeness adopted by English society. In this view, the person becomes polite when he/she shows respect to the conventional norms of the society and politeness forms indicate a great degree of formality. The conversational maxim view suggests that rational communication necessitates or occurs only if the interlocutors adhere to the four conversational maxims: simply, “you should say what you have to say when you have to say it, and the way you have to say it”. The conversational contract view regards politeness as the interlocutors’ self-consciousness of rights and circumstances which are shaped with social norms (e.g. appropriate turn-taking), social institutions (e.g., “a witness in court is expected to speak only when questioned”), and situational factors such as status or power. The last view, namely Brown and Levinson’s (1987) face-saving view, will be defined in detail in the next section.

2.4.2. Brown and Levinson’s Politeness Theory

Formulated first in 1978 and then modified and revised in 1987, Brown and Levinson’s politeness theory has become widely-utilized framework which has constituted a basis for the analysis of studies in the field of interlanguage and cross-cultural pragmatics. The theory is based on Speech Act Theory (discussed in detail in the previous section) and Grice’s Cooperative Principle. In essence, they view communication as “a special kind of intention recognized to be by the recipients” (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p.7). The theory is structured around such basic concepts as model person, face, and face-threatening acts. Model Person (MP) is depicted as a fluent speaker of a language having such attributes as rationality and face, which are regarded to be the most important features for successful communication. In their terms, rationality is defined as “the availability to our MP of a precisely definable mode of reasoning from ends to the means that will achieve those ends” (p.58). In a way, the concept is described as evaluating many alternative ways and choosing the most suitable means to achieve the intended outcome.

For the notion of “face”, Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 61) distinguish between the two types: “positive face” and “negative face”. While the former is “the positive consistent self-image”, the latter refers to “the rights to non-destruction”, that is, “freedom of action and freedom from imposition”. They assert that the content of face will, most likely, be different in different cultures, yet “... the mutual knowledge of members’ public self-image or face, and the social necessity to orient oneself to it in interaction are universal”. They depict certain kinds of acts as face-threatening by their nature, distinguishing between the ones that threaten negative and positive face. The strategies the MP or “any rational agent” will utilize to abstain from the threat of these acts are determined by such social variables as Power (P), Distance (D) and Ranking of Imposition (R). In other words, these variables have an influence on the politeness level of the strategies employed. Three kinds of politeness strategies used to minimize the negative effects of the face-threatening act are described as follows: positive strategies, negative strategies, and off-record strategies. Following this brief summary as an introductory to the theory, the basic concepts are discussed in detail in the next sections together with a number of criticisms voiced against the theory.

2.4.3. The Notion of Face

Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 311) state that they have derived the notion of face from both Goffman and the English folk term, in which the concept is attributed to feeling embarrassed or humiliated; in other words, losing face. According to them, in the process of communication, speakers can lose, maintain or enhance face, which requires a mutual attendance by the interactants. In the theory, they claim that all competent speakers have two kinds of face: positive face and negative face. While the former refers to an individual’s wants or desire to be appreciated, the latter is described as a person’s wish to have freedom of action and not to be imposed on, namely to act without a hindrance. At this point, they utilize from politeness strategies that are used to “support or enhance the addressee’s positive face and avoid transgression of the addressee’s freedom of action and freedom from imposition” (Watts, 2003, p. 86). According to the researchers, in interaction, there must be cooperation between the interactants to maintain each others’ face since there is a mutual correlation in that “... everyone’s face depends on everyone else’s being maintained” (p. 311). Namely, once threatened, the person most likely defends his face threatening the other’s face while

doing so. For this reason, the interactant or MP must act in a way that avoids face-threatening acts to retain the hearer's positive face or minimize the impact of the face-threatening act by employing linguistic strategies. Particular kinds of illocutionary acts, by their nature, potentially damage the hearer's or speaker's positive or negative faces. These acts are called by B&L (1987) as face-threatening acts (FTAs).

Speech acts are placed into two classes in terms of the kind of face they threaten: the acts which pose a threat on positive face and the ones which impend negative face. A further classification is made between the ones threatening either hearer's (H) or speaker's (S) face wants. There are acts which pose a threat on the hearer's negative face putting some pressure on him/her in doing the action or refraining from it. The act of requesting is given as an example in this category, since the person who asks something that he/she wants to be done prevents H's doing what he/she actually wants to do. Other examples labelled under this category are such acts as suggestions, orders, giving advice, etc. On the other hand, criticism, complaints, and challenges are depicted as the acts that threaten the positive face of the hearer. As for the speaker's face wants, while such acts as apologies and confession threaten positive face, accepting H's apologies and expressing thanks are reported as the acts which threaten speaker's negative face. Here, apologies are described as face-threatening for S's positive face, since, according to Fasold (1990), S shows his/her regret to H as a result of a past FTA and approves that a particular type of person should not have done it, which, in turn, gives damage to his/her own face. If the apology is an admission of an offence as well, this makes the damage bigger (Brown & Levinson, 1987). However, Brown and Levinson (1987) state that there may be an overlap in these classifications as some acts may threaten both negative and positive face in certain kinds of situations. They further argue that face is a universal concept, yet there may be culture-specific variations in the content.

In the theory, Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 68) present the ways to cope with these acts which pose a threat on either speaker's or hearer's face during the interaction. Simply, the speaker has two alternatives: he/she will choose between not doing the act or doing the act by employing specific strategies to soften the threat. The second choice requires taking into consideration at least three wants, which are reported as "(a) the want to communicate the content of the FTA x, (b) the want to be efficient or urgent, and (c) the want to maintain H's face to any degree". Here they state that the third one is critical in determining the politeness level employed by the speaker to minimize or

soften the threat. When the speaker decides to carry out the FTA, two options are reported: going on record or going off record, which is shown in detail in the Figure below:

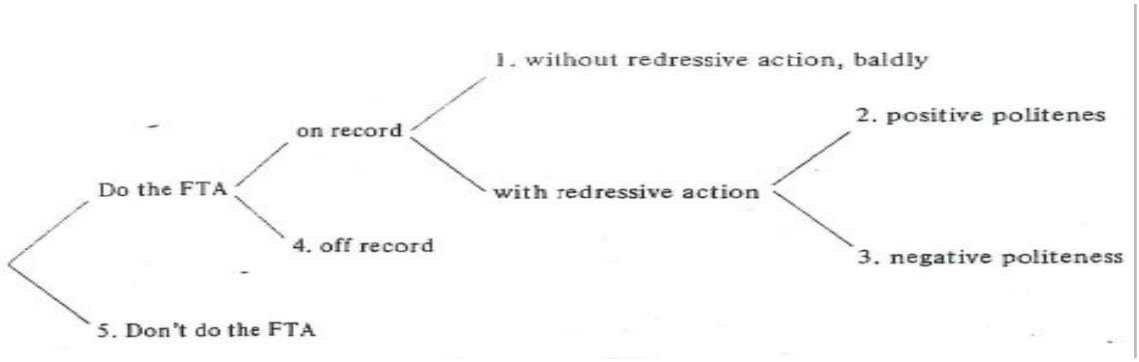


Figure 1. Possible strategies for doing FTAs
Source: Brown and Levinson, 1987:69

These five strategies are attributed numbers according to their level of politeness. In other words, the degree of politeness increases with the S' passing from strategy 1 to strategy 5. This makes negative politeness strategies more polite than the ones without redressive action. Brown and Levinson (1987) argue that the S enhances the possibility of losing face as he/she moves up to the scale: the greatest risk of face threat occurs if he/she chooses to employ the fifth strategy. When S chooses to go on record, he/she has two options: stating his/her intention with or without redressive action. If he chooses the first one, he, unambiguously, expresses his intention in a direct way. Saying "Do X!" is given as an example for a request for this category, namely acting baldly. The authors present three circumstances in which a speaker's choosing bald-on record strategies are acceptable: a) both S and H may attach priority to urgency or efficiency rather than concerns of face, b) when the damage to the participants' face is very small and (c) when the S may preserve his face because of being superior in power. In the other case, in which the S chooses to use redressive action, the threat is minimized with a positive politeness form, which provides the sustainment of positive face wants. Alternatively, the S tries to meet negative face wants by using negative politeness strategy. On record redressive actions are subdivided into positive and negative politeness strategies according to the type of targeted face, which is explained in the next section.

2.4.4. Positive or Negative Politeness Strategies

Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 102) describe three types of politeness strategies to utilize when there is a need to recompense hearer's positive face needs. As indicated in the figure below, they are strategies that "claim common ground, convey that S and H are cooperators, and fulfilling H's wants for some X". By using these strategies or their subcategories, S assures H that he/she "wants at least some of H's wants" or shows that he/she appreciates H's character, at least some features. According to the authors, the linguistic means used for positive politeness resemble the language used with acquaintances. The strategies in group 1 include eight sub-strategies**,** using of which means S's expression of admiration and interest in hearer's needs. In addition, in-group membership with H can be reflected in S's using address forms like [brother], jargon, and slang. Lastly, such strategies as joking or seeking agreement are the ones which claim common opinions or point of view. The second group strategies enable the S to stress three points: reflexivity by using offers, and promises; having knowledge about H's wants and reciprocity.

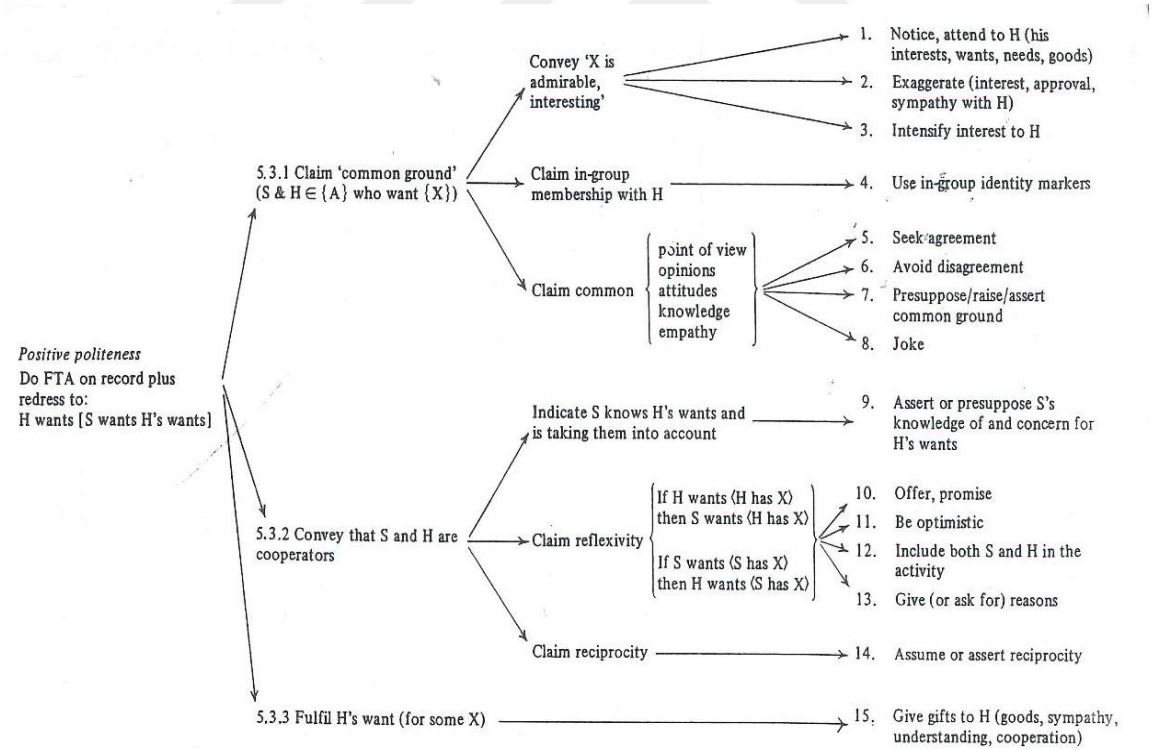


Figure 2. Chart of positive politeness strategies

Source: Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 102

In contrast to positive politeness, negative politeness is directed to negative face of H. The strategies in this category are called for when an FTA is carried out with a

negative influence on H's need of having freedom in his actions. The politeness strategies that can be employed to repair the damage to H's negative face are classified into five categories, as shown in the figure below:

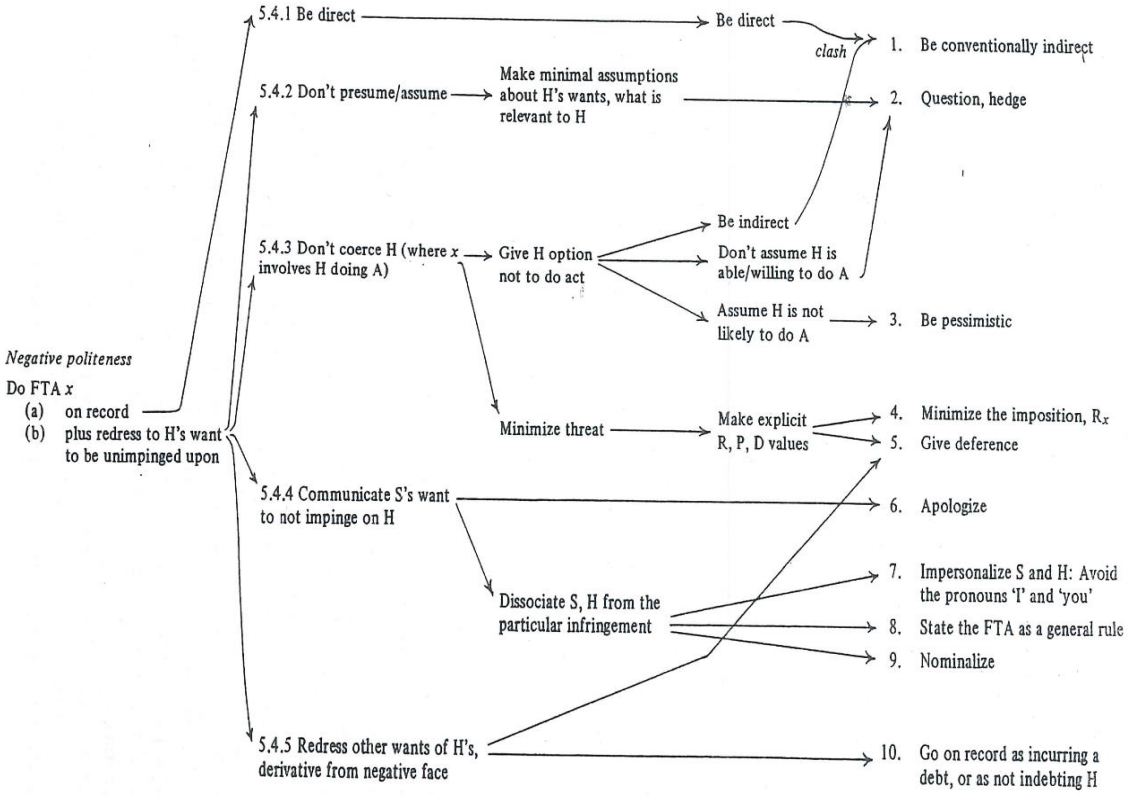


Figure 3. Chart of negative politeness strategies
Source: Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 131

As indicated in the Figure, there are various strategies including being direct at the beginning of the continuum and redressing H's other wants at the end. Apologizing, as the main foci of the present study, is listed as the sixth out of ten negative politeness strategies by Brown and Levinson (1987). Accordingly, when the S apologizes for the past FTA, he/she shows that he is unwilling to impose on the negative face of H and thus partially repair that imposition. They state that S has four means to indicate his remorse or reluctance to do a FTA. Firstly, he can acknowledge the imposition. That is, he admits that he/she hinders H's freedom of action. Next, he/she can choose to show his reluctance by utilizing from hedges or some other strategies. Thirdly, he can apologize by stating powerful reasons. The final way to apologize is reported as begging for forgiveness.

To summarize, Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 129) distinguish between positive and negative politeness strategies by stating that the former “is the kernel of familiar and joking behavior” while the latter “is the heart of respect behavior”, which is more polite compared to positive politeness strategies.

2.4.5. Sociological Variables in B&L’s Theory

Brown and Levinson (1987) point out that, under the same circumstances, any competent interlocutor will utilize the same type of strategy. According to them, the reason behind this is the fact that certain kinds of strategies, by their nature, have specific advantages or resolving functions. Hence, the relevant conditions are the ones in which one of these strategies will be more favorable than any other. There are three social variables reported by Brown and Levinson (1987), which need to be considered while choosing strategies since these three dimensions add to the seriousness level of a FTA. Additionally, they are important in determining the politeness level of the strategies which are utilized to communicate a FTA. Therefore, interactants need to take into account these factors to assess the seriousness of the FTA and make a choice accordingly.

They are defined by B&L as follows: the relative power (P) corresponds to the power that hearer has over the speaker. In other words, it can be assessed with the degree to which hearer imposes his own plans at the sacrifice of the speaker’s plans. Two sources of P are described as material control and metaphysical control: when the hearer has economic or physical power over the speaker, this demonstrates hearer’s material control over the speaker. Similarly, metaphysical control occurs if the hearer can manage the speaker’s actions. There are also cases in which the individual gets power from both sources. Another dimension, namely the distance, denotes the social distance between speaker and hearer including such factors as the degree of acquaintance and how frequently they get into interaction. Finally, with the ranking of imposition they mean to what degree the FTA is considered to put an imposition in a particular culture. To put it another way, the ranking of imposition is assessed by the degree of impose it puts on the agent’s negative and positive face wants. Two scales are proposed for the identification of negative-face FTAs: “ranking of imposition in proportion to the expenditure (a) of services ... and (b) of goods ...” (p.77). On the other

hand, the ranking for the FTAs which are against the positive face is assessed by the amount of harm which the speaker gives to hearer's face.

All in all, what the authors claim is that the power of hearer over the speaker (P), the social distance between the interlocutors (D) and the severity of the imposition (R) are the main factors that determine the degree of the risk that the speaker takes in actualizing the FTA in a particular context. The speaker assesses the weight of these variables and detects the degree to which face work is necessary. As a result of this evaluation, he/she decides on the appropriate linguistic realization. In the cases in which D, P, and R are minimal or maximum in the speaker's evaluation, he/she makes his choice of strategy accordingly. Brown and Levinson (1987) assign values to each factor and they claim that as the power of the speaker over hearer rises, the weightiness of the FTA decreases.

Since one aim of the present study is to find out whether preschool children are sensitive to the type of offence, interlocutor's social status, and severity of the offence in their realization of apologies, these factors will be examined in detail together with the findings of relevant studies towards the end of this chapter. Before that, the next section presents a comprehensive overview of children's acquisition of politeness routines.

2.5. Acquisition of Politeness Routines

In order to become a socially and linguistically competent member of a social group, children also need to internalize how to use language appropriately in various social contexts (Becker, 1991). As children develop the ability to use language, they start to learn "how to think, feel and act in accordance with the values, ideologies, and traditions of the community..." (Burdelski & Cook, 2012). Learning to be polite is one of the social as well as linguistic accomplishments throughout the acquisition process (Becker, 1990). Thus, politeness is regarded as the main tenet of social interaction. The appropriate use of politeness may influence the ways people are judged by others and their interactions in the social world. Hence, politeness has a paramount role in children's socialization as well (Burdelski, 2011).

Being polite requires acquisition of a number of knowledge like "complex set of culturally specific rules for how other members of the group should be treated"; the knowledge of the way "they should be addressed", "... what their wants, needs, and

desires are" and "how one's own wants, needs, and desires should be expressed without violating others' rights" (Ninio & Snow, 1999, p. 20).

Politeness formulas develop at both comprehension and production level. While understanding of polite forms is described as the "sensitivity to the function of these forms in an increasing number of sentence types", production of polite forms is characterized as an "increasing tendency to produce more than one polite form in the same utterance" and also "to use a wider variety of interrogative types when expressing politeness" (Nippold, Leonard, and Anastopoulos, 1982, p. 193). According to Gleason and Perlmann (1985, p. 102), polite style can sometimes be accomplished when a speaker modifies the syntactic form of the sentence "(as from *I want* to *I would like*). They further state that social routines which are "formula-based", "ritualized speech", are also regarded as very common markers that make people's speech polite. Such routines as thanks, please, goodbye, and apologize are the ones that children are expected to produce in certain kind of social situations. According to them, when a child says "thank you" for a gift he dislikes, he, definitely, does not feel thankful. The type of cognition that children must have includes only the ability to recognize a certain kind of social situation and implement the appropriate formula. The only thing that parents consider important here is the performance of the routine.

Gleason and Perlmann (1985) argue that violations of politeness conventions are viewed as more serious or harsh than the breaches in children's registral conventions by parents. Hence, they do not prefer to leave their child alone in the formation of the rules in contrast to the acquisition of such areas as syntax and semantics. Rather, they are eager to actively instruct them in the use of various politeness devices and polite speaking styles. Therefore, children are pressured to speak politely at a very early age. As Becker (1990) states, even preverbal infants are exposed to parents' modelling pragmatically appropriate behavior.

Studies conducted so far have reported age as a powerful indicator of development in understanding and using various polite forms although they have mainly focused on the two: "please" or "thank you". The comprehension of polite forms is generally tested with politeness judgment tasks. In these studies, children's ability to identify polite forms was observed to increase with age. For instance, in her study with Italian children, Bates (1976) asked participants to judge on the politeness degree of a request and found that identifying the use of "please" as polite form emerges earlier than the use of question intonation. They hesitated to mark interrogative as polite form

compared to imperatives and it's only when they were six years old that they could identify conditional forms as politer than indicatives.

Similar developmental changes are also witnessed in the use of polite forms. Research in this field has been dominated by explorations on request forms. These studies seem sufficient enough to provide us a sound basis to draw conclusions about children's development in the use of various forms (see Newcombe and Zaslow, 1981; Garvey, 1975; Read and Cherry, 1978). What the relevant research has shown is that "please" was the early accomplishment as a polite form and the use of indirect forms of requests increases in parallel to an increase in age (Ervin-Tripp, 1977). Another developmental change occurs in children's use of a wider variety of politeness forms like interrogatives. For instance, Bates (1976) observed three stages of development: direct questions and imperatives were predominant in children's requests until they were four years old. After that, when they were five or six they gain the ability to utilize all the syntactic forms necessary for making a request although they did not have the full competence of mitigating their request to fulfil their goals. It was only at around age seven that they became skilled at varying not only the form, but also the content of requests and so became very polite.

Regarding the gender differences in the language of boys and girls in terms of politeness, study findings are far from being consistent. As Ladegaard (2004) states, on the one hand, the ones, mostly in the American context, came up with a conclusion that indicates girls' speech as collaborative and their using a greater amount of mitigation and boys' assertive language with little or no mitigation. This is also evident in Sheldon's (1990) study which pointed at boys' adversarial style in conflicts and girls' being more prone to resolve conflict making effort to provide reconciliation. On the other hand, several others indicated just the reverse with their findings of girls' using similar assertive language as boys especially in mixed-gender groups (see Cook-Gumperz and Szymanski, 2001). There are also some others which revealed no significant difference between boys' and girls' using mitigation (e.g., Ladegaard, 2004; Greif&Gleason, 1980). Findings of more recent studies have revealed the cultural variability in language styles of boys and girls: while American girls were reported to use indirect and polite dispute strategies, Chinese girls were observed to adopt relatively direct and very assertive language style (see Kyratziz & Guo, 1996). In general, regardless of cultural context, in most of the studies girls were observed to prefer a more indirect and polite language use (Ladegaard, 2004).

Politeness routines are regarded as one form of socialization into language. Parents' input provided in various kinds of interactions is considered to be very crucial in that it helps to socialize children into specific cultural and social information or rules of the speech community they belong to (Gleason&Weintroub, 1987; Ochs, 1996). Like the other aspects of language in which the input is tailored depending on the needs of children at each developmental stage (Gleason&Perlmann, 1985), pragmatic input is also adjusted to children's social capacities at each developmental stage (Becker, 1990). For instance, while the input in early stages is presented in interactions which are mostly social and emotional in purpose, input at later stages aims to provide social reasoning for pragmatic appropriateness. These interactions are in the form of politeness lessons (Becker, 1990).

In adult-child interactions, children mostly receive or are exposed to pragmatic directions with regard to meanings and the ways they're used (Clark, 2009).The content and form of the language input children get as a result of their interactions with their parents have proved to be highly prolific in terms of the effects it has on not only linguistic areas but also social ones (Becker, 1990). Caregivers have many alternative ways of providing input. These include "modelling, prompts, or direct or indirect comments on children's pragmatic errors and omissions, reinforcement of appropriate behavior, and statements about past and future pragmatic episodes" (Becker, 1990, p. 12). Each type of input fulfils a particular developmental function by providing various kinds of information about pragmatic behavior and each is preferred at different periods in the acquisition process. All these feedbacks have invaluable contributions to children in acquiring pragmatic skills required for effective communication.

Although the relevant literature has mostly focused on the characteristics of mother speech as the main caregiver, fathers have also been reported to use the same type of input that is simplified in content and form (Rondal, 1980). Both mothers and fathers take their own responsibility in making an effort to teach their children how to produce appropriate formulas. However, as emphasized by Gleason and Perlmann (1985), the differences of men and women in their cognitive styles, by nature, and the role of fathers in the family make their speech different from each other. This is reflected in fathers' using mostly imperative constructions in their requests and mothers' preferring more polite and indirect forms for the same situations.

In Gleason and Perlmann's (1985) study of the two routines "thank you" and "goodbye" which included parents as well as children, both boys and girls were

observed to be treated in the same way by both mothers and fathers. Yet they did not provide the same models of politeness. With the finding of women's being more polite than men the authors claim that sex-appropriate speech patterns are learned by children through this mechanism. In other words, mothers' and fathers' different patterns of use are a kind of language socialization which presents children a model of the way men and women talk (Küntay et al., 2014).

There are also a number of studies which attribute different rates of vocabulary and grammatical development to the variability in speech children are exposed to with discrete degrees of complexity in mothers' and fathers' speech (see Hoff-Ginsberg, 1986; Zhang et al., 2008). Some of these studies pointed at a shorter mean length of utterances (MLU) for fathers (Rondal, 1980). On the other hand, in some, no difference was found between mothers and fathers in terms of utterance complexity (Hummel, 1982).

As illustrated, since children's early language use is primarily shaped by the interactions with caregivers (Bruner, 1981), there is a significant association between parents' input and children's language development (Becker, 1991). Thus, the features of this input regarding its quantity and quality have been investigated to uncover the ways it promotes learning. In most of the studies, parents' socioeconomic status has been linked to children's early language development, since having a high or low income is reported to influence the way parents interact with children and the input presented through these interactions (Hart & Risley, 1995; Tardif, 1993; Hammer and Weiss, 1999).

In a similar vein,parents' influence on children's education in general is an undeniable fact (Mandy, 2010) and such factors as parenting style, material resources, educational behaviors, and language use are direct predictors of children's achievement in many aspects, one of which is language development (Hoff et al., 2002). Parents' level of education is considered as a discriminating factor in terms of the language they use in interactions. In other words, it is the high education level that differentiates parents' interactional styles (Hoff, et al., 2002). This is very crucial especially during toddlerhood when babies are able to initiate and maintain social interactions and develop capacities for representational thought (Halliday, 1973).

The findings on the influence of maternal education indicated a positive correlation between mother's level of education and children's language development: children with mothers having a higher level of education were found to have a more

advanced language development. These mothers were also reported to get into more interactions with their children in the way that they developed their language skills (Hoff-Ginsberg, 1998; Pancsofar, 2010). Similarly, in an investigation of mother-infant interactions, Dollaghan et al.(1999) found the level of education as a significant factor in receptive and productive language of 3-year-old children. In the study, productive language was measured in terms of the mean length of utterance in morphemes, number of different words, and the total number of words. In all these three measures, significant differences were found among the groups with different level of education: children of college graduates scored higher than the others and analysis related to receptive language showed that children of high school graduate mothers performed better than the children with mothers who did not have a high school diploma.

Similar to the positive influence of mothers' education, fathers' level of education has also been associated with a better language output in general. The findings coming from the very limited research highlighted that fathers having higher level of education are involved in caregiving and socialization activities with young children more than the ones with low level of education (Pancsofar, 2010; Gavin et al., 2002) and children of more educated fathers were found to have more advanced language skills (Zhang et al., 2008). In general, parents with higher education are more prone to provide intellectually challenging and stimulating interactions, which contributes to language development (Hoff, 2003; Gingsborg, 2006).

Interactions with caregivers are not the only window through and in which children are socialized into culturally and socially acceptable conventions of their speech community. Preschool education also provides them a social learning environment in which they are engaged in various kinds of interactions with their peers and teachers.As Öztürk (1995) states, in preschool children have the chance of talking and listening to many other children and there are various activities such as project work, drawing and different types of plays in which children spend time freely. These activities present children many different kinds of experiences in terms of language learning and use. This school environment is highly stimulating for them compared to the home setting in which they may have a limited chance to participate in different activities or learn new words. Moreover, in this setting children have opportunities for lexical development and receptive and productive language development as well. All in all, a high-quality preschool has many contributions to children's language development.

As is proposed in the social interaction theory of Vygotsky (1978), every type of interaction surrounding children's social environment has its own peculiar contributions to their linguistic and cognitive skills. The basic tenet of the theory is based on the claim that children's ability to acquire language is interconnected with their problem-solving abilities in contexts that are challenging for them, which, in turn, requires higher order thinking. In this sense, as reported by language socialization theorists like Schieffelin and Ochs (1986), more competent persons play a central role in facilitating learning through interactions in different settings such as home (parent-child) and school (teacher-child). From this perspective, preschool can be considered as a place in which children have the chance of gaining social competence in many aspects of language use (Lau, 2015). At the same time, they have the opportunity to practice these skills in various peer-interactions which are collaborative and symmetrical in nature and include various types of talk (conflicts, verbal play, etc) (Ely and McCabe, 1993) and thus, directly or indirectly, provide language socialization (Küntay et al., 2014).

In this sense, peer-play which is a frequent activity in preschools is an effective basis for children to "co-construct social relationships" (Blum-Kulka & Snow, 2004, p. 294) and exercise gender identities (Kyratzis, 1999). Peer talk can be considered to have a training function in that through these interactions children develop several kinds of conversational skills, knowledge of genres and roles. These opportunities may not exist in their interactions with adults due to an asymmetric hierarchy between them in terms of social knowledge and status (Blum-Kulka & Snow, 2004). Drawing on findings from several studies, Rydland et al. (2013) emphasize that preschool children's vocabulary development is highly affected by the oral language skills of the children in the same classroom. They further claim that as children gain autonomy in choosing a friend in this period, the talk in peer interactions grew into more elaborate.

Whedall and Martin (1977) investigated the impact of social environment on preschoolers' language acquisition across different settings like home and preschool. The findings have revealed that preschool has a more positive contribution to children's language development. A similar conclusion was reported by Öztürk (1995) who found a significant difference between children with preschool experience and the ones who do not take this education in terms of their receptive and productive language levels. The findings also indicated that children with preschool education have a higher level of vocabulary development and comprehension and production of language compared to the ones with no education. There is also some previous research which is unable to

come up with a certain correlation between the two. On the other hand, there are also studies which found either a minor or no effect (e.g., Alduais et al., 2012).Therefore, there is still much that needs to be explored on the possible link between the two. The present study may contribute to this issue by investigating the differences or similarities between the children with preschool experience or no preschool experience in terms of the complexity and variety of their apology realization patterns.

2.6. Acquiring Social Variation in Speech

Language use, unquestionably, is not invariant (Clark, 2009; Nardy, et al., 2013). It diversifies depending on not only the existent social role of the speaker (e.g. parent, teacher) but also the role of the addressee in the current context, and any kind of relationship between them (Clark, 2009). In Clark's (2009, p. 306) words, as one part of their communicative competence, children need to acquire "the dialect or set of dialects" which will reflect various aspects of their social identity consisting of "their region of origin, as well as their social class, ethnic group, age, and gender". Furthermore, they also need to internalize various types of registers and pragmatic rules which will provide them an opportunity to express a wide variety of social meanings related to the certain context that they get into interaction. According to the author, these include how they judge the relation between themselves and their listeners in terms of power ("status and control") and familiarity, and how they perceive the function and the formality of the situation.This necessitates being exposed to various types of roles and communities over the years and paying attention to various types of interactions (e.g., instructing, narrating), different contexts of interaction (e.g., home, school), different groups that one is signing a membership and different addressees (e.g., adult-child).

In their surrounding environment, as Clark (2009)states, certain power relations are salient to children in interactions within the family like child-mother, child-father and child-other sibling. They also get into contact with such roles as doctor, nurse, and teacher in the early years. If they focus their attention on these roles, they gain the ability to put it into practice. The linguistic means children used to mark these roles and the way they discriminate between the two roles have been subject to many research mainly through the investigation of their request productions. For instance, in Anderson's (1990) "controlled improvisation" children aged 4;7, 5;4, and 6;10 were

asked to do the voices for puppets in three different settings: the doctor's office, the home, and the classroom. The puppets were dissimilar in terms of age (parent vs. child), gender (male vs. female) and their professional status (doctor vs. nurse). The overall analysis revealed that children indicated sensitiveness to the power of speakers: for the roles in which they were more powerful, they employed a less polite form of requests and for the less powerful roles politer request types were utilized. In all the settings they associated more power to the roles of father, doctor and teacher. Furthermore, their speech to father was reported to mainly include more direct requests and politeness modifiers than their speech to mother.

Similar findings were also reported by a number of other studies. As one of them, Ervin-Tripp's (1977) study shows that children between the ages of 4 and 7 have gained an awareness of social status relations. In addition, their knowledge of the way people speak in different social settings tailoring their speech to the needs of the addressee has also been well documented. Drawing on the findings of several studies, Gleason and Perlmann (1985) point out that even 2-year-old children can take into consideration the interlocutor needs and modify the features of their speech correspondingly. This was reflected in their simple and reduced length of utterances and raised frequency of voices with ample repetitions in their speech to younger listeners. The same speech style was not existent in their speech to adults which included longer utterances and relatively few imperatives and a number of politeness markers.

The ability to distinguish among addressees has been reported in Sachs and Devin's (1976) study as well in which children, aged between 3;9 and 5;5, were asked to talk to an adult, a peer, a baby, and a baby doll. Children were reported to distinguish younger listeners, which was reflected in their shortened utterances, utilizing attention getters and modifying their speech. In parallel with this, the utterances directed to mothers were longer than the ones addressed to the baby doll. With regard to their speech to peers, children were observed to treat them in the same way as they did to adults. Children's ability to distinguish different forms of requests has also been investigated. Becker (1986) concluded from his study that preschool children (4-6-year olds) could differentiate dominant requests utilized by people in high status from nice ones using semantic softeners and tone as cues.

Children's ability to select strategies according to the social distance to their interlocutors has been explored by Baroni and Axia (1989) who found that while children were prone to utilize polite strategies when they were addressing to a less

familiar person, their speech was full of less polite strategies while addressing to more familiar ones.

In addition to above-mentioned factors such as age, status, and needs of the addressee, speakers also need to specify the communicative intent of a certain interaction before making choices on the suitable linguistic devices since "the same setting may elicit different speech styles on two different occasions if the communicative intent has changed" (Gleason& Perlmann, 1985, p. 98). In their study conducted to explore the change in children's speech depending on the situational variations, Gleason&Perlmann (1985, p. 99) observed children's (aged 2-to-5) interactions with mothers and fathers in three different tasks denoting three different situations: "wooden toy car, playing store and telling a story from a wordless picture book". They found a developmental progression: while the youngest group (2-year-olds) did not have the linguistic and cognitive ability to act in a "make-believe mode", children aged between 2;5 and 3;5 declared that they had a customer role, but their speech was not appropriate for this claim. On the other hand, in the transitional phase, when children were 3;5, they were observed to be aware that there are more than one options/forms to realize their request and they were in search for choosing the correct variant. They were successful in distinguishing the appropriate syntactic form for making a polite request. In addition, the oldest group's (age 5) speech was found to include more diversity-girls more than boys-. They could distinguish among different situations, which was also evidenced in their speech with a number of lexical, phonetic and syntactic modifications in one of the situations. According to the researchers, this indicated that they marked this situation as syntactically different from the other ones. All in all, they stated that there was a gradually developing sensitivity to the requirements of a certain situation and children's capability to use language to fulfill these essentials develops concomitantly.

All these findings help us to draw a general conclusion that children have an early and gradually developing ability to tailor their speech taking into account both the situational variations and the listener-speaker characteristics (age, sex, familiarity, etc). As Ninio and Snow (1996) highlight, sensitivity to social status and social distance which determines the linguistic means is an early accomplishment of children. Nevertheless, acquiring full competence and knowledge of the syntactic forms which appropriately mark dimensions of status and distance may take more time.

2.7. The Speech Act of Apology

In Austin's (1975, p. 83) classification of speech acts, apologies are placed into the class of behavitives which also include such acts as congratulating and greetings. He describes behavitives as "a kind of performative concerned roughly with reactions to behavior and with behavior towards others and designed to exhibit attitudes and feelings" In this sense, apologies are regarded as expressions that exhibit speakers' feelings and manners about social behavior (Hatipoğlu, 2003). Therefore, when a speaker apologizes, as Ogiermann (2009) states, he/she performs:

> A locutionary act: S utters the words: I apologize (explicit performative) or I'm sorry (primary performative)
> An illocutionary act: S apologizes
> A perlocutionary act: S placates the hearer (who accepts the apology and forgives)
> (p. 45).

However, in the novel taxonomy created by Searle (1979a), apologies have been placed in a different class called *expressives*, which comprise such speech acts as thanks, and congratulations as well. According to Searle (1979b, p. 15), the verbs in this class of utterances "express the psychological state specified in the sincerity condition about a state of affairs specified in the propositional content". Searle (1979b, p. 54-55) states that in order for an apology to be sincere the speaker should feel truly sorry for the act(s) he/she is apologizing for and he proposed four rules by which the utterances are counted as speech acts of a specific kind. These are "the propositional content rule", "the preparatory rule", "the sincerity rule", and "the essential rule, by which the notion of each illocutionary act is clarified". Oishi (2013) presents an extension of the analyses of these conditions accommodated to the apologies. Accordingly:

> "The propositional content rule for the illocutionary act of apologizing specifies, as its propositional content, past act A done by speaker S. The preparatory rule specifies, as its precondition, hearer H suffers from A, and S believes H suffers from A. The sincerity condition specifies, as the speaker's feeling, S regrets doing A. The essential rule specifies, as its illocutionary effect, the act is counted as an expression of S's regret for doing A" (p. 6).

In other words, these rules give information about the structure of apologizing. That is, they present the event which the act is conducted for, the conditions under

which an apology is realized, the feelings of the transgressor, and lastly the effect occurred by the speaker's apologizing.

Apologies have been defined by scholars in various disciplines emphasizing different aspects. In general terms, the concept has been handled as having a pragmatic or social function. Focusing on the latter, Goffman (1971, p. 139) regards apologies as "remedial interchange" since, by apologizing, a speaker can achieve a crucial role such as remedying social relations following an intended or sometimes unintended offensive act which the speaker feels guilty for and in which the speaker's feeling of responsibility is witnessed by others. In this sense, the function of remedial interchange lies in its role to convert offensive behavior into the acceptable one. The role of apologizing in providing relief to the offences or conflicts between the offender and the offended has also been supported by Scher and Darley (1996, p. 127) who regard apologies as such acts offered once there is a violation of a social norm and hence, function as a "remedial work" since they have the power of repairing any social chaos resulting from the violation of a norm. From this perspective, apologizing can be seen as the most influential way of resolving interpersonal conflicts as long as it is trustworthy and sincere (Darby and Shlenker, 1982).

Similar to what has been stated on the social function of apologies, Olshtain (1989, p. 167) has supported the balancing role of the act when she claims that the general aim of apology "is to maintain or restore harmony". In this way, the possible complaint of the hearer can be reduced with the speaker's effort of apologizing (Edmondson, 1981).

Regarding apologies as post-event actions, Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984) state the need for the recognition of the infringement of a social norm on the part of the speaker and admission of causing the offence. They assert three preconditions that must remain true for the act of apologizing to take place:

> a. S did X or abstained from doing X (or is about to do it).
> b. X is perceived by S only, by H only, by both S and H, or by a third party as a breach of a social norm.
> c. X is perceived by at least one of the parties involved as offending, harming or affecting H in some way (p. 206).

According to the researchers, when these three preconditions occur, in order for the speaker to actualize an apology, he/she must recognize all the preconditions and feel the need to apologize. Speakers rectify the social norm by performing the apology

(shows the recognition of precondition (b)) and make an effort to soothe the hearer. The fourth condition is suggested by Fraser (1981) as expressing regret for committing the offence. Connected to this, according to Searle (1979b), the act of apology takes place only with the speaker's belief that some form of act has been caused and it has resulted in a breach that has affected the hearer in a negative way.

Evaluating the functions of apologies, Goffman (1971) differentiates between the two types of apologies as *ritual* and *substantive*. The former aims to meet the social expectations which restore virtual offences that are remedied with only an offer of apologetic formula. This type of apology fulfils socially acceptable and expected kind of behavior (Zimin, 1981). The latter is motivated by a genuine regret for the offence which remedies real damage given to the addressee by offering material compensation in addition to using an apologetic formula. Scholars (e.g., Bergman and Kasper, 1993) who conducted cross-cultural studies supported Goffman's categorization with the findings which indicated the existence of these two types of apologies in various languages distinguished from each other with different formulas they include. In other words, cross-cultural differences have been found in the use of both ritual and substantive apologies. However, Fraser (1981, p. 266) has voiced the difficulty of making a distinction between the two since apologies are "motivated from both perspectives".

In Bergman and Kasper's (1993, p. 82) terms, apology is considered as a "compensatory action" fulfilled by the speaker following an offence that is "costly" to the hearer. Here, this cost may be losing face or a complete misunderstanding. At this point, they explain that another variance occurs across different cultures in the perceptions of how costly the offence to the hearer and how essential an apology is. To put it in another way, while some cultures perceive a specific action as very serious, another culture may not consider it as requiring an apology at all. Hence, according to them, the differences in weighting the severity degree of the offence directly influence the strategies the offender will choose to apologize. Trosborg (1987) supports this claim and states that the individual's social and cultural backgrounds and the norms of that culture are the crucial factors when considering the act as face-threatening and deciding on the type of strategy to be employed accordingly.

Commenting on apologies in terms of face needs or the self-image of the interactants, Brown&Levinson (1987, p. 311) view these acts as the ones designed for preserving face once encountered face-threatening actions, since they can repair the

threat and maintain the damaged social harmony again. The authors distinguish between positive and negative face and state that making an apology may directly impose damage on speakers' positive face ("desire that" one's "self-image be appreciated by interactants") especially when it is performed together with a confession. Yet, on the other hand, apologies are regarded as negative politeness devices since the most predictable feature of apology is remedying the threat on H's negative face (satisfy the need for acting autonomously) and what they express is respect not friendliness. They further assert that speakers make use of apologies when they want to express respect and abstain from imposing on others. In this sense, for the speaker apologies can be viewed as "face-threatening" yet for the hearer, they can be"face-saving" (Hatipoğlu, 2003, p. 125). Lakoff (2001) stands in the same line with Brown and Levinson and states that the act of apology puts psychological burdens on its' offender more than it does on its' recipient.

However, the categorization of apologies as negative politeness has been challenged by a number of researchers. For instance, Garcia (1989) states that it is the cultural background of the speaker which determines what face needs apologies address to. In other words, the author argues that apologies may satisfy different face needs in different languages: while some cultures like American utilize apologies as negative politeness devices, in some others like Venezuelan speakers' apologies address at hearer's positive face. Similarly, instead of taking into consideration only the apologiser's face like the way Brown and Levinson do, Holmes (1990, p. 159) considers the apologisee's face needs as well when she states that apologies can be regarded as "face-supportive acts" both for the offended and the offender since there is a mutual benefit with the realization of the apology, which can satisfy the victim's or the wrongdoer's positive face needs although it is the hearer's face which has been damaged after an offence. Therefore, as she asserts, apologies can accommodate not only negative but also positive politeness functions. These aspects have urged her to come up with a broad definition in which an apology is described as:

> a speech act addressed to B's face needs, and intended to remedy an offence for which A takes responsibility, and thus to restore equilibrium between A and B (where A is the apologiser, and B is the person offended (p. 159).

Although the literature on apologies presents a wide range of definitions that evaluate the concept from different aspects, it is almost impossible to come up with an

unquestionably accepted description. Nonetheless, according to Ely&Gleason (2006), there are four constituents of an apology which are common in most of the portrayals including a transgression or an offence, the realization of the offence, acceptance of responsibility for the occurrence by the offender, and a linguistic expression of regret. In addition, what all these efforts indicate is that since violations or disputes are possibly common part of everyday communication between individuals, apologies have a critical role in resolving conflicts and repairing trust in interrelations as long as they are sincere. However, if we consider the possibility of the speaker's apologizing for somebody else's behavior, as claimed by Holmes (1990), then the speaker becomes the person who takes the responsibility instead of the offender himself. Therefore, it would be better to take into account all the characteristics identified in the definitions in order to obtain a complete framework of the meanings and functions of apologies.

2.7.1. Taxonomies of Apology

The variance in the definition of apologies among scholars has caused researchers' designing different taxonomies each having their own ways of classification entitling some sub-categories under slightly different headings or adding new formulas or sub-formulas. As Aijmer (1996) states, there is a wide range of patterns utilized to realize apologies in different languages, which makes it difficult to come up with a classification that applies to all languages. Nevertheless, these different categorizations include specific classes which are common or universal across most of the taxonomies like the ones that are incomparable. The coding schemes have been expanded constantly over time by the researchers which are mostly based on the one originally developed by Fraser (1981) and modified by Olshtain and Cohen (1983) and Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) with an aim to reach a satisfactory categorization system that can accommodate the data emerged in their own studies. In this section, we will discuss some of these taxonomies in chronological order and introduce the one that will be mainly utilized to code the data in the present study in detail.

One of the earliest classifications belongs to Fraser (1981, p. 262-263) who identified nine different categories of apology strategies, which are based on the speaker's intent. These are: announcing that you are apologizing "(I (hereby) apologize for ...)", expressing one's obligation to apologize, ("I must apologize for …"), offering an apology ("I (hereby) offer my apology"), requesting the hearer accept an apology,

(“Please, accept my apology for ...”), expressing regret for the offence (“I'm (truly/very/so/terribly) sorry for …”), requesting forgiveness for the offence, (“Please, excuse me for ...”), acknowledging responsibility for the offending act (“That is my fault”), promising forbearance from a similar offending act (“I promise you that will never happen again), and offering redress (“Please, let me pay for the damage I have done”).

Fraser (1981, p. 264) distinguishes these strategies in terms of two aspects: as direct and indirect and formal and informal. According to him, the first four strategies in the list are the most explicit ones since the speaker asserts “that an apology is at issue”. However, at the same time, the speaker does not directly see himself responsible for the transgression and use an expression of remorse. Compared to the first four, the rest of the strategies are more indirect. Another point highlighted by Fraser (1981) is the fact that these strategies are found to be used mostly in combinations rather than standalone depending on the offence situation. Besides, Fraser (1981) proposes a number of factors that have a direct influence on the strategy choice. Accordingly, the nature and severity of the offence, the familiarity of the interlocutors in interaction, and the context of the situation in terms of formality or informality have a systematic effect on speaker’s realization patterns.

Another categorization has been devised by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984, p. 206), which was the reorganization of the one proposed by Olshtain and Cohen (1983). In their scheme, in addition to the verb “apologize”, they present five more verbs (“regret, excuse, (be) sorry, forgive, pardon”) which are, in English, considered as “performative verbs”, that is, IFIDs. The other strategies in the list are: giving an explanation or account explicitly or implicitly, taking responsibility, which has five sub-categories ranging from the complete acknowledgment of responsibility with “self-humbling” to “denial of the offense”, offering a repair with two subcategories as specified repairs and unspecified ones, and promising forbearance. They further state that realization of apologies can be achieved either using one of the performative verbs they described or a combination of them. In other words, speakers can use one of the IFIDs and/or an utterance which refers to the acknowledgment of the damage, compensation of the repair or an account of the offence they have caused. In addition, according to them, various expressions can be utilized for the linguistic realization of apologies; either as standalone or with any categories of IFIDs, which can also be

intensified in such ways as internal intensification with adverbials or repetition, external intensification (e.g. “showing concern for H”), and lastly by using multiple strategies.

Following Fraser’s, a somewhat different coding scheme has been devised by Trosborg (1987) who proposes five classes which are determined according to the speaker’s decision on action. In other words, the strategies are divided in terms of the speaker’s acknowledgment on whether an action necessitates an apology or not. Accordingly, there are two sections each including different strategies: in the first one, that is, when the speaker does not approve that an apology is required, there are two strategies: “explicit denial” and “implicit denial”. The other categories “giving a justification”, blaming someone else”, and “attacking the complainer” are the options that can be selected when the speaker acknowledges that an incident that necessitates an apology has taken place.

Basing her categorization system on the ones devised by the others (e.g. Fraser, 1981; Blum-Kulka &Olshtain, 1984), Holmes (1989, p. 200) proposes a scheme of apology strategies consisting of four main classes together with sub-categories, which are as follows: “explicit expression of apology” (“an offer of apology/IFID”, “an expression of regret”, and “a request for forgiveness”); “an explanation or account”; “acknowledgment of responsibility” (“accepting the blame”, “expressing self-deficiency”, “recognizing H as entitled to an apology”, “expressing lack of intent”), “an offer of repair/redress”; and “a promise of forbearance”.

Having investigated apologies in conversational routines in English Aijmer (1996, p. 83) develops a taxonomy including an extended number of apology strategies, which makes it different from Fraser’s. There are totally 13 strategies divided into two groups as explicit and implicit, which are further classified as emotional or non-emotional each having sub-categories. The strategies that belong to the explicit and emotional category are: “explicitly apologizing” and “expressing regret”. The strategies labeled as explicit and non-emotional are as follows: “offering (giving, presenting) one’s apologies”, “acknowledging a debt of apology”, “demanding forgiveness”, and “explicitly requesting the hearer’s forgiveness”. On the other hand, the category of implicit strategies includes totally seven strategies which are divided into two as emotional and non-emotional as well. The emotional category comprises of “giving an explanation or account”, and “expressing emotion”. Finally, non-emotional strategies are: “self-denigration or self-reproach (“how stupid of me”)”, “minimizing responsibility”, “acknowledging responsibility for the offending act”, “promising

forbearance from a similar offending act", and "offering redress". However, his taxonomy has not been widely utilized in classifying apologies (Hatipoğlu, 2003).

A more recent classification is developed by Deutschmann (2003, p. 75) with a relatively different approach to apologies as a result of the analysis of The British National Corpus. The categories are formed according to the function apologies convey. Accordingly, the three main categories consist of "real apologies", "formulaic apologies", and "face attack apologies". While the first one is found as the most frequent which occurs in the form of "I apologize for this", the second one is expressed in the form of "I'm sorry" like the simple IFIDs, and the last one has the function of disarming the hearer like in the example "Excuse me, David, I'm talking to Chris".

As a result of the detailed examination of the relevant literature, Olshtain and Cohen's (1983) taxonomy was found more suitable to accommodate the semantic formulas emerged in the current study for a number of reasons. To begin with, as Hatipoğlu (2003) states, the classifications have proved their universal applicability across various languages including the eight language (i.e., German, Hebrew, Russian, British English, etc…) investigated within the Blum-Kulka and Olshtain's (1984) project (CCSARP), and also Turkish (Hatipoğlu, 2003; Erçetin, 1995), Jordanian Arabic (Al-Adaileh, 2007), and Polish (Suszczynska, 1999). In addition, this taxonomy is the most commonly used one compared to the others (Marquez-Reiter, 2000). Below is the detailed description of the main and subcategories in the taxonomy.

Modifying Fraser's (1981) taxonomy, Olshtain and Cohen (1983) devised a coding scheme which consists of five main strategies each including several sub-categories. They claim that these five main apology formulas are universal across languages. However, there is, undoubtedly, a variation among societies in the degree they utilized from these strategies and the combinations they form (Olshtain, 1983). The first category in the taxonomy is *an explicit expression of apology* (Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices (IFIDs)), which has such three sub-categories as "an offer of apology", "an expression of regret" and "a request for forgiveness". The authors state that this category includes formulaic, routinized expressions formed with such performative verbs as "apologize", "sorry" or "forgive". Some of these performatives are available in all languages and they can be utilized in any kind of situation (Olshtain, 1983). Each language has its own peculiar way of realizing the IFIDs and speakers can intensify an expression of apology if needed by adding appropriate intensifiers such as "really" or "very". The choice among the type of intensifiers is language- and situation-

specific (Cohen and Olshtain, 1981). For the subcategories under the first main category, the authors argue that they are different from each other in terms of levels of formality. That is, an offer of apology ("I apologize") is the most formal way of apologizing in English whereas expression of regret ("I'm sorry") is the least formal one. A request for forgiveness which is expressed in the form of "Excuse me" or "forgive me" stands between the two.

By choosing the second category, *Explanation or Account*, the speaker makes a description of the situation that gives rise to the wrongdoing, which can be regarded as conveying indirect apology. This strategy has the function of providing reconciliation with the offended person (Olshtain & Cohen 1991). Accepting explanation as an apology strategy changes across cultures. In other words, as Olshtain and Cohen (1991) state, while in some cultures having a good public transportation system, an explanation like "the bus was late" may not be accepted as an apology since the other party may think that in such a good system it is not the bus but the person who is late. In contrast, a similar explanation may be regarded as a good way of apologizing in cultures with an unreliable public transportation system (Cohen & Olshtain, 1986).

The third main category is an *acknowledgment of responsibility*, which is preferred once the speaker accepts that he/she caused the transgression. Olshtain (1989, p. 157) states that this type of apology is universal in that it "relates to the S's willingness to admit [or not to admit] fault". The category consists of four sub-classes, all of which are different ways of expressing responsibility for the offence committed against the offended. Owen (1983) states that these sub-classes have different levels of intensity ranging from the highest to the lowest. The first subcategory, accepting the blame, is the most explicit way of taking responsibility expressed in the form of "It's my fault", which makes it the one with the highest level of intensity (Olshtain and Cohen, 1991). The strategy is followed by the expression of self-deficiency ("I was confused", "I didn't see"), justifying the hearer ("you are right") and expressing lack of intent ("I didn't mean to). The last two sub-categories are stated to have lower levels of intensity compared to the others as the apologizer takes the responsibility implicitly rather than explicitly. Olshtain (1983) argues that these strategies are very influential in providing the rebalance because they are viewed as an honest way of apologizing by the offended person.

As another main category in the taxonomy, *Offer of repair* is regarded as a compensatory act in that the offender proposes to perform an action or recompense the

damage caused by his/her breach. Cohen and Olshtain (1983) state that the speaker utilizes this strategy only if there is actual damage. In other words, using this strategy depends on the situation and only suitable when the speaker has caused real damage.

Promise of Forbearance, the last main category, refers to the speaker's assuring the other party that the offence won't be committed again. This strategy, as Olshtain and Cohen (1990) state, is not employed frequently compared to the other strategies because of the much responsibility it imposes on the speaker. That is, the apologizer may not keep his promise that is provided for a future action and thus may not protect his self-image.

The category of *No Apology* is presented for the conditions when the speaker avoids apologizing by "blaming the hearer", using "downgraders and self-defense" in the form of "don't worry", "minimizing the degree of offence" by saying "this can always happen", "concern for the hearer" by asking "are you OK?", "denial of fault", and "expression of indifference".

According to Olshtain and Cohen (1983), while the two strategies; an explicit expression of apology and an acknowledgment of responsibility, are general and can be utilized regardless of the situation, the remaining three are situation-dependent and they "semantically reflect the content of the situation" (Olshtain, 1989, p. 157). They also assert that speakers of all languages can attain these strategies through the choice of using single or combination of them, which is determined by the particular situation within the language and culture group in question. The revised and modified version of the coding scheme has been presented in the methodology chapter with the examples for each category, most of which are taken from the data gathered for the present study.

2.7.2. Previous Studies on Apologies

The number of studies that empirically investigate apologies has been increasing over the years in various fields such as sociolinguistics and pragmatics. Most of this research has been devoted to uncovering the native and non-native tendencies of apology realization patterns in English. Nevertheless, recent years have seen an explosion in research that makes an effort to establish the range of semantic formulae used to perform apologies in different languages as well. The studies, in general, can be categorized into three depending on their purposes. The first group consists of research on cross-cultural investigation of apologies following the seminal work of Blum-Kulka

and Olshtain's (1984) CCSARP (e.g., Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Olshtain, 1989; Ogiermann, 2009; Sugimoto, 1998; Marquez-Reiter, 1999).

The second group of research explores speakers' apology patterns within the same language and/or culture (e.g., Deutschmann, 2003; Nureddeen, 2008). Finally, the third group includes interlanguage studies which adopt a comparative approach to find out how second or foreign language learners' productions in the target language differ from native speakers of that language and to what extent they approach native like norms in terms of cultural and stylistic appropriateness. Besides, the role of pragmatic transfer is also among the issues investigated in this type of research (e.g., Garcia, 1989; Suszczynska, 1999). In the following section, as the present study focuses on Turkish children's apologies, we will only deal with the studies conducted with Turkish speakers. This is followed by studies on children's apologies in several languages. Finally, the last part is devoted to the study findings on the effect of several social and contextual factors on speakers' linguistic choices in realizing apologies as one of the foci of the present study.

2.7.2.1. Apologies in Turkish

When the relevant literature was examined, it was observed that all studies of apologizing in Turkish have been directed to uncover adult realization patterns. Only a few have adopted a cross-cultural perspective and compare Turkish native speaker patterns with speakers from other cultures attributing the differences in choices to the different social and cultural backgrounds. On the other hand, a great number of these studies have been conducted in the field of interlanguage pragmatics, which compare Turkish EFL learners and native speakers of English in terms of the strategies and syntactic forms utilized to realize these strategies. Here, an additional aim in such studies is to evaluate whether the learners approach native-like norms. This section provides an exhaustive discussion of the abovementioned socio-pragmatic research on apologizing in Turkish in order to come up with a detailed picture of the adult-usage, which provides a baseline and, in turn, pave the way for comparison with children's choices of realization patterns.

To start with, in his intracultural and intercultural exploratory study, Çetinavcı (2012) employed DCT as a data collection method which consisted of eight situations that required apology as a response. All the scenarios were written in Turkish and the

informants provided their responses in Turkish as well. The participants were 45 high school students, whose average age was 16, and they had nearly the same socio-economic backgrounds. The findings of the study were compared with Erçetin's (1997) whose study included participants with an average age of 25, with an aim to uncover the differences in strategy preferences between the two age groups; teenage and young subjects. The results of the study revealed that the responses indicated differences depending on such specific variables as age, and nature and severity of the offence. In other words, there were some situations in which the teenager group apologized more than the young group and the ones with light damage in which the apologies of teenagers were two times more than the other group. In addition, some situations were observed to elicit the same amount of apology. Related with this, another important point to highlight about the study is the fact that both groups of participants acknowledged their wrongdoing taking the risk of losing face. In terms of the strategy choices, the findings of the study showed that explicit apology and taking responsibility were the two strategies that were utilized in most of the situations. As for the use of intensifiers, both groups were reported to respond similarly. "Çok" (very) and "gerçekten" (really) were the most frequently utilized devices for intensification. The teenage group was found to be linguistically politer and sensitive to the social identity of the hearer. However, taking into consideration the limitations of the study, the researcher claimed that a more detailed investigation is needed to explore the influence of offence types on the amount and choices of apologies as well, and find out the sequences and combinations of formulas or sub-formulas.

In order to investigate the relationship between educational background and directness level of apologizing strategies, Özyıldırım (2010) conducted a study with adult native speakers of Turkish. What the researcher hypothesized at the beginning of her study was that the apologetic behaviour of subjects with a high and low level of education would be different in different offence situations. For this purpose, 80 participants were divided into two groups; 40 with a low level of education varying between primary and junior high school, and 40 with high level who had a university or Ph.D. degree. The DCT consisting of eight apology situations was used to collect data and the findings of both groups were compared in terms of directness level of apology strategies with a scale developed by the researcher. The results revealed that the two groups behaved differently in terms of the directness level of their formulas. As hypothesized by the researcher at the beginning of the study, direct apology strategies

were more popular among the subjects with a high level of education while the indirect ones were mostly employed by subjects with low educational background. Additionally, a relationship was found between the severity degree of the offence and the directness level of formulas. That is, it was observed that when the offence was serious, the strategies tended to be more direct in both groups. Another difference identified between the two groups was the number of words, intensifiers, and the number of semantic formulas, all of which were found significantly higher in the group with higher level of education.

Conducted as a cross-cultural investigation, Hatipoğlu's (2003) study explored the apology strategies utilized by males and females in Turkish and English. The researcher aimed to find out how male and female choices were influenced by such social and contextual variables as the gender of the interlocutor, his/her social status, and the type of offence. The main dependent variables investigated in the study were the length and type of apology.The researcher adopted a multiple-source approach and used both DCTs and open-role plays to collect the data from Turkish university students in Istanbul and British university students in Bristol. The analyses the researcher actualized involved frequency count of apologies, mean length of turn (MLT) comparison, and syntactic-semantic analyses. With regard to the length of apology, parallelstandards were found in British and Turkish redressive acts consisting of 11 and 12 words on average. In other words, despite the structural differences between the two languages, British and Turkish speakers tended to realize their remorse with nearly the same number of words. When the influence of gender of the apologizer and the apologizee was examined, the findings revealed females' using significantly longer apologies than males in both cultures. Qualitative analysis also showed that British and Turkish females' apologies comprised of a great number of intensifiers and personal pronouns. On the other hand, men utilized addressee oriented apologies more than women. Together with this, the status of the interlocutor was found as the factor that had the least impact on the length of Turkish apologies, which was not the case for British apologies. In terms of the apology strategies, the findings from the British and Turkish corpora revealed that explicit expression of apology and acknowledgment of responsibility were the most common ones in both cultures, proving that they were not situation-specific strategies. When the realization patterns for this category were examined, it was observed that the sub-strategies of IFIDs preferred by the two language groups were different from each other, which also supported the claim that

each language has its own routinized expressions for apologies. Furthermore, overall findings of the study revealed that such context external factors as social status and the gender of the apologizee had an influence on the choices of Turkish and British speakers. Degree of imposition was also among the context internal factors that affected the strategy preferences.

Apart from the spoken and written modalities, apologizing was also examined in computer-mediated communication (CMC) by Hatipoğlu (2009) with an aim to investigate the influence of ranking of imposition on the quality of the explicit electronic apologies (i.e., IFIDs=Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices). In the study, 108 university students were presented various semantic formulae of apologies and what they would do was to judge their appropriateness designed for situations with a low and high level of imposition if they needed to express their apologies using e-mail. There were totally 454 strategies that were ticked by the informants for the contexts with low imposition. "Kusura bakma" (Excuse me), "özür dilerim" (I apologize), and "üzgünüm" (I'm sorry) emerged as the strategies that were chosen significantly more than the others whereas "canım çok sıkıldı" (It made me so sad) and "bağışlayın" (Forgive me) were among the least frequent ones. On the other hand, there were 525 strategies ticked by the participants for the contexts with high severity. "Özür dilerim" (I apologize) was found to have statistically significant usage rate. Overall findings led the researcher to conclude that the level of imposition has an influence on the type and level of politeness preferred by the speakers. Additionally, she claimed that when an offence has high imposition, it's more likely that the apologizer makes a more detailed assessment of the situation and avoids from taking risks; that's why the most direct apology "özür dilerim" in Turkish was the most frequent one for the offences with high severity. Finally, according to the researcher, apologies used in e-mails carry the features of apologies used in written and spoken language, which makes them hybrid. Yet, at the same time, some characteristics make e-mail apologies different from the two modalities.

Nazlı (2013) investigated the differences in apology realization patterns of 154 native speakers of Turkish across such variables as gender, age, social class, and ethnic group. The study, additionally, aimed to uncover the reasons why the speakers use apologies and whether the reasons of use differ across the abovementioned variables. The data were collected via a questionnaire that asked participants about the expressions of apologies they use in their daily life and the reasons why they apologize. The

participants were all students at a state university in Turkey studying at different departments. The expressions were classified under 17 different categories and the findings revealed that the most frequently used expressions were the ones that are formed with using apology words, expressions that include a request for forgiveness, and expressions which include regret. Additionally, the frequency of the use of such expressions was observed to differ across the social variables examined in the study. For instance, when the data were examined in terms of differences that stem from age, it was found that the participants in the 19-20 age group emerged as the one which utilized more categories of apology when the number of categories was calculated across age group.

As stated at the beginning of this section, apart from the above-mentioned small number of studies that have uncovered Turkish speaker norms of apology, there are a great number of studies aimed to compare apology realizations of Turkish learners of English with those produced by native speakers of English. In these studies, the researchers mainly investigated whether learners transfer pragmatic patterns of apologizing in their mother tongue to their second language experiences. Additionally, proficiency level has also been explored as a variable that may affect the learners' performances of apology (e.g., Aydın, 2013; İstifçi, 2009; Karsan, 2005; Tuncel, 2011). General conclusions that can be drawn from these studies are that Turkish learners' apology productions differ from those of English native speakers and only apologies of advanced learners show similarities with English norms. Moreover, irrespective of their proficiency levels, apologies of Turkish learners in the target language carry the features of their mother tongue, which proves pragmatic transfer.

2.7.2.2. Children's Apologies

Compared to adults, the relevant literature presents a relatively small number of studies on children's apology productions leaving us with many unexplained questions with regard to children's apologetic behavior and their ability to vary strategies across many social and contextual parameters as adults do. To our best knowledge, no study has been reported on Turkish children's apologies. However, English, Mandarin Chinese, Hebrew, Kurdish and Persian were the examined languages in terms of children's apology productions. This section provides a detailed description of these studies so as to gain a better understanding on children's perceptions and productions of

remedial acts. As is illustrated below, while some studies are longitudinal and explore developmental patterns of children's apologies as they occur in naturalistic data (e.g., Ely and Gleason, 2006), some of them have obtained their data through the use of DCT as a data collection method (e.g., Chang, 2016).

To start with, Ely and Gleason's (2006) longitudinal study attempted to explore apologies of 9 children consisting of five males and four females; between the ages of 1;2 and 6;1, in parent-child discourse. The data obtained from the Child Language Data Exchange System (CHILDES) revealed that it was rare for children to use apology terms before their second birthday. Besides, while the average age of producing apologies for girls was 2;2;0, this was three months later for boys; 2;5;18. However, a number of developmental changes were observed with the increasing age. For instance, directly elicited apologies were found to decline as children got older. In parallel with this, an increase was observed in the apologies that were elicited indirectly. Another effect of age found in the study was the use of more elaborate forms of apologies.Accordingly, while the rate of elaboration was 11% when children were two years old, this rate indicated an increase to more than 50% in the corpus of three- and four-year-old children.The study also investigated the parents' role in children's mastery of apology terms by analyzing the input or prompts that they provided for children to find out the differences between children's and their parents' apologies. The data revealed that children were exposed to the parents' talking about apologies, and mothers (95%) and fathers (98%) were observed to direct most of their apologies to their children. Although a positive correlation was found between the overall apologies of mothers and children, it was not significant. On the other hand, fathers' overall use, together with the direct elicitations, was found to be significantly correlated with the children's rates.

Similar to Ely and Gleason, Chang (2016) studied developmental patterns of Mandarin Chinese apologies with the data collected from 240 participants from four different age groups (9, 12, 16, 19). The researcher aimed to find out the way the use of apology strategies differ across different age groups and gender to draw conclusions on the possible expansion of strategies as participants grow older. Perception and production data obtained via written DCT revealed no significant difference among the age groups regarding their perception of the severity of the offence. In terms of the repertoire of apology strategies, developmental changes were reported on the use of single strategy and strategy combinations. While 9 year-olds' (3rd graders) productions

were found to include mainly single strategies; meaning that using complex strategy patterns were not popular among this age group, older informants tended to produce patterns consisting of up to six strategy-combinations. When the types of strategies were examined, it was found that IFID expressing regret was more frequently employed by the 3rd and 6th graders than the respondents from grade 10 and college. Another point that was highlighted by the researcher was the finding as to the decrease in the pattern "I'm sorry" which was replaced by "I apologize" with an increase in age.

Using ethnographic observation as a data collection method, Kampf and Blum-Kulka (2007) investigated the remedial strategies of Israeli preschool children (mean age was 5 and 7) and young adolescents (fourth graders) in peer interaction contexts. The corpus yielded totally 57 instances of apologies which were analyzed in terms of both the main strategies employed and their functions. The additional aims reported in the study were to explore developmental differences that occurred in strategy use with increasing age, the types of violations that stimulate apologies, and the role of institutional figures in helping children and preadolescents to socialize into apologetic behavior. The analysis indicated that 4-6-year-old children utilized a wide variety of strategies. Thus, the authors argue that children acquire the competence to remedy an offence for managing face at an early age. Besides, in parallel with the increase in age, expanding types of violations and the use of more elaborate forms of repair was reported, which pointed at a gradually increasing sensitivity to the hearer's face needs. With regard to the effects of adults' modeling, the study found similarities in the verbal formulas used by children and adults; both expressed apologies mainly with the formulaic patterns corresponding to "excuse me" and "I'm sorry". The study revealed some gender differences as to the type of offences that received apologies. That is, while boys were found to provide an apology following an offence in the accident category (in the researchers' categorization), girls were more prone to offer apologies for lack of consideration or talk offences. To summarize, the findings revealed that a number of developmental changes occurred in the forms and functions of apologies together with the types of violations that were considered to require an apology.

Adopting a cross-linguistic perspective, Sadeghi (2013) conducted a study with Southern Kurdish and Persian children between the ages of 5 and 9. The first purpose was to uncover the similarities and differences in realizations of apologies in the two languages to determine whether they were formulaic like in English. Secondly, the researcher attempted to assess the way such context-external factors as social distance

and social dominance affect the use of intensifiers as well. The data obtained via DCT and oral interviews revealed the semantically formulaic nature of apologies in Persian and Kurdish and IFID emerged to be the most popular strategy in both of the languages. In terms of the influence of social distance and dominance between the interactants, the findings revealed that the most intensified apologies were directed to the close friends who had no dominance over the offender. On the other hand, strangers having no dominance received the least intensified apologies. Overall, Kurdish and Persian children's apologies were reported to be similar to the categories described by previous studies.

Chang (2018) investigated the influence social status have on the way participants across different age groups perceive the seriousness of the offence and their choice of apology strategies. There were totally 240 respondents: 60 from each age group: 3rd graders, 6th graders, 10th graders, and college freshmen. The data were collected through DCT consisting of four scenarios, which were orally depicted to the respondents. Productions were analyzed in terms of the degree of elaboration and the type of apology strategies. The elaboration was evaluated in terms of the mean number of apology strategies, and the strategy combinations which were classified on the basis of the number of strategies combined like single strategy, two-strategy, three-strategy, etc. The findings indicated that there were statistically significant differences in the mean number of apology strategies employed for equal-status and higher-status situations; higher mean number of strategies was provided for the ones higher in status like a teacher. In addition, older participants were found to give more elaborate apologies and produce a higher number of three-strategy and four-strategy combinations when the hearer or victim was the teacher. Similarly, the usage of a single strategy was reported to decrease in 3rd graders who produced more 2-strategy combinations when addressing to a person with high-status (teacher). In parallel with this, the oldest group, namely the college freshmen, was the ones who used single-strategy the least frequently; mostly employing 3-strategy combinations when the hearer was a friend and 4 and 5-strategy combinations when directing their apologies to a teacher. Pertaining to the influence of social status on the type of strategies, the findings indicated that participants, regardless of age, employed more "alerters" in situations in which the victim was a teacher, which reflected their status sensitivity. On the other hand, older participants indicated their status sensitivity by varying their strategy use to a great extent than the younger ones. Their usage included not only alerters, but also repairs,

facts, intensifiers, promises, and concerns. That is, status sensitivity reflected in the apology strategy use increased with age.

Apart from sociolinguistics and applied linguistics, apology has been a favourite area of research in the fields of psychology and social psychology as well. For instance, Schleien et al. (2010) investigated children's apologies to their siblings with the data obtained via six 90-min observations in 40 families for two times: when they were 2;6 and 4;6 years old and 2 years later. The researchers aimed to find out the nature of apologies and to what degree they were present in the family context. Additional aims were to document the forms used to make apologies, the possible transitions from adult-prompted to spontaneous apologies and what type of offences trigger apologies. The findings revealed an increase in the frequency of apologies in parallel to the increase in age. In terms of forms, simple apologies like "I'm sorry" were prevalent at all ages. However, older children were reported to use more simple apologies than younger ones. In terms of justified and augmented apologies, the difference was not significant. In total, simple apologies were preferred more than justified and augmented apologies in both group and the use of justification pointed to an increase over time. Overall, more complex apologies were not prevalent in the corpus. In terms of the type of offence, children were found more prone to apologize following physical harm than right violations or verbal harm respectively.

In other studies in these fields, children's apologies were explored from various perspectives including as a way of conflict resolution (Shantz, 1987; Killen&Turiel, 1991), a sign indicating development of moral criteria (Wellman, et al.,1979) or as a part of their relationship with their siblings (Volling et al., 1977). Although findings coming from these studies are invaluable in informing us about children's perceptions of apologies, we will not dwell on these since our main foci is more on linguistic expressions and the investigation of developmental changes in the complexity of forms and variety of strategy types together with the possible effect of a number of variables on apology realization patterns, which has been explained in a comprehensive way in the next section.

2.8. Apologies and Social and Contextual Variables

Apology research has recently included investigations regarding the influence of both social and contextual variables on speakers' choices of apology strategies in terms

of types and amount of use. These factors are described as the gender of the apologizer, type, and severity of the offence, and social status of the apologisee (Fraser, 1981; Holmes, 1993; Olshtain and Cohen, 1981), which have been discussed in the succeeding sections in company with the results of the relevant studies. Although they are all related to adult-usage, the findings potentially provide a basis to make inferences on children's sensitivity to these factors while making their linguistic choices.

2.8.1. Apologies and Gender

The effect of gender on the frequency and type of apology realization patterns have been subject to many research. Yet, the researchers are unable to reach a consensus due to the contradictory findings in this regard. On the one hand, there are studies that are resulted in findings that indicate differences on the part of women or men. On the other hand, some of them do not confirm such difference caused by gender.

For instance, in her study which investigated the apologies of native speakers of English in New Zealand with the data obtained through ethnographic observation, Holmes (1989) found that gender was a factor that creates differences in apology behaviors. The findings revealed that women's apologies were significantly higher in number than men meaning that women apologized more. Similar findings were also reached by Marquez-Reiter's (2000)and Intachakra's (2001) study on Uruguayan and British women and men respectively, which additionally revealed that women were more tended to use a combination of apology strategies. That is, their productions were longer and more elaborate. In contrast, Thai men's apologies in Intachakra's (2001) study were found to be longer and more complicated.

With regard to the strategy choices, many researchers (e.g., Holmes, 1990; Meier, 1998) claim that no differences have been detected between women and men in terms of the range of strategies preferred. That is, they utilize them in similar frequencies. An explicit expression of apology has been found by many studies (e.g., Owen, 1983; Holmes, 1990) as the most popular strategy among both women and men, used in similar amounts.The area in which women and men differ was the use of sub-strategies. In other words, in Holmes' (1990) study men were observed to employ more formal sub-strategies and more frequently than women. However, Gonzales et al.'s (1990) comparison of American students in terms of their strategy choices revealed a difference between genders. Accordingly, females were found to utilize explicit

apologies in the form of "I'm sorry" more than men. In a similar vein, explicit expression of apology emerged to be the most common strategy among Persian males and females as well in Chamani's (2014) study, indicating no significant difference in the amount of use.

Similarly, in her cross-cultural study which investigated the apology strategies of British and Uruguayan men and women, Marquez-Reiter (1999) found that the two groups are different from each other with regard to the employment of bare and intensified explicit expression of apology. For instance, whereas Uruguayan participants, irrespective of their gender, preferred to apologize with the bare form, both British men and women chose to intensify their apologies in most of the situations. Yet, women were found to use intensifiers slightly more frequently compared to men.

Another strategy labelled as an *explanation* or *account* did not point at any gender differences in some of the studies while in some others the usage was found higher in amount in women's or men's speech. Holmes (1989) was one of the researchers who found an identical amount of use by both genders with regard to this strategy. In a similar vein, in Marquez-Reiter's study (1999), British females were observed to use accounts slightly more frequently than Uruguayan females. At the same time, such studies as Deuchar's (1989) and Rothman and Gondossy's (1982) pointed at a higher amount of explanation or justification on the part of women. In contrast, Chamani's (2014) study on Persian males and females proved the existence of significant differences between the two groups; men were reported to use more explanations than women.

The findings related to *acknowledging responsibility*, as another basic apology strategy, displayed differences across genders in some studies like Rothmann and Gondossy's (1982), which pointed at superiority in terms of use on the part of women. In contrast, Holmes (1989) did not report a significant difference between both sexes. However, they were found to differ in the frequency of the use of sub-strategies. This was evident in the case of women's using "expressions of lack of intent" and "recognizing others' right to an apology" more frequently than men, which showed that they tended to focus on keeping the social harmony. By contrast, expressing self-deficiency and accepting the blame emerged as the two sub-strategies mostly utilized by men. Similar to Holmes (1989), Marquez-Reiter (1999) also reported similar proportions in the use of the strategy "acknowledging responsibility" by both British and Uruguayan men and women. However, cross-cultural gender differences were

apparent in the preferences of sub-strategies. This could be seen in the case of Uruguayan female and males' using *accepting the blame* significantly more than British male and females. In contrast, expression of embarrassment emerged to be significantly more employed sub-strategy by British females and males compared to Uruguayans.

Regarding the strategy "offer of repair", in her study with New Zealand male and females, Holmes (1995) reported no difference in terms of the amount of use. The strategy was not so popular among both genders. Marquez-Reiter (2000) was also the one who did not indicate any significant gender differences in the two cultures he studied on. Nevertheless, the findings indicated that the use of this strategy was more popular among Uruguayan females.

Lastly, findings related to the preferences of strategies across genders indicated that *promise of forbearance* was not frequently used by females or males. This was the case in Holmes' (1989) study which found that only 2.5% of the males' and 1.4% of females' strategies included this strategy. This was also evident in the case of British and Uruguayan males and females who rarely preferred this strategy as a response to an offence situation. Marquez-Reiter (2000) attributed this finding to the possibility that giving promises might cause apologizer to lose his/her face if it is not kept in the future. On the other hand, Chamani's (2014) study indicated significant differences across gender in the employment of this strategy; being utilized more by males.

2.8.2. Apologies and Type of Offence

It is generally agreed that type of offence is one factor that determines the choice of apology strategy. For instance, interrupting someone during an interaction requires a different remedial work than such offences as hitting someone or hurting his leg does (Deutschmann, 2003). In her study Holmes (1995, p. 167) described six types of offences that damage a person's face needs. These are "space offences (e.g., bumping into someone), talk offences (e.g., interrupting), time offences (e.g. keeping people waiting), possession offences (e.g. damaging someone's property), social gaffes (burping, coughing inappropriately)", and lastly "inconvenience offences/inadequate service (e.g. giving someone wrong item)".

The studies that investigate the role type of offence plays on the number of apologies or strategy choice are scarce and they have mainly dealt with adult usage. By way of illustration, in her study that examined cross-gender apologies, Holmes (1989) observed that females and males significantly differed in terms of their apologetic

behavior with regard to transgressions of space and time. While females apologized significantly more for space offences, males were more sensitive to the time offences. The examination of male-to-male interactions did not yield examples of apologies for space, which, according to Holmes' inference, meant that bumping into somebody is not an offence that requires apology since it is unavoidable. In terms of possession offences, Holmes' study revealed that men apologized more often than women for this kind of breach though the difference was not statistically significant.

2.8.3. Apologies and Severity of Offence

As stated by Holmes (1990, p. 156), studies conducted on the merge of politeness theory and the speech act of apology have also highlighted the "relationship between the complexity of the apology and the weightiness of the offence which elicited it". Similar to what has been argued by Holmes; Eelen (2001) emphasizes the role played by the perceived seriousness of the transgression on the degree of politeness implemented to an apology. Accordingly, offence severity determines how complex the apology pattern will be. In relation to this, discussing the factors that play a role in the choice of semantic formulas, Cohen and Olshtain (1981) have focused specifically on the severity of the transgression. They state that highly intensified apologies like "I'm terribly sorry" are provided for a more serious transgression. The ones like "I'm sorry" are offered as a result of offences with low severity. This is similar to Fraser's (1981) argument that serious harms require more comprehensive remedial actions.

Holmes (1995, p. 171) proposed a scale of varying degrees of weightiness that particular transgressions can be categorized into. These are: "light offences (e.g., bumping into someone accidentally), medium offences (e.g., broke someone's stapler), and heavy offences (e.g., knocking someone over so they were hurt, inflicting serious damage on someone's car)".

According to Baker (2011), Holmes' scale implies that when the action is unintentional and the damage caused by the action does not constitute a serious threat to the welfare of the offended, the offence is regarded as light. In this situation, considering the relationship between the seriousness of the breach and the complexity of apology forms, only explicit expression of apology like "sorry" would include sufficient politeness to assure that the offended person's negative face needs are met. With regard to more derious breaches, Schumann and Ross (2010) point out that

apologies provided for more severe damages are comprehensive and generally include as many as eight elements identified by Lazare (2004, p. 47) as “remorse, acceptance of responsibility, admission of wrongdoing, acknowledgment of harm, promise to behave better, request for forgiveness, offer of repair and explanation”.

Similarly, as a result of the findings of their study in which Thai and American participants were asked to rate the offences according to whether they created an obligation to apologize, Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993, p. 91) stated that “the more severe an offence the more it warrants apology”. This finding is similar to that found in Banikalef et al.’s (2015) study on apologies in Jordanian Arabic based on a naturalistic data. The study additionally aimed to investigate the influence of such contextual factors as social status, social distance, and severity of offence on strategy choices of informants with the semi-structured interviews. The findings of the interview revealed that the participants stated the need to employ a higher amount of apology strategies to alleviate the impact of the transgressive act when the offence is more serious. In this case, they found more suitable to use a combination of explicit apology strategies with such other strategies as a promise of forbearance or offer of repair. All the participants stated in the interviews that they took into account the sociolinguistic factors while deciding on the strategy to be used.

However, it should be born in mind that there is, definitely, considerable variability in speakers’ judgments of an offence with regard to its seriousness and the degree they necessitate an apology. This stems from the differences in cultural norms or values.

2.8.4. Apologies and Social Status

The power relationship between the interactants is stated as one of the factors that shape speakers’ preferences of apology strategies in addition to the ones depicted above. That is, asOlshtain and Cohen (1981) assert, the listener’s status is taken into account by the speaker in order to make adjustments on his/her apologetic behavior with an aim to make his apology more effective and more possible to be accepted by the offended. However, as stated by Hatiopoğlu (2003), like the other social and contextual variables, the influence of social status is more apparent in some cultures than others.

The cultural variability in the perception of social status is exemplified in the works undertaken by Tanaka (1991) and Erçetin (1995). On the one hand, in her study

that compared Japanese and Australian university students in terms of the use of apology strategies, Tanaka (1991) found that Japanese apologies were shaped by the social status of the interlocutor more than Australian apologies. In other words, the Japanese were observed to vary the strategies depending on the relative power of the listener. On the other hand, in a comparative study that explored Turkish and American apologies, Erçetin (1995) reported that it was the Americans who gave much more importance to the power relationship between the interactants. The strategies they used were observed to have varied according to the status levels.

Similar to what has been reported by the above-mentioned studies, in her study which aimed to compare the apology realization patterns of British and Turkish subjects across several variables, Hatipoğlu (2003) found that British subjects employed more strategies to the ones who were equal in status than to those having low or high power. In contrast, Turkish participants were found to give more apologies to the hearer who was higher in status. In terms of the strategy types, when the interlocutor was higher in status, explicit expression of apology emerged to be the most frequent one used standalone and also in nearly half of the situations, this strategy was used mostly in combination with *acknowledgment of responsibility*. In contrast, when the victim was lower in status, British participants tended to mainly use offer of repair standalone and also combined with an explicit expression of apology. On the other hand, in the interactions between equals, most apologies belonged to the category of an explicit expression of apology, which was combined with *an offer of repair* and *acknowledgment of responsibility* as well. When the distribution of Turkish apologies was examined, it was observed that the strategies differed across different power relations. Participants were found to employ mostly explicit expressions of apologies when they addressed the victim with higher status. In the exchanges of equal status interactants, when the interlocutor is a friend, the most frequently employed strategy was an *acknowledgement of responsibility*, mainly combined with explicit expressions of apologies, and the second popular one was an offer of repair. These two were used significantly higher than the remaining. Similar to Hatipoğlu, Trosborg's (1987) study also revealed differences in British and Danish participants' apologies resulting from the hearer's status. That is, *acknowledgment of responsibility* emerged as the most frequent strategy when the apologies were addressed to the person with authority.

Besides, in some cultures, the social status was found to affect speakers' use of specific strategies rather than their overall apologies. This case is evident in the work of

Olshtain and Cohen (1983, p. 21) who found that American, Hebrew, and Russian informants were more prone to use “I’m terribly sorry” rather than “I’m sorry” when the interlocutor was higher in status.

2.9. Summary

In summary, this chapter has provided a general frame around the field of pragmatics. Firstly, an overview of pragmatic competence and its components have been presented providing an explanation on what aspects of pragmatic competence the present study will focus on. In this sense, speech act theory has been summarized, which is followed by a developmental route children pass through in comprehending and producing speech acts with a specific reference to apology as the main foci of the study. In the following part, as one of the theoretical premise of the study, Politeness theory has been introduced with the related concepts; especially the basic social variables which are significant in determining the pragmatic appropriateness of the linguistic expressions. Connected with this, children’s acquisition of politeness routines and variation in their speech has been examined with theoretical and practical concerns. Lastly, the empirical studies on apology realization patterns in Turkish and children’s apologies in different languages have been presented together with the ones on the effect of such social and contextual factors as gender, social status, type of offence, and severity of the offence on the linguistic choices of the speakers.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.0. Introduction

This chapter introduces the methodological framework of the study. First, the setting and the participants are described. Then the rationale for the data collection tools, development of scenarios, pilot study, and data collection process are explained in detail. Finally, data analysis procedure has been presented with the taxonomy of apology strategies employed to code the present corpus with example statements taken mostly from the data obtained.

3.1. Setting and Participants

The study was conducted during the academic year of 2017-2018 with preschool children at a state preschool in Turkey. This school was chosen via convenience sampling, which is "a nonrandom sampling technique that involves selecting what is immediately available" (Walliman, 2011, p.167). The researcher preferred to conduct the study at this school because of several reasons. First of all, there were nearly 200 children at this school, which made it suitable for the study as it was aimed to reach 100 children. In addition, in unofficial interviews conducted with the administrators of several preschools,the children enrolled at this school were reported to come from families with different educational backgrounds, which would make it possible for the researcher to investigate the effect of parents' level of education on children's manner of apologizing as one of the variables planned to be tested at the beginning of the study.

There are two age groups at the school; the first one is the morning group which comprises of children aged between 4;0 and 4;11, and there are four morning classes each having 25 children. The second one is the afternoon group including children between the ages of 5;0 and 6;0. Similarly, there are four afternoon classes having 25 children in each.

There were totally 8 classes at the preschool and thus, nearly 15 children were chosen randomly from each class by their teachers to participate in the study. Therefore, the participants of the study were 100 children aged between 4;0 and 6;0 who were all monolingual and native speakers of Turkish. They were grouped into two (Group I:

4;0-4;11; Group II: 5;0-6;0) according to their age. The profile of the participants is presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1.

Profile of the Participants

Age Range	N	Mean Age
4;0-4;11	48	4;5
5;0-6;0	52	5;8
Total	100	

As it is apparent in Table 1, there are 48 children in the younger group and 52 in the older one, which makes totally a hundred. While the mean age is 4;5 for the first group, it is 5;8 for the second one. All the participant children, irrespective of age, were then regrouped depending on such social variables as gender, parents' level of education and preschool experience which are the parameters planned to be tested in the study. To put it another way, in order to investigate the potential effect of such independent variables on children's overall manner of apologizing, the informant children were grouped according to these factors. The details are described in Table 2 below:

Table 2.

Overall Profile of Participants Based on Sociolinguistic Variables

Age Range	Gender		Parents' level of education				Preschool experience	
			Mother		Father			
	F	M	Lower	Higher	Lower	Higher	PS exp. (-)	PS exp.(+)
4;0-5;8	51	49	61	39	58	42	59	41
Total	100		100		100		100	

Table 2 illustrates the number of children in each group. Accordingly, the whole corpus consists of 49 male and 51 female children, which indicates that the gender distribution is nearly balanced. Regarding parents' level of education, the analysis of the data collected via demographic information sheet given to the parents demonstrated that their degree of education ranges from primary school to postgraduate. Hence, up to high school level of education was taken as a lower level, and college and the postgraduate degree were labelled as a higher level. Lastly, participant children were also divided

into two groups according to their preschool education as not having or having such an experience, which includes 59 children in the former and 41 in the latter as is clear in the Table.

Prior to the start of the study, the researcher asked for permission from the Ministry of National Education of the province to collect data from the specific preschool in Mersin, Turkey (Appendix 1). After getting the permission, a consent form and a brief description of the data collection procedure were sent to the parents of the children (Appendix 2) and they all signed the form. Upon receiving the consent form, the parents were sent a demographic information form (see Appendix 4) which asks for their level of education, their child's date of birth, and it includes a number of questions about the child's apologetic behaviour at home in order to get deeper insights into the children's responses to the elicitation task.

3.2. The Rationale for the Data Collection Tool

A wide variety of data collection methods have been utilized to measure pragmatic competence in the area of pragmatics research. Kasper (1999) classified them into nine categories: while authentic discourse, elicited conversation, and role-play are described as types of the spoken interaction; production questionnaires (Discourse Completion Tests), multiple-choice, and scaled response instruments are classified as survey methods and require written responses. The other three- interviews, diaries, and think-aloud protocols- are the ones that produce narrative self-reports. Among these, the major instruments adopted in the area of speech act research are DCTs (Discourse Completion Tests), and role plays (Nurani, 2009; Ellis, 2001) although natural data is also a highly recommended one (Felix-Brasdefer, 2010). However, each method of data collection has, naturally, certain strengths and weaknesses in different aspects.

Among the abovementioned tools, DCT is a questionnaire which requires subjects to give written responses to described situations in given scenarios with such details as the setting and the social distance between interlocutors (Bardovi-Harlig&Hartford, 2005). It is a popular method of data elicitation in cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics used in extensive number of research on speech acts since it provides an opportunity to gather large quantities of data in a relatively short period of time compared to the other instruments (Beebe &Cumming, 1996; Kasper & Dahl, 1991).Additionally, in terms of administration facilities, it is considered as the most

advantageous tool in sociolinguistic research (Bllymyer & Varghese, 2000). However, the main criticism directed to this data collection method is that it does not reflect the actual wording used in real interaction and it lacks the features of real conversations like turn-taking and paralinguistic elements (Kasper, 2000). Yet, in spite of these reservations, most researchers in the field of interlanguage pragmatics have utilized this method of data collection using the original or culturally-adapted version of the scenarios in the questionnaire originally developed by Blum-Kulka (1982). This, in turn, makes it possible to establish cultural and linguistic universals by detecting similarities and differences among speakers of different languages in terms of their comprehension and production of the speech act in question. However, as Kasper (2000) points out, it is not always suitable to employ DCTs especially when the subjects are young children orlow proficiency L2 learners since they are not capable of reading and providing written responses.

As an alternative to DCTs, role plays are also one of the most popular data elicitation methods in the area of pragmatics (Aijmer, 1996). Kasper andDahl (1991) claim that in the open role plays, the role of the subjects in the given scenarios are presented before the act-out and participants should negotiate the meaning to reach the conversational outcomes. According to them, open role plays are advantageous in that it is possible to examine the speech act behavior in its full discourse context. This method of elicitation can be highly effective for teenage or adult participants. However, very young children, like the participants of the present study, may have some difficulties in role-taking, feel uneasy and be afraid of making mistakes, which results in very few or no instances of the speech act in question. In addition, as Olshtain and Cohen (1984, p.47) state, “role-play forces the subjects to take on a role they would not assume in real life, or they may not be good actors, then it elicits an unnatural behavior”.

Alternatively, observatory methods have been suggested by some researchers (Holmes, 1990; Rose, 1994) as the obtained data is representative of the language used in natural settings. However, although natural data has the advantage of reflecting the real performance of speakers for theinvestigated speech act with the details of the action, location, and the social setting, it has some drawbacks which make collecting such kind of data less possible. For instance, many researchers (Kasper&Dahl, 1991) have pointed out that naturalistic data does not give the researcher the chance to control contextual variables. Equally important, it is not always possible to get a sufficient example of the particular speech with ethnographic observation since it is not always

certain that the speech act under study will emerge throughout the observation. That's why authentic data has emerged to be one of the least employed methods in the area of pragmatics (Kasper& Dahl, 1991).

This is especially the case for the speech act of apology produced by young children. Relying on the revision of the existing literature on young children's apologies, Schleien et al. (2010) assert that the studies (e.g., Killen&Turiel, 1984; Sackin&Thelen, 1984) which scrutinized preschool children's reconciliation behaviors following conflicts reported very low instances of apologies (e.g., only 10 instances of apologies in 886 conflicts among preschool children in Ljungberg et al., 2005). This infrequent existence in naturalistic data does, possibly, not provide a researcher with a sound arena to draw generalizable conclusions about the nature of apologies. More precisely, even long hours of observation may not yield a reasonable language sample that makes a thorough investigation of apologies possible. Hence, to date, children's apologies have been studied mainly by using experimental methodologies (Kampf & Blum-Kulka, 2007) with hypothetical scenarios (Schleien et al.,2010).

As aforesaid, since questionnaires that require written responses from participants may not be suitable for all the subjects, in order to uncover very young children's production of speech acts, Kasper (2000) suggests using the Cartoon Oral Production Task (COPT) developed by Rose (2000) to elicit requests, apologies, and compliment responses of three age groups(7, 9 and 11) of primary school EFL students in Hong Kong in two languages: English and Cantonese. This instrument comprises a series of cartoons and a familiar scenario is depicted in each cartoon. The scenarios were explained to each child individually by the research assistants to elicit the communicative acts (namely requests, apologies, and compliment responses). Then they were asked what they would say in this situation. The responses were tape-recorded for subsequent transcribing and analysis.

Although the data gathered through this instrument are not interactive and do not reflect what children say in similar situations in real life, they provide knowledge about children's possible way of using speech acts in face-to-face interactions. As pointed out by Salgado (2011), by using such kind of experimental instrument, we are able to analyze the preferences of apology strategies produced by two groups of children at different ages when they respond to the same situation. In addition, this instrument does not require children to read or fill in a questionnaire, which is, naturally, impossible for

this age group. That is, it provides an opportunity to elicit oral responses rather than written ones.

Taking into account the abovementioned details on the advantages and drawbacks of various data collection methods in the field of pragmatics and the age of the participants in the present study, who cannot either read or write, it was decided to utilize Oral Discourse Completion Task (ODCT) accompanied by pictures related to scenarios similar to Rose's (2000) COPT. Secondly,as stated in the previous chapters, one of the aims of the study is to investigate the effect of such contextual parameters as the severity of the offence on children's apology productions. In this respect, DCTs are regarded as suitable data collection tools since, as Kasper (2000, p.329) argues, they provide information" … about speakers' pragmalinguistic knowledge of thestrategies and linguistic forms by which communicative acts can be implemented, and about their sociopragmatic knowledge of the context factors under which particular strategic and linguistic choices are appropriate".

The scenarios were designed in the form of open DCTs in which a situation was described and participants were asked for their response in spoken form. The scenario construction process is explicated in the following section.

3.2.1. Development of the Scenarios

The content of the scenarios in any of the elicitation tasks, either production questionnaires or the ones that require spoken responses, plays a crucial role in that the details of situations in the given scenarios have a potential to affect the participants' strategy choices of the speech act in question. However, as stated by Rose (2009), the scenarios in the questionnaires employed in pragmatic research have mostly been the product of the researchers' imagination. Instead, he suggests using a form of exemplary generation in which one or two examples of the speech act under study are presented and administered to different groups of students or learners who are similar to the target population. Next, they are asked to think of and report other possible situations for the target speech act. Following this, another group of learners or students, who are not the participants of the study, evaluate them for likelihood, relevance, and context variables.

Since the participants of the present study are very young children, it was, undoubtedly, not possible for the researcher to ask children at this age group to write example situations that require the speech act of apology as a response. However, this

method of scenario generation provided a basis to the researcher for taking similar steps in designing scenarios.

As the first step, the researcher scanned the relevant literature for the characteristics of preschool children and research on preschool children's conflicts to obtain a scenario pool to design situations that are similar to the ones children encounter in their daily lives. The scenarios in the DCTs used in the studies aiming to investigate apology strategies of teenage or adult subjects were kept out of search, since such situations as bumping into a lady, a student's borrowing her professor's book, or a university professor's not keeping his promise to return the term paper of a student are not prevalent in child discourse. More specifically, the researcher examined the studies on children's apologies investigated with naturalistic data, despite not common, in order to determine the offence situations in which they offer apologies within real-life settings.

Researchindicates that preschool children are highly energetic, enjoy playing games and with toys. In addition, verbal or physical aggression accompanied by crying or anger, object and territorial disputes emerged as the most potential causes of conflicts among the preschool-aged children(Sackin&Thelen, 1984; Laursen&Hartup, 1989).In one of the few studies with naturalistic data on the speech act of apology, Schleien et al. (2009, p. 175) examined the findings from many hours of observation of siblings when they were younger (children: 3;6-4;9; siblings: 1;9-2;6) and older (children: 5;4-7;0; siblings: 3;8-4;8), which included over 3500 sibling fights. For coding the data, they classified transgressionsoccurred throughout the observation as physical harm, verbal harm, and right violations providing example behaviors for each as described below:

Physical harm includes slapping, punching, pushing, biting, kicking, throwing something at someone, or poking at someone with something.

Right violations include such offences as infringed on another person's property or possession of an itemor activity, taking an item away from a sibling, tugging an item away, withdrawing an item so that it couldn't be used by someone else, refusing to relinquish property that belongs to the other, harming someone else's property or excluding another from play.

Verbal harm includes teasing, threatening, shouting, reprimanding, or insulting.

The examination of the relevant literature mostly in the field of social psychology also revealed that these types of offence were the main cause of conflicts among children. Therefore, it was decided to design scenarios depending on Schleien et

al.'s (2010) classification of transgression types. The scenarios were developed taking into account the example behaviors in the offence categories and manipulated depending on such contextual variables as *interlocutor's social status*, *type of offence*, and *severity of the offence*, which have been regarded as key parameters that determine subjects' apology realisation patterns(Olshtain, 1989; Holmes, 1990; Rose, 2000; Byon, 2004; Salgado, 2011). The severity of the offence and power were treated as binary-valued: either high [H], or low [L] for severity of the offence, and either status equal [=], or hearer-dominant [H] for power since it is not much common for a child to experience a situation in his/her daily life in which he/she is required to apologize to someone who is inferior to him in terms of power.

For a similar reason, *Distance* was not taken as a variable as the incidents in the scenarios should be experienced between the participant child and one of his/her friends in class. More precisely, children may not find it realistic when we include such a scenario which says: "imagine that you are playing with a child from another class that you do not know well". It is not a familiar situation for them since they spend the whole schooltime with their classmates rather than the ones from other classes. This also holds true for child-teacher scenarios; since the teacher regularly teaches them, they are always together and know each other well, which means that there is no distance between the children and the teacher.

These three variables (severity of the offence, type of offence, and social status) resulted in twelve possible offence scenarios: four scenarios were developed for each type of offence(physical harm, verbal harm, and right violations): two scenarios for child-child interactions and two for child-teacher. For instance, in the category of physical harm, there were two scenarios for child-child interaction (status equal [=]); in one of them the severity of the offence was high [H], and the same scenario was presented with a low [L] degree of harm in the other thanks to small modifications.

In the third phase, the researcher put these scenarios on a separate assessment scale as suggested by Rose (2009). However, different from Rose, instead of children, as they cannot read or write, 18 teachers working at different preschools were asked to assess the scenarios for the likelihood of occurrence, relevance, and context variables. They were asked to perform two actions: (1) mark the given scenarios as either High or Low in terms of severity of the offence, and (2) indicate their likelihood of occurrence in a typical preschool classroom on a Likert Scale (Appendices 6 and 8). After that, the responses of those teachers were entered into the Excell and the scenarios with the

highest mean values were chosen to be included in the ODCT while the ones with the lowest mean values were excluded.

Accordingly, only one of the scenarios that depict the offences in child-child interaction was found irrelevant by the teachers. However, all the six scenarios on child-teacher offences were reported as situations that do not potentially occur in preschool classrooms, such as a child's teasing his/her teacher's hair or shouting at him/her. Thus, new offence scenarios for child-teacher interactions were designed on the basis of the example offence situations reported by 18 teachers in the open-ended section of the questionnaire which asks for other potential conflicts they have observed throughout their teaching experiences.

Another point realized as a result of the analysis of the Scenario Assessment Questionnaire was that it would be better not to include type of offence as a variable in the scenarios of child-teacher interactions since, according to teachers' reports in open-ended section of the scale, children's offences were limited to such situations in which a child imitates his/her teacher's speech, begins to talk without permission while the teacher is talking or gets cross with the teacher when he/she does not choose him/her but one of his/her friends for talking about a topic in the middle of storytelling in an ask-question activity. Simply put, a child's shouting at his/her teacher, teasing him/her, tearing his/her book or making fun of him/her were not stated as prevalent offences that children committed against their teacher in preschool classrooms as predicted by the researcher. Thus, getting suggestions from the supervisor and the thesis committee, the researcher decided not to take the type of offence as a variable for child-teacher offences. Thus, child-teacher offences were only used to test the effect of social status.

The resulting version of ODCT contains totally twelve scenarios; six offence situations in child-child interactions; and two for child-teacher ones. There were also four distractor scenarios, designed as controls used to distract children's attention from the speech act in question. At the same time, distractors help to prevent children from providing routinized responses because of gaining familiarity with the task itself. The number of the distractors was two at the beginning, yet it was observed in the pilot study (see next section)that this number would not be sufficient to distract their attention from the topic. It was considered that it would be better to present one distractor following every two scenarios. Thus, there were three distractors for child-child offence scenarios and one for child-teacher offences. The variables around which

the scenarios were developed and manipulated are presented with a brief description of the situations in Table 3 below:

Table 3.

Distribution of Contextual Variables of the Scenarios Employed in the Study

Situation	**Type of Offence**	**The severity of the Offence**	**Power**
1. The child slaps his/her friend	Physical Harm	High	Child=Child
2. The child pushes his/her friend	Physical Harm	Low	Child=Child
3. The child mocks his/her friend	Verbal Harm	High	Child=Child
4. The child shouts at his/her friend	Verbal Harm	Low	Child=Child
5. The child breaks his/her friend's toy	Right violations	High	Child=Child
6.The child scratches his/her friend's drawing	Right violations	Low	Child=Child
7. The child imitates his/her teacher	--	--	Child<Teacher
8.The child gets cross with his/her teacher	--	--	Child<Teacher

As shown in table 3, the situations included in the ODCT were gathered under three offence type categories as obtained by Schleien et al. (2010) in their naturalistic data. Accordingly, two scenarios were developed for each type of offence; one with low severity and one with high, which was made possible by making slight modifications in the content of the scenarios. For instance, in one of the apology scenario with physical harm, while two children are playing a game, one of them gets angry with the other and slaps his/her friend; whereas in the other, the child gets angry and pushes his/her friend in a game. Similarly, while one of the scenarios of verbal harms with a high degree of offence depicts a child who mocks his/her friend and doesn't let him play with them, in the other with a low degree of harm, the child shouts at his/her friend while they are playing a game. In addition, as aforesaid, type and severity of the offence were not taken as variables in child-teacher offences. The only parameter that was investigated was the effect of power. The scenarios in this category include situations in which the participant child imitates his/her teacher while he/she is teaching something in class or the child gets cross with his teacher since he/she chooses not him but another child to answer a question in an activity (see Appendix 10 for the scenarios).

Furthermore, at least three cartoon-style pictures were prepared for each scenario in order to help the children better understand the situations, interpret them more

easily,and visualize them in their minds as suggested by Cohen (2004). Additionally, the characters in each story were matched to the participant child's sex. In other words, the gender of the addressee was not taken as a variable. That is, the scenarios are experienced in same-sex dyads. In addition, as the physical setting can have an effect on the perception of the seriousness of an offence (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984), the setting for each situation was the same; namely children's classroom in the preschool and the offences committed by the children always result in the addressee's (the child's best friend or classmate) crying or feeling very upset/unhappy. In other words, the addressee's feelings were kept constant, since they can affect the transgressor's apologetic behavior (Smith et al., 2010).

3.3. Pilot Study and the Modifications to the Instrument

A pilot study was carried out as a preliminary analysis before the main study in order to ensure that the scenarios, pictures, wording, and the format are suitable to the age of the participants and the scenarios are understandable enough for children to produce the desired speech act. To put it simply, the aim of the piloting was to assess how productive informants could be to the given scenarios and predict the potential problems that can be encountered before the actual implementation and make necessary modifications accordingly.

There were 10 Turkish speaking children in the pilot study who were not included as participants in the main study. They had similar characteristics to the actual population of the study. Six of them were female and four were male, aged between 4;0 and 5;6. All of the participants were attending the same preschool, but they were from different classes. There were eight apology scenarios and 2 distracters. Distracters were the situations that require a suggestion and a request. The children weren't provided with any examples before showing them the pictures. There was only a brief warm-up related to the scenario.

For instance, the researcher asked questions to the participant child before presenting the scenario on verbal harm in which a child doesn't let his/her friend play with them and tease him/her. The warm-up questions were as follows: "Do you like playing games?Ok, do you and your friends play games as a group?Which games?" "*Sen oyun oynamayı sever misin?Peki böyle grup halinde yani birkaç kişiyle oyun oynar mısınız?Hangi oyunları?*". After that, the researcher narrated the scenario by

showing the pictures; each including one part of the situation depicted, and asked the child what he/she would say in that situation.

According to the researcher's observation during the implementation and children's feedbacks, the scenarios were clear enough to obtain expected answers. That is, there weren't any questions related to the scenarios and the participant children did not express any misunderstandings during or after the implementation. However, the researcher sometimes experienced some difficulties in eliciting data from the participants. For instance, some of the children said "I don't do / I don't say such kind of things to my friends" and they did not provide a response. In such cases, the researcher said "sometimes we all commit offences although we do not want to do" or "I know, you don't but imagine that you did" to elicit the required data. For this reason, it was noted that it would be better to use such statements when encountered with a similar reaction from children in the actual study. Additionally, it was observed that two distractors were not sufficient for getting children's attention out of the research topic and preventing them from giving routinized or formulaic apology patterns.

When we evaluated the overall procedure of the pilot study, it appeared that some modifications needed to be done in the actual study. First, it would be better to include a higher number of distracters, since the children weren't observed to modify their responses taking such variables as the type of offence or the severity of the offence into consideration as the offence situations overlapped. Therefore, for the main study, the researcher decided to add two more distracters that require the speech acts of thanking and suggestion as a response. That is, there will be one distractor following each two apology scenarios. Additionally, some of the pictures were changed, since they seemed to be misleading for children as in two of them the two boys or two girls are hitting each other although in the scenario it is said: "you hit your friend". Besides, another setback the researcher experienced was that asking children to respond to 10 scenarios in one session would, most probably, be boring for them as their attention is easily distracted causing them to provide similar responses. Thus, it would be better to carry out the main study in two sessions. Accordingly, the scenarios of child-child interactions were implemented first and the scenarios depicting child-teacher offences were presented to respondents two weeks later.

3.4. Data Collection Procedure

To gather the data, each child was presented six scenarios and three distractors for child-child offences in the first session, and two scenarios with one distractor for child-teacher offences in the second session. The distractors were the situations that require children to produce the speech acts of suggestion, refusal, thanking, and request. The researcher worked with each child one by one taking them individually from the classrooms to a quiet allocated room in the preschool, which has been reserved for meetings with children's parents. The room was not very large and there were two armchairs, one table, and one chair. As stated by the administrators, children, most of the time, accompany their parents when they are talking with the teachers about their children's activities, problems, or any other issues. Therefore, the participant children were familiar with the room. During the data collection, the necessary precautions were taken to avoid stating the object of the research, since this could have pre-conditioned the outcomes of the study. To be more precise, participant children might think that they were being tested so they may get stressed and be afraid to give wrong answers. Thus, they were told that they would look at some pictures and hear stories about them.

The situations in the scenarios were presented with at least three pictures, each narrating one part. At the end of each scenario, the child committed either a serious or a minor offence which required him/her to apologize to his/her friend or teacher. The scenarios were clearly described to each child by the researcher paying extra attention to using the same tone of voice and intonation. The social and contextual information such as the setting, the relationship between the participant child and the other child, the offence he/she commits, and the result of the offence are stressed when reporting the situations to the informants since these factors have an influential role in speakers' choices of apology strategies as stated in the related literature. Each child heard the same questions following each scenario. The elicitation questions were as follows: "What should you do in this situation? What should you say? How do you do this? and What do you say to him/her? What else would you say?". In addition, each child was allocated the same duration of time following the researcher's questions and if they were silent after the questions, it was supposed that they did not fully understand the scenario and it was repeated in a more clear way. The conversation between the researcher and the participant child was recorded via mobile phone. It was operated by the researcher one or two minutes before the data collection started and in order to help the children

feel more comfortable, this gadget was placed on the shelf in the room. By this way, they did not notice that they were being recorded, which helped them to behave naturally.

The process always began with a brief warm-up in which the researcher met children by saying her name and asking for theirs in addition to the names of their classes and their age. The aim was to prevent them from thinking that they were in a test. In this way, they would feel that they were making a conversation with the researcher. Following this, the researcher asked them whether they loved to look at pictures and then when they said "yes", she started to show the pictures and describe the situations in the scenarios. An example procedure is presented below:

Researcher: *Benim adım Özge, senin adın ne?Kaç yaşındasın? Hangi sınıftasın?Resimlere bakmayı sever misin?Şimdi seninle beraber birkaç resim bakacağız tamam mı? Sen oyun oynamayı sever misin?Peki böyle grup halinde yani birkaç kişiyle oyun oynar mısınız?Hangi oyunları?Şimdi düşünelim ki sen bir oyun grubu kuruyorsun bu resimdeki gibi, yani 3-4 kişi seçiyorsun beraber oyun oynamak için. Tam bu grubu seçerken de bir arkadaşına "sen bizimle oynama" diyorsun ve onunla dalga geçiyorsun. Arkadaşın da bu duruma üzülüyor ve ağlıyor. Peki bu durumda ne yapman gerekir? Ona ne söylemen gerekir?Bunu nasıl söylersin?* "My name is Özge, what is your name? How old are you? Which class are you in?Do you like looking at pictures?Now we will look at some pictures together, ok?Do you like playing games?Ok, do you and your friends play games as a group?Which games?Now, imagine that you are setting up a playgroup like in this picture. That is, you are choosing three-four people to play together. While you are doing this, you point at one of your friends and you say to him/her "you don't play with us" and you make fun of him/her. Your friend becomes unhappy and cries."What should you do in this situation? What should you say? How do you do this? and What do you say to him/her?"
(verbal harm, social status [=], the severity of the offence [H])

The scenarios were presented to each child in the same order to eliminate any effects that will stem from different ordering. The data collection process lasted for approximately fifteen minutes with each child for the first session (child-child offences) and 5 minutes for the second one (child-teacher offences), which made approximately twenty minutes in total. Thewhole data collection process lasted for one and a half months with the researcher's everyday presence at the preschool.

3.5. Materials

The materials were eight scenarios which require children's apologizing and four distractors that present situations for which children need to produce such speech acts as suggestion, refusal, thanking, and request. All the pictures in the scenarios and distractors were obtained from google images entering keywords related to each situation depicted in the scenarios. They were taken from various websites such as www.*dreamstime.com*, and www.*shutterstock.com*. The picturesutilized in the study were chosen among the ones which were royalty free. They were then printed on special thick papers in a way that they would have colorful cartoon style in order to arouse children's interest. Example pictures are presented below:



Figure 4. Pictures of scenario 1 for male participants

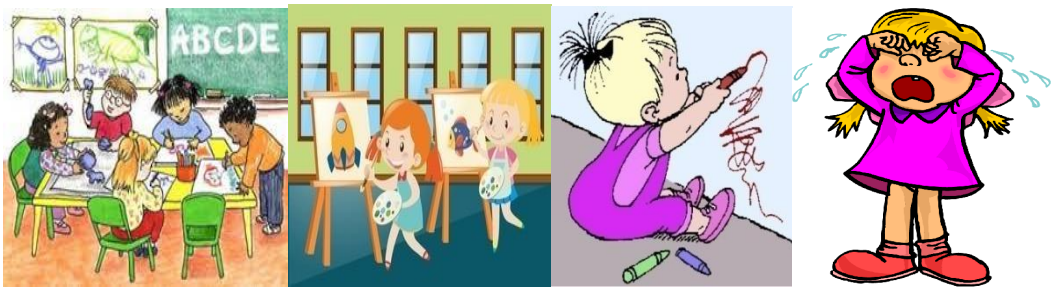


Figure 5. Pictures of scenario 6 for female participants

As is clear in figures, each picture was used to depict one part of each situation. In other words, each illustrated one main component of the story. For instance, the first picture in Figure 1 was shown to the participant child while saying "you get on well with your friend, X" and the second one was presented to tell "one day you were playing together like these children in the picture". The scenario continued with the third picture which narrated "suddenly, you got angry and slapped him" and the last picture was used to tell the end of the scenario, namely: "and he started to cry".

Moreover, as can be tracked in Figures 1 and 2, two files of pictures were prepared; one was for female participants and the other for male ones since transgressions in the scenarios occurred between females when the participant child was female, and they occurred between males if they were reported to a male participant. The figures below illustrate the sequence of pictures and scenarios more clearly:

Slapping story (male)

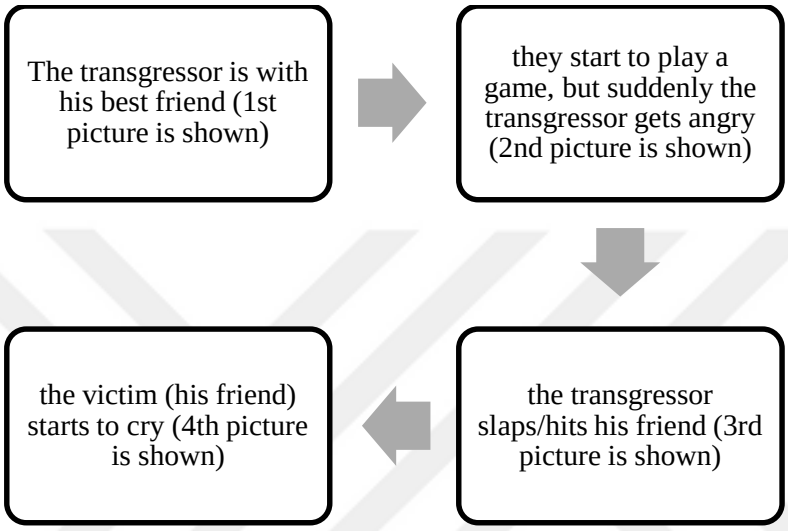


Figure 6. Outline of the slapping scenario

Scratching story (female)

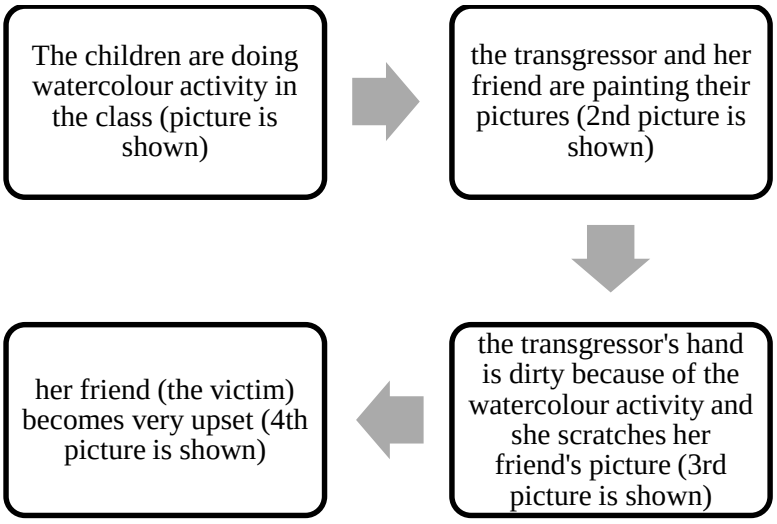


Figure 7. Outline of the scratching scenario

3.6. Data Analysis

After the data collection process was completed thoroughly, the tape-recorded data were transcribed by the researcher using standard orthography. The transcription work lasted approximately for two months. As the next step, the categories of apology strategies offered or utilized by the researchers in the related field were examined to accommodate all the semantic formulas emerged in the corpus (see Section 2.7.1 for details). The final version of the coding taxonomy adapted mainly from Olshtain and Cohen (1983) (see Chapter III for more details) was prepared and then sent to a Ph.D. candidate who was also writing her thesis on the use of apologies in Turkish, which means that she already had knowledge about the classifications of apology strategies. Thus, she was given two pieces of data: both coded and not coded; and asked to do two things: At first, she would examine the validity of our coding and then she, herself, would code a piece of data provided to her using the taxonomy that was chosen to be utilized for the study. By this way, the validity of the coding manual and reliability of the main coder would be ensured. As a result, a complete agreement was achieved for coding. The main and sub-strategies included in the taxonomy are presented with the examples taken mostly from the data, which are illustrated in Table 4 at the end of the section.

The apologies elicited through ODCT were analyzed as consisting of a sequence of semantic formulas as well as single strategies in order to explore the complexity of children's apology strategy patterns, which was examined in terms of the combination patterns of strategies and the total number of strategies employed (see Appendix 12 for sample coding). Accordingly, for single strategies, all the main and sub-strategies included in the taxonomy were given numbers ranging from 1 to 22. Secondly, the transcribed corpus was investigated and all the strategy combinations produced were specified and written on a separate sheet. As a result, the corpus yielded two- and three-strategy combinations including combination categories produced with both main and sub-strategies. These categories were given numbers as well starting from 23. An example coding is described below:

Extract 1: Verbal Harm/ Low severity/ Friend

CH63: Üzgünüm.

[An Expression of Regret] [2]

I'm sorry.

Extract 2: Verbal Harm/ High severity/ Friend

CH82: Özür dilerim. Kazayla yaptım.

[Offer of Apology+Lack of Intent] [34]

I apologize. I did it by mistake

Extract 3: Right Violation/ High severity/ Friend

CH81: Özür dilerim. Bir daha yapmayacağım. İstersen tamir edebilirim.

[Offer of Apology+A Promise of Forbearance+Offer of Repair] [55]

I apologize. I won't do this again. I can repair it if you like.

Here, in the first example, the child responded to an offence situation by using a single strategy; namely *an expression of regret*, and it was coded with number 2. On the other hand, in the second example, there was a preference for employing a two-strategy combination by combining *anoffer of apology* with *an expression of lack of intent*, which was coded with the number 34. Finally, the last extract presents an example of three-strategy combination, which was given the number 55 while coding the data into categories.

Following the enumerating, the transcribed strategies were coded based on these numbers and they were entered into SPSS in order to find out how frequently the single, two- and three-strategies were used by the participant children and which strategies or strategy combinations were preferred more frequently. In addition,in order to examine whether the difference in frequencies was statistically significant, the log-likelihood (LL) test was performed. Besides, an additional reason to use this test was to normalize the data. That is, since the number of the participants in each age group and also in each variable group (gender, preschool education, etc.) was not equal, we needed to handle the data in a single data outline. This test is used to measure statistical significance, which is similar to the Pearsons' Chi-square measure in this respect. The LL test is generally used in corpus analysis, for instance for collocations, and considered as a reliable alternative to the Pearsons' Chi-square in the statistical analysis of texts (Dunning, 1993). In this test, word frequencies are regarded as weighted over two different corpora and the obtained LL value is similar to the p-value obtained through Pearsons' Chi-square (McEnery, Xiao, & Tono, 2006).The following Table illustrates the taxonomy utilized in the study.

Table 4.

Taxonomy of Apology Strategies

Strategies	**Example**
A. Explicit Expression of Apology/Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices (IFIDs)	
1. an offer of apology	I apologize. / I apologize for shouting at you. *Özür dilerim. / Sana bağırdığım için özür dilerim.*
2. An expression of regret	I'm sorry / I felt sorry *Üzgünüm / Üzüldüm*
3. A request for forgiveness	Excuse me. / Forgive me. *Afedersin. / Beni affet.*
*B. Intensification within an offer of apology	
1. with adverbials	I am very sorry. *Çok özür dilerim*.
C. An explanation or account	I didn't know that it was yours. *Senin olduğunu bilmiyordum.*
D. An Acknowledgement of Responsibility	
1. Accepting the blame	I wish I hadn't mock on you and shout at you/ I admit that I pushed you. *Keşke seninle dalga geçmeseydim, sana bağırmasaydım./İttiğimi kabul ediyorum*.
2. Expressing self-deficiency	Unutmuşum. *I had forgotten about it.*
3. Justifying the hearer	[1]You are right to be angry/Kızmaya hakkın var[1]
4. Expressing a lack of intent	It happened unintentionally./I didn't want to do that. *İstemeden oldu./ Böyle yapmak istememiştim*.
5. Concern for the hearer	Get well soon / *Geçmiş olsun*
**E. An offer of repair	
1. direct	I will draw you a new picture. *Sana yeni bir resim yaparım.*
2. indirect	Let's play a game instead. *Onun yerine oyun oynayalım*.
F. A promise of forbearance	I promise I won't do this again/I will be careful about my mistakes. *Bir daha yapmayacağım söz/Hatalarıma dikkat ederim*
G. ***No Apology	
1. Blaming others	We won't let them break it. (for the toy) *Kırmalarına izin vermeyeceğiz.*
2. Downgraders and self-defense	Don't worry! *Üzülme!*
3. Minimizing the degree of offence	*Bir şey olmaz.*
4. Denial of fault	[2] It isn't my fault that it fell down *Onun düşmesi benim hatam değil*
6. Expression of Indifference	[3] I don't care/I don't think so *Umrumda değil / Ben öyle düşünmüyorum*
H. Others	
****1. Alerter	My teacher/My friend *Öğretmenim /Arkadaşım*
*****2. Softeners	I love you too much./My dear friend *Seni çok seviyorum./ Canım arkadaşım*

*taken from Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984)
**classified into two sub-categories by the researcher
*** taken from Karsan (2005)
****taken from Chang (2016)
*****new category added by the researcher

[1]These examples are taken from different taxonomies used in studies conducted in Turkish.

As a detailed explanation on the content of the main strategies included in the taxonomy has been presented in Chapter II, providing only a brief clarification on the analysis of certain strategies would be more suitable to make the coding procedure more clear. To begin with, the initial categorization of the data in the present study indicated a necessity to add three categories and modify the category of *offer of repair*. The first category added to the scheme was labeled as "Alerter", formed with such phrases as "my friend" or "my teacher". This category has been included by Chang (2016) in her study on children's apologies. In the present study, *alerters* were observed to be used with another strategy rather than as standalone, which was not unexpected. They were added to the other categories being employed either at the beginning or at the end. For instance, it was used with *an offer of apology* in the end like in the example "I apologize my friend" or at the beginning: "My friend, I promise I won't do this again". On the other hand, "softeners", which was a new category emerged in this study, could be used alone if it was in the form of "I love you too much" and thus was coded separately. However, the same did not hold true in the case of "my dear friend".

Another new category included in the scheme was *intensified IFID*, which is "… used for aggravating the influence and over representing the reality" (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984, p. 25). This category is also available in many other studies on apologies (e.g., Afgari, 2007; Nureddeen, 2008; Hatipoğlu, 2003). In our data, intensifiers are only actualized internal to the sub-category *offer of apology* with adverbials like "çok"(very)rather than with repetitions "çok çok"(very very). Finally, the category*offer of repair* was classified as consisting of two sub-categories as direct and indirect since some of the repairs in the current study were found to be expressed implicitly. Similarly, Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) also distinguish between "specified" or "unspecified" repairs in their taxonomy taking into account the way the compensation has been expressed.

3.7. Summary

In this chapter, the general framework of the study has been presented with a detailed description of the setting, participants, data collection instrument, and the pilot study. In addition, the taxonomy employed to identify the apology strategies emerged in the present corpus has been provided with example statements obtained from the data for each category. The following chapter is devoted to the findings of the data analysis.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.0. Introduction

The goal of this chapter is to present the analysis of the findings of the present study which was conducted to investigate the pragmalinguistic and socio-pragmatic skills of 100 preschool-aged children with regard to their apology realization patterns. The results presented in this chapter are based on the analysis of the responses provided for eight offence situations that occur in child-child and child-teacher interactions. The data collected through ODCT were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The descriptive statistics executed by SPSS will be presented with example extracts taken from the data.

The chapter is made up of five sections, which are organized with reference to the order of research questions. In the first section, the results of the analysis regarding the metapragmatic knowledge of children related to the use of apologizing are presented. The next section includes the characteristics of the two age groups of children's realization patterns with a comparative perspective in order to track possible developmental trends related to the strategy types and complexity of patterns with increasing age. Following this, the overall data will be searched for the potential effects of such sociolinguistic variables as gender, parents' level of education, and preschool experience on children's linguistic choices in three dimensions: complexity, variety, and types of strategies. Finally, the total productions of the two age groups will be analyzed to explore the range of children's sociopragmatic skills evidenced by their sensitivity to such contextual factors as the type of offence, the severity of the offence, and interlocutor's social status.

4.1. Metapragmatic Knowledge Related to the Speech Act of Apologizing

In order to explore the metapragmatic awareness of participant children in terms of the use of language for apologizing, after presenting each scenario the researcher firstly asked "what should you do in this situation? what should you say?" before receiving their apology productions. The purpose here was to test their knowledge related to the correct speech act that they needed to use for the given situation. To put it

simply, an effort was made to investigate whether they would display the knowledge that offence situations require using the speech act of apology.

There were eight apology scenarios which made totally 800 responses; 384 belongs to the first group of children aged between 4;0 and 4;11, and 416 to the second group consisting of children whose age range is between 5;0 and 6;0. The initial qualitative analysis indicated that the responses provided for the abovementioned question of the researcher were in the form of "özür dilemem gerek" (I need to apologize) or "özür dilemek gerek" (Apologizing is necessary). The results are presented in the table for both age groups with the percentages.

Table 5.

Distribution of Responses related to Metapragmatic Knowledge of Apologies

Responses	**4;0-4;11 (n=48)**		**5;0-6;0 (n=52)**	
	f	**%**	**f**	**%**
I need to apologize / Apologizing is necessary	384	100	416	100

As illustrated in Table 5, all the children in both age groups display an awareness of the necessity of using apologies for the offence situations provided in the scenarios. Additionally, it was observed in the analysis that they also provided correct responses for the distracters which require using thanks, request, and suggestion by expressing such statements as "I need to thank my friend". Thus, it appears that children could distinguish among situations that necessitate using different speech acts. This finding provides support for the claim that children at this age display having the knowledge that apologizing has the function of redressing the action and repairing the damaged relationships due to the violation of social norms.

4.2. Analysis of the Characteristics of Children's Realisation Patterns of Apologies

As aforesaid in the methodology section, the initial categorization of apology strategies was actualized on an Excel sheet by relying on the taxonomy chosen for the study, which was followed by descriptive statistics as well as log-likelihood tests in order to detect the frequencies of use and significance values. In order to explore possible developmental changes in children's manner of apologizing, the productions of

the two age groups were evaluated in terms of the complexity of patterns which were treated in two dimensions: usage of single strategies and multiple strategies, which were divided into two as two- and three-strategy combinations. Furthermore, variety and types of strategies utilized by the two groups were also investigated to uncover any potential expansion in their repertoire of linguistic forms used for apologizing with increasing age. The table below displays the total production with frequencies and log-likelihood significance values.

Table 6.

Observed Frequenciesand LL Ratios of Total Strategies across the Two Age Groups

Complexity of Patterns	**(4;0-4;11) f (O1)**	**(5;0-6;0) f (O2)**	**Total f**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Single Strategy	157	129	286	5,44	**+0,020**
Two-strategy Combinations	194	247	441	2,85	-0,091
Three-strategy Combinations	33	40	73	0,23	-0,632
Total	**384**	**416**	**800**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

As can be inferred from Table 6, since the first age group comprises 48 children (25 female and 23 male), the total instance of strategies produced is 384. On the other hand, the total amount of apology instances is 416 for the second age group, which consists of 52 children (26 female and 26 male). When the frequencies of usage are examined, it is apparent that respondents in both age groups exhibited similar patterns as they preferred to combine two strategies in their responses to offence situations more than using single or three-strategy combinations. However, the use of single strategies was significantly higher in the younger group ($p<.05$). Thus, it appears that children's apologies become more elaborate with increasing age as standalone usage was replaced by two or three-strategy combinations as children get older although the difference was not statistically significant. To be more specific, it can be observed that reliance on single strategy use indicated a decrease with an increase in age. This may be associated with the developments in children's perception and linguistic skills over the years.

After having detected the complexity of patterns children produced, further analysis was conducted to uncover the types of single/basic strategies, which is illustrated in the Table below.

Table 7.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Basic Apology Strategies across the Two Age Groups

Strategy Type	**(4;0-4;11) f (O1)**	**(5;0-6;0) f (O2)**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Of. Ap.	100	70	1,07	+0,302
Of. Ap. with Alerter	18	9	1,55	+0,213
A Promise	11	13	0,79	-0,374
Intensified Of. Ap.	8	8	0,15	0,695
Forgiveness	7	--	--	--
Repair	7	14	3,96	-0,047
Accepting the Blame	1	1	0,02	-0,890
Expressing Lack of Intent	1	--	--	--
Repair with Alerter	1	--	--	--
Promise with Alerter	1	4	2,56	-0,109
Minimizing	1	--	--	--
Concern for the Hearer	1	--	--	--
An Expression of Regret	--	8	--	--
Repair (Indirect)	--	1	--	--
An Explanation	--	1	--	--
Total	157	129		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

Based on the data displayed in Table 7, it is clearly seen that the age groups exhibited a similar pattern in terms of the variety they incorporated into the strategies they utilized. On the other hand, the sequence of the most preferred strategies was similar for both groups. Accordingly, in both age groups, as one of the sub-categories of IFIDs, an offer of apology had a dominant usage among the others in the list and also among the other sub-categories; namely *a request for forgiveness* and *an expression of regret*. The preference for the strategy showed a decrease in percentage with age, which may imply that the most direct form of apology lends itself to a more indirect way with increasing age as children's repertoire is flourished with different strategies. The same holds true for the use of apologies with *alerters*, which is higher in the younger group.

Moreover, while the younger group showed a marked tendency to use *a request for forgiveness* in the form of "afedersin" (excuse me) as an alternative to the routinized form of apology, the older group were more prone to use expression of regret "üzgünüm" (I'm sorry).Giving promises following the offence to assure the offended party that the action would not be repeated again had a predominant usage in both groups as well, with a slightly higher rate in the older group. Overall, it's apparent from the table that children's productions were shaped around certain strategies. For instance, providing explanations or *minimizing the degree of the offence* did not emerge as prevalent strategies in either group.The only evidence that may imply the expansion in strategies is the use of *an expression of regret* only by the older group. Other than this, the results do not lend much support to point at expansion in children's repertoire of strategies in terms of basic strategies with increasing age.

Extract 4: Physical harm/ High severity/ Friend

CH12: Özür Dilerim. [Of. Ap.]

I apologize.

CH14: Sana vurduğum için özür dilerim. [Of. Ap.]

I apologize for hitting you.

Examining the extracts above, one can notice that children use an offer of apology in various ways; either with the formulaic phrase "özür dilerim" (I apologize) or they provide the reason of their apologies at the same time. When the qualitative data related to the use of *a request for forgiveness* were analyzed, it was found that children expressed their forgiveness by such lexical items as "afedersin" (excuse me) or "beni affet" (forgive me). Alternative forms of expressing apology like "kusura bakma (Ibeg your pardon) or "pardon" (pardon) did not exist in the corpus of both age groups. One example usage is illustrated in the extract below:

Extract 5: Verbal harm/ Low severity/ Friend

CH10: Bağırdığımiçin beni affet. [Forgiveness]

Forgive me for shouting at you.

Using Alerter with an IFID or intensification of IFID is also common among children most probably because they want to emphasize that they feel worried following their wrongdoings and reinforce their apologies as in the example extract:

Extract 6:Verbal harm/ Low severity/ Friend

CH19: Özür dilerim arkadaşım. [Of. Ap.+with Alerter]

I apologize, my friend.

Extract 7: Right violation/ High severity/ Friend

CH25: Arkadaşım, izin almadan aldığım için özür dilerim.
[Of. Ap.+with Alerter]
My friend, I apologize for taking it without permission.

The extracts above show that children use *Alerter* either in the final position or at the beginning. There is not a certain syntactic rule in Turkish in terms of the place of *alerter* in a sentence and it can be preferred not only with IFIDs but also with other strategies as well as indicated in the table above. In addition, it was observed as a result of the qualitative analysis that the intensification of an offer of apology was always achieved by adding the adverbial "çok"(very) into the apologizing phrase. More precisely, the corpus did not yield such other modifiers as "gerçekten" (really), "bir kez daha" (once more) or "çok çok" (really very). In this respect, we may argue that the children in the present study do not possess a wide range of modifiers. They have very limited repertoire.

In addition to the direct forms of apologies, children sometimes achieve a meaning of apology with indirect ways by promising for the non-recurrence of similar future action or offering compensation for the damage they've caused as exemplified in the extracts below:

Extract 8: Physical Harm/ Low severity/ Friend

CH34:Bir daha da yapmam. [Promise]
I won't do it again.

CH15: Arkadaşım bir daha yapmayacağım. [Promise with Alerter]
My friend, I won't do this again.

Extract 9: Right violation/ High severity/ Friend

CH20: Şey ben tamir edebilirim aslında. [Repair (direct)]

Well, actually I can fix it.

As aforesaid, the present corpora yielded in multiple strategy use as well as single ones. The analysis revealed that these productions included two- or three-strategy combinations at most. To be more specific, productions consisting of four, five or six strategies were not observed in the corpus. The types of the two-strategy combinations are illustrated with the frequency of occurrences in Table 8 below.

Table 8.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Two-strategy Combinations across the Two Age Groups

Combinations	**(4;0-4;11) f (O1)**	**(5;0-6;0) f (O2)**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Of. Ap.+Promise	97	75	10,64	**+0,001**
Of. Ap.+Repair	17	46	7,78	**-0,005**
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent	16	29	1,32	-0,250
Of. Ap. with Alerter + Promise	16	16	0,47	+0,495
Of. Ap.+Forgiveness	12	22	1,06	-0,302
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame	7	13	0,67	-0,413
Of. Ap.+Softener	4	3	0,49	+0,485
Of. Ap.with Alerter + Lack of Intent	4	1	2,72	+0,099
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame with Alerter	3	3	0,09	+0,768
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Repair (indirect)	3	2	0,52	+0,473
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Forgiveness	2	--	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Repair	2	6	1,24	-0,265
Intensified Of. Ap. + Promise with Alerter	2	6	1,24	-0,265
Of. Ap.+Repair (indirect)	2	8	2,55	-0,110
Of. Ap.+Intensified Of. Ap.	1	1	0,03	+0,865
Forgiveness+Repair (direct)	1	1	0,03	+0,865
Of. Ap.+Concern for the Hearer	1	--	--	--
Promise+Repair	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Minimizing	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Blaming Others	1	1	0,03	+0,865
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Intensified Of. Ap.	1	--	--	--
Downgrader+Repair	--	4	--	--
Intensified Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame	--	3	--	--
Intensified Of. Ap.+Forgiveness	--	2	--	--
Explanation+Minimizing	--	2	--	--
Intensified Of. Ap.+Explanation	--	1	--	--
Promise with Alerter+Downgrader	--	1	--	--
Explanation+Repair	--	1	--	--
Total	**194**	**247**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

The results, presented in Table 8, point at similarities between the two age groups in terms of the total amount of variety evaluated by the number of different

categories produced. In addition, as is clear in the Table, the sequence of the most popular categories within each group exhibits similarities across the groups. Accordingly, combining the most direct form of apology with a promise emerged to be the most common tendency while mitigating offences in both groups. However, the usage was significantly higher in the younger group ($p<.01$), which means that younger children rely on promises as remedial acts more than older ones. On the other hand, the analysis of the corpora that belong to the older group resulted in significantly higher frequencies for the combination of *an offer of apology* and *repairs* ($p<.01$). Thus, it appears that the perception that wrongdoings can be mitigated by offering compensations develops with increasing age. Another mostly favored strategy by both groups was using *expressions of lack of intent* and *accepting the blame*, which are the sub-formulas of the main strategy *acknowledgment of responsibility*. The usage was observed to be higher in the older group, lending support to claim that the recognition of fault in causing the breach and hence taking on the responsibility or expressing that the action is unintentional is a developmental trend. More precisely, bearing in mind the changes in children's perceptions and cognition as they get older, we can, possibly, argue that they have developed an understanding as to the need to compensate for the damage occurred as a result of their actions.

Another striking point apparent in the Table that can be associated with age is the higher use of indirect repairs by the older group although the difference was not large enough to be significant. Thus, it seems that the issue of indirectness is one part of linguistic and pragmatic skills that develops as children get older.In parallel, as displayed in the Table, combining the preformative verb "özür dilerim" (I apologize) with phrases like " beni affet" (forgive me) which notify the offender's begging for forgiveness was favored more by the older group.

All in all, as the table indicates, nearly all the combinations were formed by using the most direct form of apology in both age groups and similar to what has been reported on the single strategy types, such strategies as *explanations*, *minimizing the offence*, and*downgraders* did not emerge as favored ones in either group. The example extracts obtained from the data are provided below.

Extract 10: Verbal harm/ Low severity/ Friend

CH43: Özür dilerim. Bir daha yapmak istemiyorum.[Of. Ap.+Promise]

I apologize. I don't want to do this again.

Extract 11: Right violation/ Low severity/ Friend

CH17: Özür dilerim. Bir daha yapmam söz.[Of. Ap.+Promise]

I apologize. I promise I won't do this again.

In the extracts above, it is clear that children use various kinds of expressions to make a promise rather than using the formulaic expression "söz veriyorum" (I promise) all the time, which was observed to be hardly ever used by the participants in this age group. This is also the case for *offer of repair* as exemplified below:

Extract 12: Verbal harm/ High severity/ Friend

CH41: Özür dilerim. Sonra da seninle oynarım. [Of. Ap.+Repair (direct)]

I apologize. I will play with you afterward.

Extract 13: Verbal harm/ High severity/ Friend

CH42: Özür dilerim. Sen de oynayabilirsin artık, seni oyuna alabilirim. [Of. Ap.+Repair (direct)]

I apologize. You can play with us, I can involve you in the play.

CH23: Özür dilerim. Bizimle oynar mısın? [Of. Ap.+Repair (direct)]

I apologize. Will you play with us?

The following examples are taken from the data to illustrate the use of the combination of *of. Ap.+lack of intent,* which was mostly utilized for expressing that the action occurred unintentionally.

Extract 14: Physical harm/ High severity/ Friend

CH15: Özür dilerim. Kaza oldu. [Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent]

I apologize. It happened accidentally.

Extract 15: Right violation/ High severity/ Friend

CH39: Özür dilerim. İstemeden oldu. [Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent]

I apologize. It happened unintentionally.

As can be tracked in the example extracts, children use various kinds of expressions to state that the offence occurred without their control or unintentionally by utilizing such phrases as “yanlışlıkla oldu”, “kazayla oldu” and “istemeden oldu”.

In another combination, namely *of. ap.+accepting the blame,* children display taking responsibility on their wrongdoing and directly express their admission of the misdeed to the offended party in various forms as indicated below:

Extract 16: Verbal harm/ High severity/ Friend

CH22: Özür dilerim. Keşke seninle dalga geçmeseydim, sana bağırmasaydım, seni oyuna alsaydım. [Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame]

I apologize. I wish I hadn’t mock you and shout at you. I wish I had involved you in the play.

Extract 17: Physical harm/ Low severity/ Friend

CH22: Özür dilerim. İttiğimi kabul ediyorum. [Of. Ap.+Accepting the blame]

I apologize. I admit that I pushed you.

A final analysis was conducted to explore the categories of three-strategy combinations as produced by the two groups, the results of which are presented in the Table below.

Table 9.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Three-strategy Combinations across the Two Age Groups

Combinations	**(4;0-4;11) f (O1)**	**(5;0-6;0) f (O2)**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Of. Ap.+Promise+ Repair	12	17	0,17	-0,678
Of. Ap.+Downgrader +Repair	3	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Forgiveness+Repair	3	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Promise+Minimizing	2	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame+Lack of Intent	2	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Repair	2	7	2,06	-0,151
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Lack of Intent+Repair	2	1	0,56	+0,454
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Intensified Of. Ap.	1	1	0,02	+0,892
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame+Repair (indirect)	1	2	0,18	-0,676
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Forgiveness+Promise	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Expressing Self-deficiency+Repair	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent with Alerter+Promise	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter + Downgrader+Repair	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Repair (indirect)	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Forgiveness	--	5	--	--
Of. Ap.+A Promise+Repair (indirect)	--	2	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+A Promise+Repair	--	1	--	--
Intensified Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Repair	--	1	--	--
Explanation+ Of. Ap.+A Promise	--	1	--	--
Of. Ap.+ Explanation+Expression of Regret	--	1	--	--
Explanation+Lack of Intent+Expression of Regret	--	1	--	--
Total	**33**	**40**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

The most evident point in Table 9 is the marked tendency in each group to use the formulaic expression “özür dilerim” (I apologize) in nearly all the combinations similar to the two-strategy productions. In terms of variety, the analysis revealed that

even though the total amount was lower, much diversity was observed in the corpora of the younger respondents with 14 different strategy typesthough some were relatively limited in number. In this respect, the distribution of children's combinations appeared to be more diverse in comparison to two-strategy productions. To be more specific, only five of the combinations were common for both groups with varying frequencies of use.

Among a battery of combinations, the category of an explicit apology phrase combined with *a promise* and *offer of repair* emerged as the one that had a more predominant usage in both groups. An increase as to the use of the category was observed in the older group; however, it was not statistically significant. Similarly, combining *offer of apology* with *expressions of lack of intent* and *offer of repair* was favored by both age groups; having considerably, yet not significantly, higher instances of use in the older ones. The productions can be tracked in the following example extracts.

Extract 18: Right Violation/ High severity/ Friend

CH81: Özür dilerim. Bir daha yapmayacağım. İstersen tamir edebilirim.

[Of. Ap.+Promise +Repair]

I apologize. I won't do this again. I can repair it if you like.

Extract 19: Right Violation/ Low severity/ Friend

CH90: Özür dilerim. Yanlışlıkla oldu. O yaptığın resmi tekrar yaparım.

[Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Repair]

I apologize. It happened accidentally. I redraw the picture you'd drawn.

4.3. The Influence of Social Variables on Apology Strategies

Scholars in the field of sociolinguistics (e.g. Hudson, 1980) argue that people's use of language differs across various sociolinguistic factors such as gender, level of education and socio-economic status. In this part, participants' productions of apology strategies have been discussed around the target sociolinguistic factors, namely children's gender, parents' level of education, and their preschool experience. The section starts with the findings regarding the effect of gender.

4.3.1. Gender

In order to explore potential gender differences on children's manner of apologizing in terms of the complexity of realization patterns, and variety and types of strategies, the overall data which consists of 800 responses in total were classified into two groups as male and female productions. As aforesaid in the methodology section, there are totally 51 female children, who provided totally 408 responses. On the other hand, the number of male participants is 49, which yielded totally 392 responses. Firstly, the results of the analysis with regard to the complexity of patterns are shown in Table 10 below with the total rates of use and significance values of each category.

Table 10.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Total Strategies Based on Gender

Complexity of patterns	**Male f (O1)**	**Female f (O2)**	**Total f**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Single Strategy	152	134	286	1,97	+0,161
Two-strategy Combinations	208	233	441	0,59	-0,441
Three-strategy Combinations	32	41	73	0,78	-0,377
Total	**392**	**408**	**800**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

When we evaluate the results in terms of complexity of patterns, it is apparent that both male and female participants' productions were shaped around the combinations of two remedial acts in order to express their remorse following an offence. However, as the results illustrate, although the difference was not statistically verified, the usage rate of two-strategy productions was higher in the female data, which indicates that they preferred to employ complex patterns more than male respondents. The same holds true for three-strategy combinations, which were also more popular among females. However, the difference was not confirmed as statistically significant. Connected with this, there was more tendency to employ single strategies among male participants, which may show that they regarded simple forms as sufficient to redress the offence they'd caused.

Further analysis was conducted to identify the choices of realization patterns favored by male and female children, which indicated similarities and differences in this

respect. The results are illustrated in the following Table with rates of frequency and significance values of each category.

Table 11.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Basic Strategies Based on Gender

Strategies	**Male f (O1)**	**Female f (O)**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Of. Ap	89	81	0,07	-0,798
Of. Ap withAlerter	18	9	1,98	+0,160
Repair	12	9	0,12	+0,726
A Promise	11	13	0,54	-0,462
Intensified apology	8	8	0,07	-0,789
Forgiveness	4	3	0,04	+0,840
An Expression of Regret	4	4	0,04	-0,850
Promise with Alerter	2	3	0,36	-0,550
ExpressingLack of Intent	1	--	--	--
Minimizing	1	--	--	--
ConcernfortheHearer	1	--	--	--
Repair (Indirect)	1	--	--	--
Accepting the Blame	--	2	--	--
Explanation	--	1	--	--
Total	**152**	**134**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

The results exhibit similarities for the two groups in terms of the diversity in the basic strategies; with a similar number of categories utilized as redressive acts. Additionally, the sequence of the most favored strategies was similar for both groups only with differences in the amount of use. Besides, no significant difference was observed in the frequencies of strategy preferences across the two groups.

Among the battery of strategies, *an offer of apology* emerged to be the most prevalent one in both groups; being used more by females. On the other hand, the same strategy, when used with *an alerter* was preferred by males more than the females. That is, they utilized address terms like “arkadaşım” (my friend) in their apologies more than females. Moreover, whereas such strategies as *expressing lack of intent*, *minimizing the offence* and i*ndirect offer of repairs* were available in the corpora of males, female corpus did not indicate any signs of use. In a similar vein, *accepting the blame* and *explanation* emerged as the strategies employed only by female respondents. Another

striking point that needs to be highlighted is the higher employment of “afedersin” (excuse me) or “beni affet” (forgive me) by males as an alternative to “özür dilerim” (I apologize). A similar pattern was also observed for females who used “üzgünüm” (I’m sorry) more than males. Overall, existence or non-existence of specific strategies in the male or female corpus may indicate gender differences at this point, but we should be cautious to make a generalization since the amounts of use in these categories were not large enough to allow for a general comment. Equally important, the frequency of strategies should be evaluated together with their usage in multiple combinations in order to reach sound conclusions.

After having checked the general distribution of the single strategy types across the two groups, the next analysis was run to identify the multiple strategy combinations. The results with respect to two-strategy combinations can be traced in Table 12 below.

Table 12.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Two-Strategy Combinations Based on Gender

Combinations	**M f (O1)**	**F f (O2)**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Of. Ap +Promise	77	95	0,40	-0,528
Of. Ap +Offer of Repair	40	23	6,78	**+0,009**
Of. Ap +Lack of Intent	29	16	5,43	**+0,020**
Of. Ap +Forgiveness	14	20	0,49	-0,483
Of. Ap with Alerter+Promise	14	18	0,15	-0,698
Of. Ap +Accepting the Blame	7	13	1,21	-0,271
Of. Ap + Offer of Repair (indirect)	7	3	2,13	+0,144
Intensified Of. Ap +Promise with Alerter	4	4	0,03	+0,873
Of. Ap +Accepting the Blame with Alerter	3	3	0,02	+0,889
Of. Ap with Alerter+Repair (indirect)	3	2	0,33	+0,565
Of. Ap with Alerter+Repair	2	6	1,66	-0,197
Downgraders+Repair	2	2	0,01	+0,910
Of. Ap +Softener	1	6	3,42	-0,065
Of. Ap with Alerter+ Forgiveness	1	1	0,01	+0,936
Of. Ap+Minimizing	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap+Blaming Others	1	1	0,01	+0,936
Explanation+Minimizing	1	1	0,01	+0,936
Of. Ap with Alerter+Lack of Intent	1	4	1,60	-0,205
Of. Ap +Intensified Of. Ap	--	2	--	--
Forgiveness+Repair	--	2	--	--
Of. Ap with Alerter+Concern for the Hearer	--	1	--	--
Promise+Offer of Repair	--	1	--	--
Of. Ap with Alerter+Intensified Of. Ap	--	1	--	--
Of. Ap +Concern for the Hearer	--	1	--	--
Intensified Of. Ap +Accepting the Blame	--	2	--	--
Intensified Of. Ap +Forgiveness	--	2	--	--
Intensified Of. Ap +Explanation	--	1	--	--
Promise with Alerter+Downgrader	--	1	--	--
Explanation+Repair	--	1	--	--
Total	**208**	**233**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1 *M: Male
O2: Observed frequency 2 *F: Female
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

Turning to the effect of gender on two-strategy combinations, the results in the Table reveal that there was a wider variety in the female corpus with thirty different

types of categories compared to eighteen produced by male participants. Thus, it appears that women were more creative in their productions. Moreover, mostly favored categories indicated a similar sequence in both groups, which demonstrates that female and male choices were shaped around similar combinations. Among the others, both groups were more inclined to combine an explicit form of apology with *a promise*. Although the usage was higher among females the difference was not statistically verified. However, offering repairs and expressing lack of intent following an offence was significantly popular among males ($p<.01$, $p<.05$, respectively) compared to females. This finding may show that male participants attached more importance to compensation of the damage they'd caused.

On the other hand, the category in which there was female dominance in terms of use was the combination of explicit apology and *a request for forgiveness*, which means employing two apology phrases in a sequence. Another higher usage rate on the part of females was observed in the use of expressions that show the *admission of blame* similar to the *expression of lack of intent*, both of which are the sub-formulas of *acknowledging responsibility*. This indicates that both male and female children showed a preference to admit their responsibility by utilizing different sub-categories. Some example extracts are presented below.

Extract 20: Verbal Harm/ Low Severity/ Friend

CH18: Özür dilerim, bir daha sana bağırmam. [Of.Ap.+Promize]

I apologize, I don't shout at you again.

Extract 21: Right Violation/ High Severity/ Friend

CH50: Özür dilerim. Sana yenisini alacağım. [Of.Ap.+Repair]

I apologize, I will buy you a new one.

Extract 22: Verbal Harm/ High Severity/ Friend

CH47: Özür dilerim. Seninle dalga geçmek istemedim. [Of.Ap.+Lack of Intent]

I apologize. I didn't mean to mock you.

The last analysis of this section belongs to the types of three-strategy combinations as observed in the corpus of males and females. The descriptive results

with frequencies of occurrences and significance values of each category are illustrated in the following Table.

Table 13.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Three-strategy Combinations Based on Gender

Combinations	**M f (O1)**	**F f (O2)**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Of. Ap +A Promise+Repair	16	13	1,50	+0,221
Of. Ap +Lack of Intent+Repair	3	6	0,41	-0,520
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Forgiveness	3	2	0,53	+0,468
Of. Ap.+Forgiveness+Repair	2	1	0,63	+0,426
Of. Ap.+Downgrader+Repair	2	1	0,63	+0,426
Of. Ap.+A Promise+Minimizing	2	--	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Lack of Intent+ Repair	1	2	0,14	-0,710
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent with Alerter+A Promise	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+A Promise+Repair	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Explanation+Expression of Regret	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame+Repair (indirect)	--	3	--	--
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame+Lack of Intent	--	2	--	--
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Intensified IFID	--	2	--	--
Of. Ap.+A Promise+Repair (indirect)	--	2	--	--
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Repair (indirect)	--	1	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Forgiveness+A Promise	--	1	--	--
Of. Ap.+Expressing self-deficiency+Repair	--	1	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Downgrader+Repair	--	1	--	--
Intensified Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Repair	--	1	--	--
Explanation+ Of. Ap.+A Promise	--	1	--	--
Explanation+Lack of Intent+Expression of Regret	--	1	--	--
Total	**32**	**41**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1 M: Male
O2: Observed frequency 2 F: Female
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

When the results were examined in terms of variety of combinations, it was found that there was more diversity in females' data which included 17 different combinations. This may indicate that they made more effort to find a better way of providing reconciliation or mitigating their offences whereas males' preferences were mainly shaped around specific combinations.

The results indicate a similar sequence in terms of the mostly chosen combinations in both groups. Accordingly, the combination of *an offer of apology* with *a promise* and *offer of repair* emerged as the predominant apology behavior for both males and females though the rates of use varied in the two groups; being higher in the male data but the difference was not statistically significant (p>.05).

4.3.2. Parents' Level of Education

As another sociolinguistic parameter taken into account in the study, the overall corpus obtained from both age groups was analyzed to explore the extent to which parents' educational background is influential in children's apology realization patterns. The analysis was first conducted for mother's level of education and then for father's, which was treated at two levels: graduates of primary, secondary and high school were labeled as "lower level" and graduates of university, M.A, or Ph.D. were taken under the category of "higher level". The section starts with the results regarding mothers' level of education, which is followed by the results related to fathers' level of education.

4.3.2.1. Mothers' Level of Education

When the data was grouped taking the mothers' level of education into consideration, it was found that there were 61 respondents whose mothers have up to high school level of education, which yielded in 488 instances of apologies as responses to eight apology situations. On the other hand, 39 of the participants have mothers with university or higher degree, which yielded totally 312 responses. The total distribution of the single and multiple strategies produced by the two groups is presented in the Table below.

Table 14.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Total Strategies Based on Mother's Level of Education

Complexity of Patterns	**Lower f (O1)**	**Higher f (O2)**	**Total**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Single Strategy	162	124	286	2,25	-0,133
Two-strategy Combinations	281	160	441	1,38	+0,240
Three-strategy Combinations	45	28	73	0,01	+0,910
Total	**488**	**312**	**800**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

As Table 14 displays, irrespective of their mothers' level of education, children's apologies include mostly two-strategy combinations. However, unlike our provisional expectation, although the difference was not statistically verified, both two- and three-strategy combinations were higher in use in the corpus of children with less educated mothers. In this sense, this finding demonstrates that children of less educated mothers utilized more complex patterns,-a sequence of strategies- to redress their violations. This result may be associated with the quantity of input. That is, it's possible that less educated mothers may have more time to spend with their children and more opportunity to get into various kinds of interactions in which children are exposed to many different uses of language.

Overall, this finding indicates that children's strategy patterns did not point at more complexity or become more elaborate as mothers' level of education increased. The following is a Table which displays the types of single strategies as employed by children of mothers with two different educational backgrounds.

Table 15.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Basic Strategies Based on Mother's Level of Education

Strategies	**Lower f (O1)**	**Higher f (O)**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Of. Ap.	97	73	0,04	+0,850
Of. Ap.withAlerter	17	10	0,49	+0,484
Repair	12	9	0,01	+0,941
A Promise	10	14	2,08	-0,149
Intensified Of. Ap.	12	4	2,41	+0,121
Forgiveness	3	4	0,51	-0,474
An Expression of Regret	5	2	0,68	+0,411
Promise with Alerter	1	4	2,77	-0,96
ExpressingLack of Intent	--	1	--	--
Minimizing	--	1	--	--
ConcernfortheHearer	1	--	--	--
Repair (Indirect)	1	--	--	--
Accepting the Blame	1	1	0,03	-0,857
Explanation	1	--	--	--
Total	**162**	**124**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

The results, displayed in Table 15 above, indicate a similarity in terms of the range of strategies employed by both groups. This means that participants utilized roughly similar amounts of categories to redress their misdeeds. Among the others, as one of the sub-formulas of IFIDs, *an offer of apology* had a predominant usage by respondents regardless of their mothers' level of education. Also, the results indicated slight differences in the sequence of most favored categories in the groups. Accordingly, while the usage of *an offer of apology* with *an alerter* was the second choice of children of less educated mothers, it was *a promise* for the other group.The difference was not significant, yet the usage rates of these categories were higher among children of less educated mothers. The intensification of apologies was also more common among children of less educated mothers.

In general, as is clear in the Table, children's productions are generally shaped around certain strategies such as *an offer of apology*, *offer of repair*, or *promise* without any significant differences that stem from the level of education their mothers have. Thus, we could argue as an overall evaluation of single strategy choices that there was

not much difference in terms of the types and variety of strategies employed by the two groups.

Table 16 below displays the total two-strategy combinations produced by the two groups with the frequencies of use and significance values.

Table 16.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Two-strategy Combinations Based on Mother's Level of Education

Combinations	**Lower f (O1)**	**Higher f (O2)**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Of. Ap.+A Promise	122	50	4,00	**+0,045**
Of. Ap.+Repair	47	16	3,41	+0,065
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent	30	15	0,17	+0,679
Of. Ap.+Forgiveness	18	16	1,65	-0,199
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Promise	9	23	16,73	**-0,000**
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame	12	8	0,12	-0,731
Of. Ap.+Repair (indirect)	6	4	0,06	-0,808
Intensified Of. Ap.+Promise with Alerter	5	3	0,01	-0,943
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame with Alerter	2	4	2,28	-0,131
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Repair (indirect)	2	3	1,16	-0,282
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Repair	4	4	0,63	-0,429
Downgraders+Repair	1	3	2,49	-0,115
Of. Ap.+Softener	4	3	0,13	-0,720
Of. Ap. with Alerter+ Forgiveness	1	1	0,16	-0,692
Of. Ap.+Minimizing	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Blaming Others	1	1	0,16	-0,692
Explanation+Minimizing	2	--	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Lack of Intent	4	1	0,63	+0,428
Of. Ap.+Intensified Of. Ap.	1	1	0,16	-0,692
Forgiveness+Repair	2	--	--	--
Promise+Repair	2	--	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Intensified Of. Ap.	--	1	--	--
Of. Ap.+Concern for the Hearer	1	--	--	--
Intensified Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame	2	1	0,01	+0,915
Intensified Of. Ap.+Forgiveness	1	1	0,16	-0,692
Intensified Of. Ap.+Explanation	1	--	--	--
Promise with Alerter+Downgrader	--	1	--	--
Explanation+Repair	1	--	--	--
Total	**281**	**160**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

The results, presented in Table 16 above, reveal that the corpus that belongs to children of less educated mothers yields more diversity in the category of combinationswith 27 different types compared to 20 in the other group. Among these categories, there was a marked tendency to combine an explicit apology with a promise in both groups. However, the usage was significantly higher among children with less educated mothers ($p<.05$). Moreover, the sequence of more common strategies was similar for both groups as well apart from the combination of *an offer of apology* with *alerter* and *a promise*, which had a significantly higher usage rate among the children of more educated mothers ($p<.001$). For an overall evaluation, it can be stated that similar to choices of single strategies, children's combinations were not much framed around the parameter of mothers' level of education as both groups formed similar combinations which revolved around certain strategies like *a promise, offer of repair* or *lack of intent*. To put it simply, the productions did not indicate much diversity across the two groups depending on the educational background of the mothers.

Finally, the Table below illustrates the results of the analysis regarding the three-strategy combinations.

Table 17.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Three-strategy Combinations Based on Mothers' Level of Education

Combinations	**Lower f (O1)**	**Higher f (O2)**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Of. Ap.+Promise+Repair	19	10	0,19	+0,666
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Repair	5	4	0,14	-0,710
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Forgiveness	5	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Forgiveness+Repair	2	1	0,03	+0,857
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame+Repair (indirect)	2	1	0,03	+0,857
Of. Ap.+Promise+Minimizing	2	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Promise+Repair (indirect)	2	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Downgrader+Repair	1	2	0,98	-0,322
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Lack of Intent+Repair	1	2	0,98	-0,322
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Intensified IFID	1	1	0,11	-0,738
Of. Ap.+Explanation+Expression of Regret	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Forgiveness+A Promise	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Downgrader+Repair	1	--	--	--
Intensified Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Repair	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent with Alerter+A Promise	--	1	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+A Promise+Repair	--	1	--	--
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame+Lack of Intent	--	2	--	--
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Repair (indirect)	--	1	--	--
Of. Ap.+Expressing self-deficiency+Repair	--	1	--	
Explanation+ Of. Ap.+A Promise	--	1	--	--
Explanation+Lack of Intent+Expression of Regret	1	--	--	--
Total	**45**	**28**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

As can be appreciated from Table 17 above, the results exhibit similar patterns in terms of the variety of the categories of combinations produced by the two groups. More precisely, mothers' educational background did not emerge as a factor that influences the diversity in the productions. In a similar vein, there was a marked tendency in both groups to combine the most explicit form of apology (I apologize) with *a promise* and *repair* although the rate of use was higher among children of less educated mothers. Additionally, the second choice of the respondents in both groups emerged to be the combination of a*n offer of apology* with the expressions of *lack of intent* and *repair*. When the remaining sequence was examined, it was found that while certain strategies were preferred by the children of mothers with lower educational level, there were also some others which were only used by children of more educated

mothers. Lastly, it is apparent that using more than one apology phrase such as *özür dilerim+afedersin* (I apologize+Excuse me) was only common among the first group of children. Overall, we may argue that the combination preferences of the participants were not shaped around mothers' educational background as the sequence and types of combinations were roughly similar in both groups.

4.3.2.2. Fathers' Level of Education

In order to explore the potential influence of fathers' educational background on children's manner of apologizing, the overall data were divided into two according to fathers' level of education as the lower level and higher level. The former consists of 58 children whose fathers have up to high school level of education and the latter includes 42 children with fathers having university of higher degree.

The first analysis was conducted to see the overall picture in terms of the complexity of productions which yielded in single, two- and three-strategy combinations. The results are shown in the Table below with the employment rates and significance values for each category.

Table 18.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Total Strategies Based on Fathers' Level of Education

Complexity of Patterns	**Lower f (O1)**	**Higher f (O2)**	**Total f**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Single Strategy	158	128	286	0,89	-0,346
Two-strategy Combinations	265	176	441	0,80	+0,373
Three-strategy Combinations	41	32	73	0,10	-0,751
Total	**464**	**336**	**800**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

The results, as illustrated in Table 18, reveal a marked tendency among children in both groups to utilize two-strategy combinations more than single or three-combinations to remedy their offences. When the overall picture is examined, it is apparent that the statistical analysis did not point at a significant difference in any categories ($p>.05$ for all categories), which shows that fathers' educational background

was not an influential factor in the complexity of children's patterns. More specifically, although the use of three-combinations was higher in the corpus of children with more educated fathers, the difference was not significant enough to claim such an effect.

After having checked the distribution of the overall usage in the two groups, the next analysis was run to see the strategy types utilized to apologize to the offended party. The results are provided in the Table below.

Table 19.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Basic Strategies Based on Fathers' Level of Education

Strategy Type	**Lower f (O1)**	**Higher f (O2)**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Of. Ap.	89	81	0,57	-0,449
Of. Ap.with Alerter	20	7	4,09	**+0,043**
Promise	15	9	0,52	+0,472
Repair	14	7	1,14	+0,286
Intensified Of. Ap.	9	7	0,01	+0,936
An Expression of Regret	4	4	0,09	-0,766
Promise with Alerter	3	2	0,05	0,830
Forgiveness	2	5	2,04	-0,153
Accepting the Blame	1	1	0,02	-0,882
Expressing Lack of Intent	--	1	--	--
Repair with Alerter	--	1	--	--
Minimizing	--	1	--	--
Concern for the Hearer	1	--	--	--
Repair (Indirect)	--	1	--	--
An Explanation	--	1	--	--
Total	**158**	**128**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

The results point at more diversity in the corpus of children having more educated fathers with a higher number of categories utilized to apologize (14 compared to 10). In addition, regardless of their fathers' educational background, children showed a marked preference for the use of the most direct form of apology (I apologize) ($p>.05$). However, when the same category was used with *an alerter*, a significantly higher tendency emerged among the children with less educated fathers, which may imply that they mostly preferred direct apologies. Thus, the preference for direct usage may be associated with a lower level of education. On the other hand, as is clear in the

Table, the sequence of most favoured strategies indicated slight differences between the two groups. However, the choices of both groups were mostly shaped around certain strategies: *an offer of apology*, *promises,* or *repairs*.

Following the single strategy types, a similar analysis was done to identify the two-strategy combinations. The results are presented in the Table below with the frequencies of use for each category.

Table 20.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Two-strategy Combinations Based on Fathers' Level of Education

Combinations	**Lower f (O1)**	**Higher f (O2)**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Of. Ap.+Promise	100	72	0,27	-0,602
Of. Ap.+Repair	41	22	0,66	+0,415
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent	35	10	6,35	**+0,012**
Of. Ap.with Alerter + Promise	16	16	1,33	-0,249
Of. Ap.+Forgiveness	15	19	3,52	-0,061
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame	12	8	0,00	-0,993
Of. Ap.+Repair (indirect)	7	3	0,42	+0,515
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Repair	7	1	2,94	+0,086
Intensified Of. Ap.+ Promise with Alerter	6	2	0,79	+0,375
Of. Ap.+Softener	3	4	0,84	-0,358
Of. Ap.with Alerter + Lack of Intent	3	2	0,00	-0,997
Downgrader+Repair	3	1	0,39	+0,530
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Forgiveness	2	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Intensified IFID	2	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Concern for the Hearer	2	--	--	--
Intensified Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame	2	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame with Alerter	1	5	4,80	**-0,029**
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Repair (indirect)	1	4	3,36	-0,067
Forgiveness+Repair	1	1	0,08	-0,773
Of. Ap.+Blaming Others	1	1	0,08	-0,773
Intensified Of. Ap.+Forgiveness	1	1	0,08	-0,773
Explanation+Minimizing	1	1	0,08	-0,773
Intensified Of. Ap.+Explanation	1	--	--	--
Promise with Alerter+Downgrader	1	--	--	--
Explanation+Repair	1	--	--	--
A Promise+Repair	--	1	--	--
Of. Ap.+Minimizing	--	1	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Intensified Of. Ap.	--	1	--	--
Total	**265**	**176**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

As can be inferred from Table 20, the results indicate a slight difference in terms of the number of categories produced by the two groups, which was higher in the corpus of children having less educated fathers although some categories were relatively small in number.Additionally, as can be tracked in the Table, the sequence of mostly preferred categories indicated slight differences as well.

Among all the combinations, it was observed that regardless of their fathers' educational backgrounds, there was a considerable tendency among children to combine "özür dilerim" (I apologize) with a promise that assures the other party about the non-occurrence of a future offence. Moreover, a significant difference was observed in the usage rates of the combination of "özür dilerim" (I apologize) with "yanlışlıkla" or "kazayla oldu" (it happened accidentally) which was higher in the data of children having less educated fathers. Another striking point to mention is about the use of expressions that show the *admission of the blame*. That is, the use of such statements as "özür dilerim arkadaşım, yaptığımı kabul ediyorum" (I apologize, my friend, I admit that I've done it) was significantly higher among the children of more educated fathers. Thus, admitting blames may be associated with parents' educational backgrounds.

Overall, as it is apparent, most of the categories were formed with a direct form of apology (I apologize) and irrespective of their fathers' level of education, children's productions did not gather around only one combination category; rather, children were observed to employ different kinds of combinations, which may show their productivity.

The last Table below belongs to the results of the analysis of children's productions with regard to three-strategy combinations.

Table 21.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Three-strategy Combinations Based on Fathers' Level of Education

Combinations	**Lower f (O1)**	**Higher f (O2)**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Of. Ap.+Promise+ Repair	15	14	0,23	-0,631
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Repair	6	3	0,41	+0,520
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Forgiveness	3	2	0,03	+0,862
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame+Repair (indirect)	3	--	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Lack of Intent+Repair	2	1	0,14	+0,710
Of. Ap.+Forgiveness+Repair	2	1	0,14	+0,710
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame+Lack of Intent	1	1	0,03	-0,861
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Intensified IFID	1	1	0,03	-0,861
Of. Ap.+Downgrader +Repair	1	2	0,63	-0,426
Of. Ap.+A Promise+Repair (indirect)	1	1	0,03	-0,861
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent with Alerter+Promise	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap. with Alerter + Downgrader+Repair	1	--	--	--
Intensified Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Repair	1	--	--	--
Explanation+ Of. Ap.+A Promise	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Forgiveness+Promise	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Repair (indirect)	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+A Promise+Repair	--	1	--	--
Of. Ap.+Expressing Self-deficiency+Repair	--	1	--	--
Of. Ap.+Promise+Minimizing	--	2	--	--
IFID+ Explanation+Expression of Regret	--	1	--	--
Explanation+Lack of Intent+Expression of Regret	--	1	--	--
Total	**41**	**32**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

The results, presented in Table 21 above, indicatea similar pattern regarding the variety of productions in both groups with slightly more diversity in the corpus of children who have less educated fathers. Moreover, as is clear, the sequence of mostly chosen categories was not much different in the two groups. Accordingly, producing such combinations which were formed with the phrases like "özür dilerim" (I apologize), "bir daha yapmayacağım" (I won't do this again), "tamir edebilirim" (I can fix it) was more popular than the other combinations in both groups. Another version of this combination in which *promise* was replaced by such phrases that show lack of intent such as "yanlışlıkla oldu" (it happened accidentally) was the second choice of the participants. All in all, it can be stated that fathers' educational background was not

found as an influential factor in children's choice of combinations as they were mainly framed around *promises*, *repairs* or *expressions of lack of intent*.

4.3.3. Preschool Experience

The overall corpus which consists of 100 preschool children's responses was divided into two depending on children's preschool experience in order to uncover the potential effect of such variable on children's apology realization patterns. The first group consists of 59 children having no preschool experience before, which yielded totally 472 responses provided for eight offence scenarios. On the other hand, the second group includes 41 children with preschool experience who totally produced 328 responses. The results of the analysis regarding the complexity of patterns in the two groups are provided in the Table below with frequencies of use and significance values.

Table 22.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Total Strategies Based on Preschool Experience

Complexity of Patterns	**Preschool exp.(-) f (O1)**	**Preschool exp.(+) f (O2)**	**Total f**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Single Strategy	170	116	286	0,02	+0,880
Two-strategy Combinations	265	176	441	0,22	+0,641
Three-strategy Combinations	37	36	73	2,05	-0,152
Total	**472**	**328**	**800**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

As displayed in Table 22, the results show a marked tendency among children in both groups to utilize two-strategy combinations as their remedial acts. Moreover, three-strategy combinations had a higher usage rate among children with preschool education; however, the difference was not large enough to claim that preschool education is a decisive factor in the complexity of children's patterns. More precisely, as the distribution of strategies did not point at a significant difference in any categories, we may claim that children's productions were not much shaped depending on preschool education.

The results of the analysis related to the variety and types of single strategies are shown in the Table below.

Table 23.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Basic Strategies Based on Preschool Experience

Strategy Type	**Preschool exp.(-)** **f (O1)**	**Preschool exp.(+)** **f (O2)**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Of. Ap.	93	77	1,56	-0,211
Of. Ap.with Alerter	21	6	4,07	**+0,044**
Promise	17	7	1,35	+0,246
Repair	14	7	0,47	+0,495
Intensified Of. Ap.	10	6	0,06	+0,802
Forgiveness	6	1	2,13	+0,129
An Expression of Regret	5	3	0,03	+0,860
Promise	1	4	3,26	-0,071
Accepting the Blame	1	1	0,07	-0,788
Expressing Lack of Intent	1	--	--	--
Concern for the Hearer	1	--	--	--
Repair with Alerter	--	1	--	--
Minimizing	--	1	--	--
Repair (Indirect)	--	1	--	--
An Explanation	--	1	--	--
Total	**170**	**116**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

The examination of the range of strategies employed by the two groups did not indicate much diversity. Additionally, as the table illustrates, regardless of preschool education children markedly preferred to use the most explicit form of apology “özür dilerim” (I apologize) to mitigate their wrongdoings. However, when it comes to the usage of this category with *an alerter*, it was observed that children without preschool experience produced such statements as “özür dilerim arkadaşım” (I apologize my friend) in significantly higher amount ($p<.05$). Moreover, such strategies as *promises*, *repairs*, and *intensification* of apologies emerged asthe ones which were predominant in both groups.

Participants' choices of two-strategy combinations can be traced in the following table, which displays statistical results related to the employment rates and significance values of each combination category.

Table 24.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Two-Strategy Combinations Based on Preschool Experience

Combinations	**Preschool exp.(-) f (O1)**	**Preschool exp.(+) f (O2)**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Of. Ap.+Promise	111	61	1,44	+0,231
Of. Ap.+Repair	34	29	0,97	-0,325
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent	31	14	1,50	+0,221
Of. Ap.with Alerter +Promise	15	17	2,27	-0,132
Of. Ap.+Forgiveness	19	16	0,49	-0,486
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame	10	10	0,83	-0,362
Of. Ap.+Softener	6	1	2,21	+0,137
Intensified Of. Ap. + Promise with Alerter	6	2	0,79	+0,375
Of. Ap.+Repair (indirect)	6	4	0,00	-0,995
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Repair	5	3	0,02	+0,889
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame with Alerter	3	3	0,25	-0,617
Of. Ap. with Alerter+Repair (indirect)	3	2	0,00	-0,997
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Forgiveness	2	--	--	--
Forgiveness+Repair (direct)	2	--	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter + Lack of Intent	2	3	0,82	-0,366
Intensified Of. Ap.+Forgiveness	1	1	0,08	-0,773
Of. Ap.+Intensified Of. Ap.	1	1	0,08	-0,773
Downgrader+Repair	1	3	2,03	-0,154
Of. Ap.+Blaming Others	1	1	0,08	-0,773
Explanation+Minimizing	1	1	--	--
Explanation+Repair	1	--	--	--
Intensified Of. Ap.+Explanation	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Concern for the Hearer	1	--	--	--
Promise+Repair	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Minimizing	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Intensified Of. Ap.	--	1		--
Intensified Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame	--	2		--
Promise with Alerter+Downgrader	--	1	--	--
Total	**265**	**176**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

When the choices of the two groups were examined, a similar pattern was observed in terms of the variety of categories. That is to say, the number of categories produced by the two groups was similar in number; being slightly higher in the corpus of children without preschool experience. Another point to mention about the Table is that nearly all of the combinations were formed with the most direct apologizing phrase "özür dilerim" (I apologize) with or without intensification. Among various categories, regardless of their preschool education, children's combinations were observed to mostly include *promises*, *repairs*, and expressions of *lack of intent* without a statistically verified difference in any categories. In addition, using two apology phrases such as "özür dilerim, beni affet" (I apologize, forgive me) as a response to a misdeed was also popular among the children in both groups. All in all, taking into account the findings, it can be stated that preschool education is not a decisive factor in children's strategy combinations.

The final analysis in this section belongs to the types of three-strategy combinations, the results of which are provided in Table 25.

Table 25.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Three-strategy Combinations Based on Preschool Education

Combinations	**PS.(-) f (O1)**	**PS.(+) f (O2)**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Of. Ap.+Promise+ Repair	17	12	0,73	+0,391
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Repair	4	5	0,14	-0,708
Of. Ap.+Forgiveness+Repair	3	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Downgrader +Repair	2	1	0,31	+0,576
Of. Ap.+Promise+Minimizing	2	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame+Lack of Intent	1	1	0,00	-0,985
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Forgiveness	1	4	2,01	-0,156
Of. Ap. with Alerter+Forgiveness+Promise	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Expressing Self-deficiency+Repair	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent with Alerter+Promise	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter + Downgrader+Repair	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Lack of Intent+Repair	1	2	0,37	-0,544
Intensified Of. Ap. +Lack of Intent+Repair	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+ Explanation+Regret	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Intensified IFID	--	2	--	--
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame+Repair (indirect)	--	3	--	--
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Repair (indirect)	--	1	--	--
Of. Ap.+A Promise+Repair (indirect)	--	2	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+A Promise+Repair	--	1	--	--
Explanation+ Of. Ap.+A Promise	--	1	--	--
Explanation+Lack of Intent+Regret	--	1	--	--
Total	**37**	**36**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1 *PS: Preschool
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

Similar to the two-strategy productions, children's combination categories were similar in number in both groups. Another similarity was observed in their marked preferences of "özür dilerim" (I apologize) or "çok özür dilerim" in nearly all categories. Among these, forming an apology act set consisting of *an offer of apology*, *promise*, and *repair* pointed at an overwhelming tendency among children irrespective of their preschool experience.

4.3.4.Interlocutor's Social Status

The total corpus was further analyzed in order to explore the extent to which children's realization patterns have been influenced by the hearer's social status to which two values were assigned: status equal (child=child) and hearer dominance (child<teacher). Accordingly, there were six scenarios consisting of offences committed against friends who are equal in power, which yielded totally 600 responses and two for the wrongdoings against the teacher who is higher in status, which included 200 responses. The following table shows the results of the analysis on the distribution of the responses according to the complexity of patterns.

Table 26.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Total Strategies Based on Social Status

Complexity of Patterns	**Equal f (O1)**	**Higher f (O2)**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Single Strategy	222	64	1,07	+0,300
Two-strategy Combinations	313	128	3,69	-0,055
Three-strategy Combinations	65	8	9,11	**+0,003**
Total	**600**	**200**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

Table 26 demonstrates that there were both similarities and differences in the distribution of categories. That is, there was a tendency among respondents to employ two-strategy combinations irrespective of the power relationship. However, the results disclosed a higher usage rate of three-strategy combinations when the remedial acts were addressed to a friend who is equal in status rather than the teacher representing higher status. This finding may provide evidence for children's sensitivity to addressee's characteristics as they reserved more complex patterns to their friends. This may be attributable to children's attaching much importance to reconciliation with friends as their playmates in preschool years. Offending their friends most probably results in an end of their plays from their perspectives, which motivates them to find better and more effective ways of apologizing.

Further analysis was conducted to explore the influence of interlocutor's social status on the variety and types of strategies. The results are presented in the Table below.

Table 27.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Basic Strategies Based on Social Status

Strategy Type	**Equal f (O1)**	**Higher f (O2)**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Of. Ap.	119	51	5,30	**-0,021**
Of. Ap.with Alerter	25	2	4,40	**+0,036**
Repair	21	--	--	--
Promise	18	6	0,09	-0,761
Intensified Of. Ap.	15	1	3,11	+0,078
An Expression of Regret	7	1	0,51	+0,474
Forgiveness	7	--	--	--
Promise with Alerter	3	2	0,78	-0,378
Accepting the Blame	2	--	--	--
Expressing Lack of Intent	1	--	--	--
Repair with Alerter	1	--	--	--
Repair (Indirect)	1	--	--	--
An Explanation	1	--	--	--
Concern for the Hearer	1	--	--	--
Minimizing	--	1	--	--
Total	**222**	**64**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

According to the results illustrated in Table 27, regardless of the addressee, when mitigating their wrongdoings the respondent children were more prone to use özür dilerim (I apologize) more than the other categories in the list. However, the usage reached a significantly higher rate when the remedy was directed to the teacher ($p<.05$). In a similar vein, when used with an *alerter*, the same category emerged to have significantly higher usage while addressing a friend. Another striking point was observed in the use of *repairs*, which were only preferred to mitigate offences against friends. This large discrepancy can be associated with the differences in the content of child-child and child-teacher scenarios. That is, while scratching a friend's drawing or breaking a friend's toy are the offences that require repairs, this does not hold true for such wrongdoings as getting cross with the teacher. In this respect, this finding provides evidence for the situation-specific nature of this category as suggested in the relevant

literature. All in all, more variety was observed in the remedial acts addressed to friends than a teacher in parallel to their direction of more elaborate patterns to friends.

After having investigated the data in terms of the types of single strategy usage, the next analysis was actualized to explore the influence of social status relationship on the variety and types of two-strategy combinations. The following Table displays the results of the analysis.

Table 28.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios ofTwo-Strategy Combinations Based on Social Status

Combinations	**Equal f (O1)**	**High f (O2)**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Of. Ap.+Promise	100	72	12,83	**-0,000**
Of. Ap.+Repair	63	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent	32	13	0,00	+0,984
Of. Ap.+Forgiveness	27	7	1,26	+0,262
Of. Ap.with Alerter +Promise	19	13	1,96	-0,161
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame	10	10	3,87	**-0,049**
Of. Ap.+Repair (indirect)	10	--	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Repair	8	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame with Alerter	6	--	--	----
Intensified Of. Ap.+ Promise with Alerter	6	2	0,06	+0,799
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Repair (indirect)	5	--	--	--
Downgrader+Repair	4	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Softener	3	4	2,39	-0,122
Intensified Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame	3	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Intensified Of. Ap.	2	--	--	--
Forgiveness+Repair	2	--	--	--
Explanation+Minimizing	2	--	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Forgiveness	1	1	0,39	-0,534
Of. Ap.with Alerter + Lack of Intent	1	3	3,61	-0,057
Of. Ap.+Concern for the Hearer	1	1	0,39	-0,534
Promise+Repair	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Minimizing	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Blaming Others	1	1	0,39	-0,534
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Intensified Of. Ap.	1	--	--	--
Intensified Of. Ap.+Forgiveness	1	1	0,39	-0,534
Intensified Of. Ap.+Explanation	1	--	--	--
Promise with Alerter+Downgrader	1	--	--	--
Explanation+Repair	1	--	--	--
Total	**313**	**128**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

The analysis, as is clear in Table 28, yielded in certain differences between the categories produced for equal and higher status addressees in terms of variety and frequency of use. Firstly, more variety was observed in the categories of the combination formed as remedial acts for friends in parallel to the preference of more complex patterns for the same addressee. Overall, the sequence of the most common strategies used for the two different groups of the addressee was found similar, which shows that their preferences were shaped around certain strategy combinations regardless of the social status relationship. With respect to the choices of combinations, although *an offer of apology* accompanied by *a promise* emerged to be the most favored one while remedies were directed to both friends and the teacher, the usage was significantly higher when addressing the teacher ($p<.01$). Another remarkable point to mention about the results was the usage of repair; both direct and indirect, with *an offer of apology* only when addressing a friend in parallel to the findings regarding the types of single strategies. Once more, this outcome can be associated with the differences in the content of the scenarios in child-child and child-teacher interactions, which shows children's sensitivity to the types of offence. Similarly, adding such expressions that show the admission of the offence to the direct form of apology (özür dilerim) (I apologize) was significantly more favored when the remedies were directed to the teacher ($p<.05$). To summarize, it appears that children are able to distinguish between the addressees and offences while making their strategy choices.

The final analysis in this section belongs to the categories of three-strategy combinations conducted to detect the influence of social status relationship on these productions in terms of variety and types of strategies. The results are shown in Table 29 below.

Table 29.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Three-strategy Combinations Based on Social Status

Combinations	**Equal f (O1)**	**High f (O2)**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Of. Ap.+Promise+ Repair	27	2	0,56	+0,456
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Repair	9	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Forgiveness	5	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Downgrader +Repair	3	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Forgiveness+Repair	3	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame+Repair (indirect)	3	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+with Alerter+Lack of Intent+Repair	3	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Promise+Minimizing	2	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame+Lack of Intent	2	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Intensified Of. Ap.	1	1	1,88	-0,170
Of. Ap.+Expressing Self-deficiency+Repair	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent with Alerter+Promise	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+with Alerter + Downgrader+Repair	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Repair (indirect)	1	--	--	--
IFID+A Promise+Repair (indirect)	1	1	1,88	-0,170
Of. Ap.+with Alerter+A Promise+Repair	1	--	--	--
Intensified Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Repair	1	--	--	--
Explanation+ Of. Ap.+A Promise	--	1	--	--
Of. Ap.++ Explanation+Expression of Regret	--	1	--	--
Explanation+Lack of Intent+Expression of Regret	--	1	--	--
Of. Ap.+with Alerter+Forgiveness+Promise	--	1	--	--
Total	**65**	**8**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

As Table 29 demonstrates, the respondents produced a richer range of strategy combinations to mitigate the offences committed against a friend rather than the teacher, which was not unexpected when the total usage rate was considered. Additionally, nearly all combinations were formed with the most direct apology phrase either in its basic or intensified form; and this phrase was observed to be mostly combined with *a promise* and *repair* for both types of status relations.

Overall, it can be inferred that children considered the offences they committed against their friends as a debilitating factor that would lead to the end of their friendship and hence they spent much effort to provide reconciliation as reflected in their producing wider variety of categories although the usage in some was relatively small.

4.4. The Influence of Contextual Factors on Apology Strategies

In the relevant literature, scholars (e.g., Brown & Levinson, 1987; Fraser, 1981) have voiced the existence of several contextual parameters which play a critical role in speakers' strategy choices. Among these, severity of the offence and type of offence were taken as variables and the potential effect of these parameters on children's manner of apologizing was investigated in terms of the complexity of patterns, and variety and type of strategies, which, in turn, would provide information on children's sociopragmatic skills evidenced by their sensitivity to such factors in their choice of strategy. The results regarding the influence of each factor are presented by following the order of research questions.

4.4.1. The Severity of the Offence

As aforesaid in the methodology section, the severity of the offence was assigned two values as high and low and only the scenarios in child-child interactions were included in the analysis since the same factor was not taken as a variable in teacher-child interactions. Thus, there were totally 600 responses obtained from 100 preschool-aged children for six offence scenarios.

The first analysis was actualized to evaluate the overall apologizing behavior in terms of the complexity of patterns and variety and type of the strategies utilized for minor and serious offences. The purpose was to identify the extent to which children are sensitive to the seriousness degree of an offence and adjust their usage accordingly. The results are provided in the following Table.

Table 30.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Total Strategies Based on Severity of the Offence

Complexity of Patterns	**High f**	**Low f**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Single Strategy	95	127	4,63	**-0,031**
Two-strategy Combinations	163	150	0,54	+0,462
Three-strategy Combinations	42	23	5,64	**+0,018**
Total	**300**	**300**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

The examination of the results illustrated in Table 30 exhibits both similarities and differences between the two groups. Firstly, offences with both high and low degree of severity were mitigated by using mostly two-strategy combinations. On the other hand, a significant difference was observed in the usage rates of single and three-strategy combinations. Accordingly, single strategy usage was significantly less for serious offences and in parallel, the frequency of three-strategy combinations was found significantly higher for serious offences as well. Thus it appears that children could distinguish between offences with varying degrees of severity and made their strategy choices accordingly. Overall, this finding lends support to claim that children display the required sociopragmatic skills evidenced by their preference for complex patterns for serious offences.

Further analysis was conducted to see if the same sensitivity in terms of the complexity of patterns was reflected in the types of strategies utilized to mitigate serious and minor offences. The following Table provides the frequencies of use for each category.

Table 31.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Basic Strategies Based on the Severity of the Offence

Strategy type	**High f (O1)**	**Low f (O2)**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Of. Ap.	50	69	0,03	-0,864
Repair	16	5	9,69	**+0,002**
Of. Ap.with Alerter	14	11	1,76	+0,185
Intensified Of. Ap.	9	6	1,79	+0,181
Regret	3	4	0,00	+0,997
Promise	1	17	12,96	**-0,000**
Minimizing	1	--	--	--
Concern for the Hearer	1	--	--	--
An Explanation	1	--	--	--
Forgiveness	--	7	--	--
Accepting the Blame	--	2	--	--
Expressing Lack of Intent	--	1	--	--
Repair with Alerter	--	1	--	--
Promise with Alerter	--	3	--	--
Repair (Indirect)	--	1	--	--
Total	**95**	**127**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

As can be inferred from Table 31, the results indicate a similar pattern in terms of the range of strategies utilized for serious and minor offences although more categories were used for minor offences. As to the strategy types, regardless of the seriousness degree of the offence, direct form of apology emerged to be the most preferred remedial act. When the sequence of common strategies is examined, it is clearly observed that while the second most used category was *promise* for minor offences with a significant difference (p=.000), the same did not hold true for serious offences for which children employed repairs with a significantly higher usage rate (p<.01). This may be attributable to the situation-specific nature of this strategy since serious offences include actions (e.g., scratching a friend's drawing) which are suitable for offering repairs compared to the ones in which a child shoutsat his friend.

Another remarkable point to mention about the results is the usage of *forgiveness* strategy formed as "beni affet" (forgive me) only for minor offences. On the other hand, intensification was performed for both minor and serious misdeeds. The usage was higher for the latter but the difference was not statistically verified

($p<.05$).All in all, it may be possible to claim that children displayed sensitiveness to the seriousness degree of an offence by utilizing different strategies in different amounts for each offence.

After having detected the single strategy types, the same data was analyzed to identify the strategy combinations produced for serious and minor offences. The results are displayed in Table 32 below.

Table 32.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Two-Strategy Combinations Based onSeverity of the Offence

Combinations	**High f (O1)**	**Low f (O2)**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Of. Ap.+Promise	44	56	2,61	-0,126
Of. Ap.+Repair	39	24	2,47	+0,116
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent	20	12	1,41	+0,235
Of. Ap.with Alerter +Promise	14	5	3,72	+0,054
Of. Ap.+Forgiveness	10	17	2,46	-0,116
Of. Ap.+Repair (indirect)	5	5	0,02	-0,895
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame	4	6	0,59	-0,444
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Repair	4	4	0,01	-0,906
Downgrader+Repair	4	--	--	
Of. Ap.+Softener	2	1	0,26	+0,609
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame with Alerter	2	4	0,86	-0,355
Intensified Of. Ap. + Promise with Alerter	2	4	0,86	-0,355
Intensified Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame	2	--	--	
Of. Ap.+Concern for the Hearer	2	--	--	--
Of. Ap. with Alerter+Repair (indirect)	1	4	2,19	-0,139
Of. Ap.+Intensified Of. Ap.	1	1	0,00	-0,953
Promise+Repair	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Minimizing	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Blaming Others	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Intensified IFID	1	--	--	
Intensified Of. Ap.+Forgiveness	1	--	--	--
Intensified Of. Ap.+Explanation	1	--	--	--
Explanation+Repair	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Forgiveness	--	1	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter + Lack of Intent	--	2	--	--
Forgiveness+Repair	--	2	--	--
Explanation+Minimizing	--	2	--	--
Promise with Alerter+Downgrader	--	1	--	--
Total	**163**	**150**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

As is clear in Table 32, the productions provided for serious offences yielded more variety with twenty-three different combinations compared to eighteen for minor offences. In this respect, this may imply children's sensitivity to the severity of the wrongdoings. However, the same was not the case for the categories of combination. That is, irrespective of the severity degree of an offence, children's productions were

framed around certain strategies added to the explicit form of apology: *promises*, *repairs*, and expressions that show *lack of intent*. The analysis did not result in a significant difference between the usage rates. Lastly, although the difference was not statistically verified, it was observed that the usage of such strategies as *repairs*, expressions of *lack of intent* and *softeners* increased in amount in parallel to the increase in the degree of offence severity.

The following table shows the results related to children's productions of three-strategy combinations.

Table 33.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratios of Three-strategy Combinations Based on Severity of the Offence

Combinations	**High f (O1)**	**Low f (O2)**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Of. Ap.+Promise+ Repair	18	10	0,00	-0,971
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Repair	8	1	2,79	+0,095
Of. Ap.+Forgiveness+Repair	3	--	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Lack of Intent+Repair	2	1	0,01	+0,940
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Forgiveness	2	1	0,01	+0,940
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame+Lack of Intent	2	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Promise+Minimizing	1	1	0,18	-0,673
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame+Repair (indirect)	1	2	1,21	-0,271
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Forgiveness+Promise	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent with Alerter+Promise	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter + Downgrader+Repair	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Repair (indirect)	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+ Explanation+Expression of Regret	1	--	--	--
Explanation+Lack of Intent+Expression of Regret	1	--	--	--
Of. Ap.+Downgrader +Repair	--	3	--	--
Of. Ap.+A Promise+Repair (indirect)	--	--	--	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Promise+Repair	--	1	--	--
Intensified Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Repair	--	1	--	--
Explanation+ Of. Ap.+A Promise	--	1	--	--
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Intensified Of. Ap.	--	1	--	--
Of. Ap.+Expressing Self-deficiency+Repair	--	1	--	--
Total	**42**	**23**		

f=raw frequency of each category
O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

As Table 33 shows, similar amounts of combination categories were produced for serious and minor offences, which denoted to the nonexistence of a meaningful

influence of severity of the offence. A detailed examination of the results indicated children's marked tendency to use the most direct form of apology within nearly all combinations. Additionally, regardless of the degree of severity, the productions were structured around the combination formed with *a promise* and *repair* in addition to *an offer of apology*. Overall, the findings related to three-strategy combinations did not provide a sound basis for claiming children's sensitivity to the severity degree of an offence.

4.4.2. Type of Offence

In order to explore the potential effect of the type of offence on children's choices of apologizing, the data yielded totally 600 responses in child-child interactions[2] were divided into three according to the offence categories: responses provided for each type of offence scenarios, namely physical harm (scenario 1 and 3), verbal harm (scenario 2 and 4), and right violations (scenario 5 and 6) were combined and analyzed together. The analysis was conducted in three dimensions: the complexity of patterns, variety and types of strategies.

Firstly, the results were obtained in terms of the complexity of strategy patterns which pointed at single and multiple-strategy usage. By this way, it would be possible to identify the offence category which triggers more complex apologies as perceived more damaging by the participant children. This was followed by quantitative analysis for the frequencies of use for each strategy and a qualitative one for the types and variety of strategies. Table 34 below summarizes the results regarding the pattern complexity for each type of offence.

[2] As aforesaid, due to the reasons that were explained in the methodology section, type of the offence was taken as a variable only for chil-child interactions; the two scenarios that include offences committed against the teacher was excluded from such investigation.

Table 34.

Observed Frequencies and LL Ratiosof Total Strategies Based on Type of Offence

Complexity of Patterns	**Physical Harm** **f**	**Verbal Harm** **f**	**Right Violation** **f**
Single Strategy	97	87	38
Two-strategy Combinations	98	87	128
Three-strategy Combinations	5	26	34
Total	**200**	**200**	**200**

f=raw frequency of each category

As illustrated in Table 34, the preliminary analysis exhibited both similarities and differences in terms of the complexity of the productions utilized to redress the three types of offence. For instance, in all the types, the usage rate of three-strategy combinations was lower compared to the rates of single and two-strategy preferences. Moreover, the respondents were found to have utilized single and two-strategy combinations in roughly similar amounts for the mitigation of wrongdoings that include physical and verbal harm. However, this did not hold true when right violations were involved. Thus,in order to test the existence of significant differences among the productions across the three types of offence, the log-likelihood test was conducted for each two offence categories separately. The results are presented in the following Table.

Table 35.

LL Ratiosof Total Strategies Based on Type of Offence

Complexity of Patterns	**Physical harm (O1) vs. Verbal harm (O2)**		**Physical harm (O1) vs. Right violations (O2)**		**Verbal harm (O1) vs. Right violations (O2)**	
	LL	**Sig.**	**LL**	**Sig.**	**LL**	**Sig.**
Single Strategy	0,54	+0,461	26,68	**+0,000**	19,73	**+0,000**
Two-strategy Combinations	0,65	+0,419	3,99	**-0,046**	7,87	**-0,005**
Three-strategy Combinations	15,58	**-0,000**	24,19	**-0,000**	1,07	-0,301

O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

The total examination of the results presented in Table 35 demonstrates significant differences in the usage rates of single and multiple strategies within the groups. Accordingly, offences including physical and verbal harm emerged to be the

ones that elicited similar patterns in terms of complexity except for the usage of three-strategy combination which was significantly higher when verbal harm was involved ($p<.001$).

Turning to the statistical comparison of physical harm and right violations, it is clear from the results that there are significant differences in the usage rates of each category. That is, while children preferred to redress physical harms by using mostly single strategies, the patterns were observed to become more elaborate when right violations were involved. Thus, it seems possible that offences of physical harm were not considered as damaging to face compared to right violations. This finding may also be associated with children's perspectives on the consequences of different types of offences. That is to say, presumably, they regarded right violations as more detrimental to their friendship relations and hence paid much effort to provide reconciliation by using more elaborate patterns, which would, from their perspective, make their apologies more effective and convincing.

Lastly, a similar manner was observed for the differences in the complexity of remedial acts provided for verbal harm and right violations as well. To be more specific, while the offences that included verbal harm were mitigated through the use of single strategies with a statistical verification ($p<.001$), right violations were found to trigger significantly more two-strategy combinations ($p<.01$). Overall, the results revealed an overwhelming tendency among children to utilize more complex or more elaborate patterns when they caused right violations such as damaging a friend's possession. On the other hand, physical harm emerged to be the one which elicited the least elaborate patterns.

After having examined the differences in the patterns across the three type of offence in terms of the degree of complexity, a further analysis was conducted to identify the extent to which strategy choices were shaped depending on the type of offence. The results are provided in Table 36 below.

Table 36.

Observed Frequencies of Basic Strategies Based on Type of Offence

Strategies	**Physical Harm**	**Verbal Harm**	**Right Violations**
	f	**f**	**f**
Of. Ap.	61	44	17
Of. Ap. with Alerter	12	7	6
Repair	--	13	8
A Promise	6	9	3
Intensified Of. Ap.	6	7	2
An expression of regret	3	5	--
Promise with Alerter	2	--	1
Accepting the Blame	3	--	--
An Explanation	--	--	1
Concern for the Hearer	1	--	--
Expressing Lack of Intent	--	1	--
Repair (indirect)	--	1	--
Repair with Alerter	1	--	--
Minimising Offence	1	--	--
Total	**97**	**87**	**38**

Examining the table, one can notice that children incorporated nearly the same amount of variety into strategies for each type of offence. With regard to the strategy choices, it is clearly seen that the sequence of the most frequent strategies was similar across different types. It seems evident that, regardless of the offence type, *an offer of apology*either used standalone or with*an alerter* emerged as the most favored remedial act. LL test was conducted to statistically identify the extent to which differences in the amount of use in these two most preferred categories were significant. The results are illustrated in Table 37.

Table 37.

LL Ratios of the Usage of an Offer of Apology Based on Type of Offence

Strategies	**Physical harm (O1) vs. Verbal harm (O2)**		**Physical harm (O1) vs. Right violations (O2)**		**Verbal harm (O1) vs. Right violations (O2)**	
	LL	**Sig.**	**LL**	**Sig.**	**LL**	**Sig.**
An Offer of Apology	1,23	+0,268	1,64	+0,200	0,19	+0,665
Apology with Alerter	0,84	+0,358	0,23	-0,631	1,42	-0,234
Total	1,90	+0,168	0,86	+0,353	0,02	-0,899

O1: Observed frequency 1
O2: Observed frequency 2
+ indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2
-indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2

As it is clear, the statistical comparison within each type of offence did not result in a significant difference even when the same statistics were implemented to the total usage of an offer of apology including the usage with an alerter. This finding may imply that irrespective of the offence type, children's remedies were framed around the most direct form of apology either with or without *an alerter*.

Another striking point worth mentioning is related to the usage of a repair strategy. In the relevant literature, this strategy has been regarded as situation-specific and the one which is mostly called for only when real damage is involved. However, the corpus in the present study yielded in instances of repairs provided for offences of verbal harm as well, which do not result in damage. The qualitative analysis indicated that out of the two situations that include verbal harm, this strategy was mostly used as a remedial act for shouting at a friend as exemplified in the extract below.

Extract 23: Verbal harm/ Low severity/ Friend

CH43: Gel başka oyun oynayalım hadi.[Offer of Repair]

Lets' play another game.

Here, in the scenario that depicts a situation in which the transgressor (the participant child) shouts at his friend while they are playing together. When asked what he/she would say in this situation, he responded in the way illustrated above. Interestingly, he offers to play another game as restitution. Thus, it is evident that the children in the study did not employ the repair strategy only when damage to possession was involved.

The next Table displays the results of the analysis with respect to children's choices of combination categories across different types of offences.

Table 38.

Observed Frequencies of Two-Strategy Combinations Based on Type of Offence

Combinations	**Physical Harm**	**Verbal Harm**	**Right Violations**
	f	**f**	**f**
Of. Ap.+Promise	37	27	36
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent	14	6	12
Of. Ap.+Forgiveness	10	8	9
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Promise	9	3	4
Of. Ap.+Repair	8	24	31
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame	2	3	5
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Repair	2	3	3
Intensified Of. Ap.+ Promise	--	3	1
Of. Ap.+Promise with Alerter	--	2	1
Accepting the Blame with Alerter+ Of. Ap.	--	1	5
Intensified Of. Ap.+ Accepting the Blame	--	--	2
Of. Ap.+Intensified Of. Ap.	--	--	2
Forgiveness+Repair	--	--	2
Of. Ap. with Alerter+Concern for the Hearer	--	--	1
Promise +Repair	--	--	1
Of. Ap.+Minimizing	--	--	1
Of. Ap.+Blaming Others	--	--	1
Of. Ap.with Alerter+ Intensified Of. Ap.	--	--	1
Intensified Of. Ap.+Explanation	--	--	1
Explanation+Minimizing	--	--	2
Intensified Of. Ap.with Alerter+Promise	--	--	2
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent with Alerter	1	--	1
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Repair (indirect)	4	--	1
Of. Ap.+Repair (indirect)	7	--	3
Of. Ap.+Softener	2	1	--
Of. Ap. with Alerter+Forgiveness	1	--	--
Intensified IFID+Expression of Regret	1	--	--
Of. Ap.+Concern for the Hearer	1	--	--
Downgrader+ Repair	--	4	--
Promise with Alerter+Downgrader	--	1	--
Explanation+Repair	--	1	--
Total	**98**	**87**	**128**

It is exhibited in Table 38 that the number of the combination categories produced by children was higher for the offences of right violations. This finding may result from the higher amount of instances of two-strategy combinations for this type of offence in the whole corpus. However, this does not always mean higher amounts of variety. Thus, it may also be associated with the expected consequences of such kind of offences from children's perspective. That is, they might consider right violations as more severe offences that can result in more severe consequences. When it comes to the

combination categories, it is apparent that forming an apology act set by combining *an offer of apology* with *promise* was the most favored way of presenting a remedial act regardless of the offence type. However,the sequence of the most preferred categories did not indicate a homogeneous distribution in each type of offence. Accordingly, while the offences of physical harm elicited combination of "özür dilerim" (I apologize) with expressions that show *lack of intent* like "yanlışlıkla oldu" (it happened accidentally) as the second most preferred category, using "özür dilerim" with *repairs* was the most popular manner for providing mitigation for verbal harm and right violations. Another point that needs to be highlighted was the usage of repairs also for physical harm although the frequency was smaller compared to other types. One example utterance is provided below.

Extract 24: Physical harm/ High Severity/Friend

CH43: Hadi yerden kalk, başka bir oyun oynayalım. [Offer of Repair]

Stand up, let's play another game.

All in all, *promises*, expressions of *lack of intent* and *forgiveness* in combination with "özür dilerim" emerged to be the categories which were available in all types of wrongdoings.

The last Table in this section belongs to the results of the analysis related to the three-combination categories emerged in the corpus for each type of offence, which provide information on variety and types of categories.

Table 39.

Observed Frequencies of Three-strategy Combinations Based on Type of Offence

Combinations	**Physical Harm** **f**	**Verbal Harm** **f**	**Right Violations** **f**
Of. Ap.+Promise+Repair	2	13	13
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Repair	1	4	5
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Lack of Intent+Repair	--	2	1
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame+ Repair (indirect)	--	--	1
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame+ Repair	--	1	1
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Forgiveness	2	--	2
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+Intensified Of. Ap.	--	--	1
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Forgiveness+A Promise	--	--	1
Of. Ap.+Forgiveness+Repair	2	--	3
Of. Ap.+Promise+Minimizing	--	--	2
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Promise+Repair	--	--	1
Intensified Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent+ Repair	--	--	1
Of. Ap.+Accepting the Blame+Lack of Intent	--	--	2
Of. Ap.+Downgrader+Repair	--	3	--
Of. Ap.+Expressing Self-deficiency+Repair	--	1	--
Of. Ap.+Lack of Intent with Alerter+Promise	--	1	--
Of. Ap.with Alerter+Downgrader+Repair	--	1	--
Total	**7**	**26**	**34**

Examination of the results illustrated in the Table reveals that in situations where right violations were involved, children were found to produce more diverse categories, which was not unexpected since it may be related to the relatively higher usage rate of the three-strategy combinations in such offences as previously clarified. In addition, the same inclination that was observed in the preferences of two-strategy combinations also proved to be the same for three-strategy productions as the category of *offer of apology+promise+offer of repair* emerged as the most preferred one for all types of offence with varying amount of use. That is, it seems that children's preferences revolved around the same category irrespective of the type of offence.

4.5. Summary

In this chapter, the analysis of the data was presented following the order of research questions. Accordingly, at first, findings related to children's metapragmatic knowledge of apologies showed that both younger and older group were aware of the function of apologies, which was apparent in their ability to distinguish among other speech acts used as controls and situations in which an offence was involved. Besides,

the use of single strategy was significantly more in the corpus of younger children, which pointed at a developmental trend in this respect. When it comes to the effect of sociolinguistic variables, no significant differences in terms of the complexity of patterns were observed for the variables of gender, parents' level of education, and children's preschool experience. However, there were significant differences in the frequencies of certain strategies between the groups. With regard to children's ability to vary strategies depending on a number of contextual parameters, the results revealed children's sensitivity to the seriousness degree of the offence, the type of offence, and the social status relationships evidenced in their preferences of more complex patterns for serious offences and right violations.In the next chapter, discussion of these findings accompanied by the outcomes of previous research will be presented.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

5.0. Introduction

The overall aim of the present study was to uncover the pragmalinguistic and socio-pragmatic skills of preschool-aged children with regard to their performance of apologies. More specifically, the first goal was to detect the potential differences between the two age groups of children (4;0-4;11 and 5;0-6;0) in terms of the complexity, variety, and types of their apology realization patterns, which would make it possible to explore a potential expansion in the repertoire of strategies with increasing age. Additionally, the influence of gender, preschool experience, parents' level of education, and interlocutor's social status on children's strategies and linguistic choices was investigated as well. Lastly, children's socio-pragmatic skills were tested by tracing their ability to modify the realization patterns they've utilized depending on such contextual factors as the severity of the offence and type of offence.

The data was obtained through responses of 100 preschool children to ODCT which included eight offence scenarios. The qualitative data obtained via these responses were transcribed and the strategies were classified for quantitative analysis which was actualized through descriptive statistics and log-likelihood calculations. The analysis was conducted according to a number of dimensions such as complexity of patterns, and types and variety of strategies. At first, children were grouped into two according to their age to find out the developmental patterns. Subsequently, an analysis was conducted in the overall corpus to uncover the influence of several social and contextual factors described above. The findings were illustrated in the previous chapter. This chapter is devoted to a discussion of the overall results gained from the analysis.

5.1. Discussion

This section is framed in a way that it presents a discussion of the findings, which is structured according to the order of the research questions presented in the first chapter. The interpretations and discussions of the findings will be based on the relevant

literature and findings of the previous research on both adult-usage and children tendencies, most of which are presented in Chapter I.

Research Question 1

Do the children aged between 4;0 and 6;0 display metapragmatic awareness related to correct way of using language for apologizing?

The participants of the present study were presented 12 scenarios in ODCT manipulated in a way that they consisted of a number of contextual variables. While four of the scenarios are distractors used as control including the speech act of suggestion, refusal, thanking and request, the remaining eight (six for child-child interactions, and two for child-teacher interactions) comprises of situations that require an apology. After presenting each scenario orally by showing the related pictures, the researcher firstly asked the child "what should you do/say in this situation?" before receiving their responses to situations with an aim to explore whether he/she has a metapragmatic knowledge about apologies, which would reflect their knowledge of social rules. In other words, the main aim was to test whether they knew that the situations which cause physical or emotional damage to a person necessitate an apology. In this respect, their answer would also demonstrate their ability and knowledge to distinguish among several different speech acts such as requesting, refusing or suggesting as each is used in different social contexts with different functions for different purposes. Their responses were transcribed and an analysis was actualized in terms of whether the responses included such statements as "I should apologize" or not.

According to the findings, children, irrespective of their age, displayed the knowledge of using the correct speech act, namely apology, for the transgression scenarios presented to them. The analysis of the data also indicated that they were able to provide correct responses for the situations of distractors by saying "I should say *thank you*" for the situation in which a friend gives his colouring book to a child or "I should make a request" for the scenario in which the child wants to use his friend's play dough.

This shows that at this age (between 4;0 and 6;0) children can distinguish among different speech acts and they are cognizant of the remedial function of apologies. To be more precise, they perceive apologies as such acts that have the function of redressing the transgressions and providing reconciliation. In this sense, this finding may also reveal that they have the proper social and cognitive capacities to comprehend what an

apology is and what function it serves. As stated by Meier (2004, p.4), apology production is dependent on “cognitive maturation” which is accompanied by the changes related to “perceptions of responsibility and intentionality...” Thus, it appears thatpreschool-aged children’s knowledge that they need to apologize also shows their awareness of the appropriate behavior expected in transgression situations. This demonstrates they have such kind of perception that violation of a social norm necessitates an apology to maintain social harmony.

This finding is in agreement with what has been reported byKampf & Blum-Kulka (2007, p. 6). In their study, the rich variety of apology strategies utilized by 4-6-year-old children urged the researchers to state that “acquisition of remedial competencies for face management” is an early accomplishment. Similarly, the outcomes drawn in the field of social psychology provided such kind of evidence.Accordingly, even two and three-year-old children’s and also four and five-year-olds’ using apologies drove the researchers to the conclusion that at this age children are cognizant of the social function of apologies in mitigating wrongdoings and as a way of expressing remorse(see Kochanska et al., 1995;Smith et al., 2010). A similar claim was pointed out by Sackin and Thelen (1984) whose study also revealed children’s metapragmatic knowledge of apology as a conflict resolution strategy. Regarding children’s expectations about apologies, consistent with the finding of the present study, Drell and Jaswal (2016, p. 742) found that six- and seven-year-olds had a certain perception on the role of apologies in repairing relationships since in their study children reported that they “would feel better and would share more when a transgressor offered restitution or apologized spontaneously than when a transgressor had to be prompted to apologize or did not apologize at all”.

Another similar finding comes from Becker’s (1991, p. 7) study on metapragmatic comments of children between the ages of 2;6 and 4;3. Her naturalistic data displayed children’s using five different types of metapragmatic comments indicating their knowledge of pragmatic rules. In the same line with our finding, children in her study exhibited knowledge of the mitigating function of the politeness marker “please” by stating “When I say *please* then they say *Yeah, you can have a bite* and I take it away and I eat it all up”. This shows their awareness of the power of *please*in getting things done like the social function of apologies in rectifying damaged relations. This is similar to the outcome with regard to children’s metapragmatic knowledge of requests and promises that even preschool children have knowledge to

some extent (see Astington, 1990; Bernicot, 1991; Bernicot and Laval, 1996) although, as Becker (1991) states, developmental improvements related to judgments and explanations occur during primary school period.

Research Question 2

What are the characteristics of 4-6-year-old children's apology strategies in terms of complexity, variety, and types? Is there a developmental trend?

In order to uncover children's preferences of apology strategies, they were presented eight different offence scenarios orally with several pictures for each and then their responses were tape-recorded. The transcribed responses were coded using the taxonomy chosen for the study (see Chapter II and III). The strategies in the study corpus were classified into three in terms of complexity of patterns: basic or single strategies, two-combination strategies, and three-combination strategies. The analysis was actualized using descriptive statistics (SPSS). At first, the total usage rates in each category were calculated in order to explore the complexity of strategy patterns utilized by the two age groups: 4;0-4;11 (mean age=4;5) and 5;0-6;0 (mean age=5;8). And then types and variety of strategies used by both groups in each category were detected. Further analysis was conducted using the log-likelihood test to search for the existence of a statistically significant difference between the two age groups in terms of the usage rates of single and multiple strategies. Lastly, the frequency rates of each type of strategy were also evaluated to identify a potential expansion in the repertoire of apology strategies with increasing age.

The results of the analysis revealed a higher employment rate of single strategies in the corpus of the younger group. The usage indicated a decrease as children got older and the statistical analysis pointed at a significant difference ($p<.05$). Thus, it seems that children become more prone to employ multiple strategy patterns to mitigate their offences with increasing age. This can be attributable to the developments in their perceptions on responsibility taking following an offence in addition to the developments in their linguistic knowledge and skills. This finding is consistent with what was found by Darby and Schlenker (1982) who concluded that older children (9-12-year-olds) judge more elaborate apologies as more effective to express greater regret subsequent to a transgression compared to younger ones (5-year-olds). Similarly, as Smith (2009) states, since apologies include a certain degree of complexity, it is not unusual that children at different ages understand and use apologies differently. Thus,

we can infer that the older participants in the present study might have considered that single strategies would not be effective and sufficient to ensure reconciliation with the offended party.

When it comes to the multiple strategy use, both groups were observed to mainly prefer two-combination strategies while expressing their remorse. However, the use of two- and three-combination strategies was found to be higher in the older group although the difference was not statistically verified ($p>.01$). This finding matches with that of Chang's (2016) whofound a developmental pattern in the complexity of strategies with the youngest group's (nine-year-olds) using mainly single or two-strategy combinations contrary to older ones whose corpus consisted mainly of two-, three-, four-, five-, and six-strategy combinations. In addition, a finding similar to the present study was also reported by Ely & Gleason (2006) when they investigated the effect of age on the forms of apology strategies produced by children between the ages of 1;2 and 6;1. Accordingly, the use of elaborate apologies indicated an increase in parallel to an increase in age. Elaboration was taken by the researchers as the productions which included such other strategies as repairs in addition to an expression of remorse.

Overall, the higher employment of multiple strategies over standalone usage (single strategies) in both age groups stands in a complete agreement with the outcomes drawn from teenage or adult preferences in various languages (see Demeter, 2006; Holmes, 1990; Vollmer &Olshtain, 1989).

However, our finding in terms of the usage rates of multiple strategies exhibits both similarities and differences with Schleien et al.'s (2010) study on children's apologies with naturalistic data obtained when they were 2;6 and 4;6 years old and 2 years later. The apologies detected in their data were classified into three categories: simple (e.g."I'm sorry"), justified(e.g. "I'm sorry, but I didn't know you were using it"), and augmented (e.g. "Sorry, you can have it back") similar to our categorization as single, two- and three-combination strategy. According to their outcome, simple apologies were prevalent at all ages. However, older children were reported to use more simple apologies than younger ones in contrast to our finding where older children used single strategies less than younger ones. Moreover, in their study, older children were found to use more justified and augmented apologies than the younger group but the difference was not significant. Overall, more complex apologies were not prevalent in their corpus in contrary to our finding which pointed at a higher usage rate of two-

combination strategies than the single ones by both age groups. The disparities in the findings may well be associated with the differences in children's ages in the two studies and can also be related to the methodological differences as in the present study the data were collected through hypothetical scenarios.

When the data were analyzed in terms of the type and variety of strategies, it was found that the younger group utilized slightly more different categories of basic strategies than the older group. This may stem from the fact that the younger group relied on single strategies in their responses more than the older group, which might lead to an increase in variety. When the relevant literature is examined, there is a dearth of research which has directly focused on the effect of age on the variety of apology productions. To our best knowledge, there is only one study and it is on adult-usage. This study belongs to Nazlı (2013) who reported a similar finding to our study. She found that younger participants (aged between 19 and 20) were the ones who used larger number of categories compared to the other age groups while realizing their apologies.

With regard to the types of strategies, the results displayed an overwhelming preference of the sub-category of IFIDs,*an offer of apology*, in both age groups; having higher usage rate in the younger group, which showed that they mostly preferred to apologize in a more explicit way. It is expressed in the form of "özür dilerim" (I apologize) which is the most formulaic form of apology in Turkish while in the other languages such as English"I'm sorry" was found to be the most routinized form which falls in the category of *an expression of regret*(see Owen, 1983; Aijmer, 1996; Intachakra, 2001). The overreliance on "özür dilerim" (I apologize) by the younger group may be attributed to the possibility that they have a limited battery of IFIDs.

The usage rates of other subcategories revealed that *a request for forgiveness* emerged in the form of "beni affet" (Forgive me) or "afedersin" (Excuse me) was used only by the younger group. In a similar vein, *an expression of regret* ("üzgünüm" or "üzüldüm") (I'm sorry or I felt sorry) was employed only by the older group. This finding may imply that children's repertoire of explicit apologies expands as they get older and overuse of *an offer of apology* decreases as the variety of forms for apologizing are acquired over time.

In contrast, Chang's (2016) study on apologies in Mandarin Chinese revealed a significantly higher reliance on *expressing regret* by younger groups (age 9 and 12) which left itself to the use of *an offer of apology* in the older groups. This lent support to

the researcher to claim that children learn “I’m sorry” earlier than “I apologize”. A similar finding was reported on Persian and Kurdish children’s apology realization patterns (see Sadeghi, 2013).

As abovementioned, the difference in the preferences of sub-categories of IFIDs may stem from the language-specific issues. More precisely, while “özür dilerim” is the most formulaic form in Turkish, it may be “üzgünüm” in Mandarin Chinese. Similarly, “pardon” and “forgive”, rather than “sorry”, emerged as the most common IFID type in Hebrew data obtained from Israeli children (see Kampf &Blum-Kulka, 2007). Thus, it appears that each language has its own routinized performative verb indicating remorse which “cannot be perfectly mapped onto one another” (Suszczynska, 1999, p. 1058). More specifically, this means that there are variations across languages in terms of the realization of IFIDs. For instance, while the most routine expression is “I’m sorry” for English, it is “forgive me” for Hungarian or “I apologize” for German. It seems it is “I apologize” and “forgive me” in Turkish (Hatipoğlu, 2003).

Examination of the Turkish adult literature yielded an outcome which echoes children’s patterns in that both Hatipoğlu (2003) and Nazlı (2013) reported a marked preference of *an offer of apology* by Turkish native speakers among the other categories. This shows that similar to adults, Turkish children’s apologies are formulaic in semantic structure. However, while in Hatipoğlu’s data the usage of *request for forgiveness* had an equal amount of usage to *offer of apology*, this was not the case for children in the present study, which may be associated with their limited linguistic skills and limited repertoire of phrases for apologizing.

Additionally,the calculation of the overall usage of IFIDs –together with all the subcategories- revealed an overwhelmingly higher usage rate than the other strategies in the list for both groups. As expected, this finding completely matches with children’s preferences in various languages like Kurdish and Persian (Sadeghi, 2013), Mandarin Chinese (Chang, 2016), and Hebrew (Kampf &Blum-Kulka, 2007). In this regard, this outcome provides evidence for claiming that Turkish children are not different from Turkish teenagers or adults in terms of their choices as their productions mostly resulted in IFIDs (e.g., Hatipoğlu, 2003; Erçetin, 1995; Çetinavcı, 2012; Nazlı, 2013) similar to the speakers of other languages (e.g., Afgari, 2007; Nureddeen, 2008). Thus, it appears that IFIDs are the most prevalent remedial acts not only in the corpus of adults but also in children’sin most languages.

Regarded as one way of reinforcing apologies, intensification was observed to be used only within the sub-category *an offer of apology*. Namely, children preferred to use the other sub-categories of IFIDs like *a request for forgiveness* or an *expression of regret* in their basic forms; not producing such forms as "çok afedersin" or "çok üzgünüm" (I'm so/very sorry). On the contrary, Turkish university students were found to intensify all the three subcategories although much of the intensification was actualized within *an offer of apology* (see Hatipoğlu, 2003). In addition, as illustrated in the qualitative analysis, apologies were intensified by only using the adverbial "çok" similar to Turkish students' overwhelming usage in Hatipoğlu's (2003) study. However, in contrast to the children in the present study, her participants employed such other intensification patterns as "çok çok" (very very much), "gerçekten" (really) or "vallahi" (by God!, I swear it's so!) internal to *an offer of apology*. Moreover, different from our finding, her data yielded intensifications within*an expression of regret* like "çok çok üzgünüm" (I'm so so sorry) or "çok ama çok üzgünüm" (I'm really very sorry) and within *a request for forgiveness* such as "çok çok affedersiniz" or "umarım beni affetmenizi sağlar"(I hope this helps you forgive me). This may be attributable to the fact that children at this age, naturally, do not possess a rich range of intensification patterns when compared to adults. Therefore, it may be inferred that mastery of intensification patterns requires more time and exposure to such patterns by getting into various types of interactions.

Following IFIDs, *a promise of forbearance* had a popular usage in both groups in the present study in contrast to Persian, Kurdish, and Israeli children (see Sadeghi, 2013; Kampf & Blum-Kulka's, 2007). The contradiction in the outcomes may potentially stem from methodological differences: using DCTs vs. role-plays. However, even if the same kind of instrument, for instance, DCT, is utilized, this does not guarantee similar results since the scenarios included should also be the same as certain strategies are reported as situation-specific (Olshtain, 1989). This can also be related to the cultural differences among the speech communities since children are exposed to social and cultural norms prevailing in their own speech community.

Interestingly, the productions of Turkish adults and teenagers (see, Hatipoğlu, 2003; Nazlı, 2013) as well as speakers of other languages (see Chamani, 2014; Nemeth, 2015; Nureddeen, 2008)yielded in hardly any usage in terms of *promises*. The disparity in children and adult-usage in Turkish may be associated with parents'constantly insisting on their children to give promises to prevent similar future actions.

Another interesting finding that is worth mentioning is related to the use of *offer of repair*. The older group was observed to produce more repairs than the younger group when all the usage in single, two- and three-strategy combinations was evaluated. This echoes Chang's (2016) outcome which pointed at a gradual increase in the use of this strategy with increasing age. Most probably, as children get older, they regard offering compensation for the damage they've caused as a more effective way of mitigating their offence. This can also be attributable to the changes occurred in children's perceptions of responsibility and intentionality with increasing age (Meier, 2004).

Overall, Turkish children's apologies were found to fit into the categories described by previous studies in Turkish or other languages with certain differences in the amount and the sequenceof use. For instance, while the *acknowledgment of responsibility* had an overwhelming popularity among Turkish university students (see Hatipoğlu, 2003), the same did not hold true for the children in the present study as they showed a marked preference for *repairs* and *promises*. However, children indicated instances of using sub-categories of this strategy such as *accepting the blame* or *expressing lack of intent* in their multiple strategy productions. Hence, it can be stated that children utilize this category as well but mostly in their combinations, which is also similar to adults who preferred to use this category in combination with the most explicit form of apology (see Hatipoğlu, 2003).

As Fraser (1981) states, in general, speakers prefer to use a combination of a number of strategies for apologizing rather than a single strategy. Similarly, both older and younger children in the present study formed combinations that consisted of two and three strategies. The findings revealed that nearly all two- and three-strategy combinations included *an offer of apology* in both younger and older group. The data regarding two-strategy combinations did not yield much difference in the number of categories produced by the two groups. However, significant differences were found in the usage rates of certain combinations: these are *an offer of apology + a promise of forbearance,* which had higher use in the younger group ($p<.01$) and *an offer of apology + offer of repair* which was preferred significantly more in the older group ($p<.01$).Similarly, the data indicated no difference between the groups in terms of the variety incorporated into the categories of three-strategy combinations. In general, there was an overwhelming tendency to combine *an offer of apology* with *a promise* and *an offer of repair* in both age groups.

All in all, we can conclude that in the present study, irrespective of their age children's productions were mostly shaped around three strategies: *an offer of apology*, *a promise* and *an offer of repair*; either used as standalone or in combinations and there are certain developments in correlation with an increasing age as above-mentioned.

Research Question 3

Do the children's preferences of apologizing strategies display change in terms of such social variables as

a) gender

As stated in Chapter 1, one aim of the study was to examine whether the gender of the apologizer had an influence on the complexity, variety, and types of apology realization patterns produced by totally 100 preschool children in eight apology scenarios. Hence, the participants were grouped into two as male and female. The usage rates of single strategies, two- and three-strategy combinations were obtained via descriptive statistics, which was followed by log-likelihood calculations to check the existence of a significant difference between the groups. The results of the analysis displayed differences in the frequency rates of single and multiple strategies: the use of both two-and three-strategy combinations was higher in the female group compared to males although the difference was not observed as significant. Furthermore, both groups were prone to combine two strategies to redress their transgressions.

To the researcher's best knowledge, there are only two studies in the relevant literature on the influence of gender on children's apologetic behavior, which means that much of our knowledge on this issue has been based on findings drawn from adult-usage. Therefore, the discussions relyspecificallyon Chang's (2016) and Schleien et al.'s (2010) study for children's productions, which is followed by the comparisons with the productions of female and male adults.

In parallel to our finding, Chang (2016) pointed at males' mostly using simpler patterns (single or two-strategy combinations) compared to their female counterparts who provided responses including a higher number of complex patterns (three-, four- and five-strategy combinations). It appears that females are more concerned about the language they use to beg for forgiveness may be because they are more inclined to resolve conflicts (see Sheldon, 1990). There are also findings that indicate just the reverse (see Cook-Gumperz &Szymanski, 2001) or no significant difference (e.g., Ladegaard, 2004; Greif&Gleason, 1980; Schleien et al., 2010). Therefore, the gender issue as a variable that affects children's remedial acts necessitates further scrutiny to

reach a consensus. The same holds true for such effect on adult-usage since, on the one hand, women's productions were found to be longer and more elaborate (see Marquez-Reiter, 1999; Hatipoğlu, 2003), and on the other hand, no difference was reported.

The analysis of single strategy types indicated both groups' utilizing nearly the same range of strategies. Although the frequency of certain strategies pointed at variations across the two groups, the difference was far from being significant. This finding is supportive of the outcomes of other relevant studies (e.g., Holmes, 1990; Meier, 1996). However, it stands in contrast to some others which announced the existence of significant differences between males and females regarding the usage rates of certain strategies (e.g., Deuchar, 1989; Marquez-Reiter, 2000; Rothman and Gondossy, 1982; Chamani, 2014).

Together with its sub-categories, the main category *IFIDs* was found to be the most preferred strategy in both male and female group as in several other studies (e.g., Owen, 1983; Holmes, 1990; Chamani, 2014). Among the sub-categories, *an offer of apology* with or without *an alerter* emerged as the most popular one in both groups, which was followed by *an offer of repair* and *a promise*. In parallel, IFIDs emerged to be the most popular remedial acts in the corpus of nine-year-old males and females in Chang's (2016) study. However, the same was not the case for their strategy preferences as certain strategies were more popular in one group or another in contrast to the similarity in the sequence of most favored strategies in the present study.

Regarding the Turkish adult-usage, the outcomes drawn from the relevant studies do not show consistency with the present study in this respect. While Nazlı (2013) found a popular usage of IFIDs by both male and females, Hatipoğlu (2003) came up with the same result only in the corpus of males as opposed to females whose first choice emerged to be an *acknowledgment of responsibility*. With regard to the use of sub-categories of IFIDs, similar to our finding, females in Hatipoğlu's study mostly used an *offer of apology*. On the other hand, in contrast to our finding, males mainly employed *a request for forgiveness* (e.g., afedersiniz; beni affet) (Excuse me; Forgive me).

When the productions related to strategy combinations were analyzed, it was found that female children's corpus yielded more variety in two-strategy productions compared to males. However, the popularly used categories were similar for both groups only with some differences in the amount of use. Accordingly, the use of the combination of *an offer of apology* with *an offer of repair* and also with *expressing lack*

of intent was found significantly higher (p<.01 and .05, respectively) in the male group. Concerning three-strategy combinations, female children, similar to males, produced greater number of combinations compared to males. The category of *an offer of apology+a promise+offer of repair* was the most preferred combination in both groups.

b) parents' level of education

Parents' level of education has been stated as one factor that influences the quality and quantity of the input provided to children (Hoff et al., 2002). Therefore, to explore such an effect on children's manner of apologizing, the children were grouped into two in terms of their mothers' and fathers' level of education as lower (up to high school) and higher (university and higher education). However, since the existing literature does not, to our best knowledge, include studies which directly investigated the influence of such variable on children's remedial acts,the discussion here mostly covers the comparison of the research outcomes on the effect of this parameter on children's general language skills.

The analysis revealed that unlike our provisional expectations, children of less-educated mothers were found to use multiple strategies in their apologies more than the children of more educated mothers although the difference was not statistically verified. In this respect, this finding is not compatible with several researchers' (e.g. Hoff-Ginsberg, 1998; Pancsofar, 2010; Dollaghan et al., 1999) claim that children of more educated mothers had more advanced receptive and productive language skills.However, it may not be possible to make interpretations on the potential causes of this contradictory outcome as parents' apologizing styles in their interactions with their children were not included among the aims of the present study. More precisely, a reasonable correlation can only be possible with a comparison of less and more educated mothers' manners of apologizing with their children's realization patterns, which is beyond the scope of this study.

Children's single strategy preferences indicated similarity in both groups in terms of the range and amount. That is, no statistically significant difference was found between the two groups in the frequencies of each strategy. Irrespective of their mothers' level of education, they mostly employed IFIDs to redress their offences. *An offer of repair* and *a promise of forbearance* also emerged to be popular ones. Moreover, unlike our expectation, the corpus of children of less educated mothers yielded more variety in two-strategy combinations. A statistically significant difference

was found in the usage rates of three categories: one was *an offer of apology+promise* which had significantly higher use by the children of less educated mothers; another one was *an offer of apology with alerter+a promise* which was significantly higher in number in another group. It appears that both groups utilized the combination of a direct form of apology and a promise to assure the offended party that a similar future action won't be committed again. Apart from these, the categories that were popularly selected were similar in both groups. Lastly, the three-category combinations indicated similarity in terms of the variety and the sequence of most favored combinations.

Overall, it can be inferred thatin the present study mothers' level of education did not emerge as a decisive parameter on children's apology productions. As aforesaid, parents' linguistic patterns were beyond the scope of the study. Therefore, further research which will compare parents' and their children's realization patterns is needed to make sound judgments and reach certain generalizations. This, in turn, may shed light on the impact of parents' educational background on children's pragmatic competence with regard to their performance of apologies.

Fathers' level of education has also been associated with children's language output in general. More educated fathers have been reported to participate in caregiving and socialization activities with young children more than less educated fathers (Pancsofar, 2010; Gavin et al., 2002). Concerning this, it was initially expected that children of more educated fathers may have better pragmatic skills. The analysis indicated that two-strategy combinations were higher in usage in the corpus of children with less educated fathers eventhough the difference was not found significant. On the other hand, the use of three-strategy combinations was higher in children of more educated fathers but the difference was not statistically significant. Interestingly, the frequency rate of single strategy use was also higher in this group. In terms of multiple strategy use (only three-combinations), this finding partly matches with the outcomes of Zhang, et al. (2008) who reported that children of more educated fathers had more advanced language skills although we cannot generalize this finding to children's pragmatic skills.

With regard to the variety and types of single strategy choices, the results indicated that children of more educated fathers utilized a richer range of strategies. However,*an offer of apology* emerged to be the most popular strategy for both groups, but using this strategy with an *alerter* was preferred significantly more ($p<.05$) by children of less educated fathers. *Promise* and *offer of repair* were also popular

strategies in both groups. All in all, although there were slight differences in the sequence, children's strategies were observed to shape around certain strategies.

Unlike what was found in terms of variety of categories in single strategy choices, children of less-educated fathers produced a higher number of two-strategy combination categories. Mostly preferred categories were common for both groups without a significant difference in frequency. Combining *an offer of apology* with an *expression of lack of intent* was significantly ($p<.05$) more popular among children of less educated fathers. On the other hand, adding an expression that shows acceptance of the blame within a direct form of apology was significantly ($p<.05$) more common among children of more educated fathers. Regarding three-strategy combinations, both groups produced the same amount of categories. The most popular category for both groups was the combination of *an offer of apology, a promise* and *an offer of repair*.

c) preschool experience

Level of education has been considered as a factor that determines speakers' manner of apology in the adult literature and has proved to differentiate their productions in terms of the level of directness and the number of words (see Özyıldırım, 2011). Regarding children, due to their age,the influence of the same variable can only be tested by taking into account their preschool experience. Since preschool education provides children with a social learning environment in which they are engaged into various kinds of interactions with their peers and teachers, it is not unexpected that it contributes to language learning and use (Öztürk, 1995).

Therefore, in order to explore the potential difference that preschool experience creates in children's apologetic behavior, the participant children were divided into two consisting of the ones with preschool experience and those who had no experience before. The analysis of their productions elucidated higher employment rate of three-strategy combinationsin the corpus of children with preschool experience although the difference was not significant. This means that they formed more complex strategy patterns to mitigate harm or offence they'd caused. This finding is partly supportive of the outcomes of Whedall & Martin (1977) who found that preschool had a more positive contribution to children's language development than home setting. A similar conclusion was drawn in Öztürk's (1995) study in which children with preschool experience had significantly better receptive and productive language skills together with a higher level of vocabulary development.

In addition, we observed that single strategy productions did not yield any difference in terms of variety. This was also the case for the types of strategies they preferred. That is, in both group, IFIDs, in total, had an overwhelmingly higher usage rate than the other strategies. However, using *an offer of repair* with *an alerter* was significantly ($p<.05$) more popular among children without preschool experience. Regarding the multiple strategy usage, children without preschool experience were found to produce more categories of two-strategy combinations. On the other hand, the sequence of most preferred combinations did not indicate much change across the two groups. Similarly, the analysis of three-strategy combinations yielded no difference between the two groups with regard to the variety of categories and the usage rates of each combination.

To summarize, it can be stated that although the analysis yielded more complex strategy patterns produced more by children with preschool experience, we cannot generalize this finding to their general language level. We may only claim that preschool education has an effect on their use of language in general and apology realizations in particular; but only in terms of complexity. Concerning the types and variety of strategies, each group displayed overwhelming employment of a certain strategy and the sequence of the most favored strategies did not differ much across the two groups.

d) interlocutor's social status

Hearer's social status or power over the speaker has been reported by many scholars (e.g., Brown&Levinson, 1987; Fraser, 1981) as one of the parameters that affect the seriousness of a face-threatening act and hence strategy selection. In order to explore the possible correlation between the social status relationship and children's linguistic behaviors in terms of apologies, scenarios were manipulated in such a way that they consisted of offences committed against friends as having equal status (six scenarios), and their preschool teacher as representing a higher status (two scenarios). The analysis of the responses was actualized on the basis of three dimensions: complexity, variety, and types of strategies employed to apologize.

The results indicated that the remedial acts addressed to friends and teachers mostly comprised of two-strategy combinations. The rates of use were found higher when the victim was the teacher although the difference was not statistically significant. However, when the frequency rates of three-strategy combinations, as the most

elaborate patterns, were examined, it was observed that the usage was significantly higher ($p<.001$) when the remedies were directed to friends. This means that more elaborate apologies were provided to equals. In other words, remedies exchanged between the child and the teacher yielded in significantly lower usage rate of three-strategy combinations. This may show that children attach much importance to their friendship relations (Sell &Rice, 1988).

In this regard, this finding does not conform to what has been put forth by Brown and Levinson (1987) who argue that longer apologies are addressed upwards to hearers with higher status rather than downwards to a lower status. In addition, the finding stands in contrast to the claim of Fraser (1981, p. 268) who points out that "as the degree of familiarity increases between interactants, the need to provide elaborate apologies decreases". Unlike our finding, his study indicated that apologies addressed to more powerful people were longer and more elaborate compared to the ones directed to equals.

The outcomes coming from Turkish adult-usage show inconsistency with the present findings. Accordingly, in her cross-cultural study, Hatipoğlu (2003) found that Turkish subjects gave the longest apologies to the ones with higher status, while the apologies addressed to equal and low-status interactants had the same length. However, the differences in length were not found statistically significant. In other words, Turkish university students' manner of apology did not vary significantly depending on the status of the hearer. On the other hand, similar to our finding, British subjects in her study were reported to utilize significantly longer apologies to people with equal status (e.g. friends and classmates) while they used the shortest ones to the receivers with lower and higher status.

As to children's use of language depending on social status relationships, the detailed investigation of studies on children's speech variation demonstrated that in contrast to our finding, children, in general, indicated sensitiveness to the power of speakers: for the roles in which they were more powerful, they employed less polite form of requests and for the less powerful roles politer request types were utilized. They associated more power to the roles of father, doctor, and teacher (see Anderson, 1990). The ability to distinguish among addressees has been reported in Gleason and Perlmann (1985) and Sachs and Devin's (1976) studies as well. In their study, this ability was reflected in children's use of simple and reduced length of utterances and raised frequency of voices with ample repetitions in their speech to younger listeners

compared to their speech to adults which included relatively few imperatives and a number of politeness markers.

Furthermore, the finding which revealed children's employment of more complex strategy patterns in exchanges with their friends is not in line with what has been reported by Chang (2018). Her findings indicated that there were statistically significant differences in the mean number of apology strategies employed for equal-status and higher-status situations; higher mean number of strategies was provided for the ones who were higher in status like a teacher. In all age groups, participants were found to use more complex apology patterns (three-, or four-strategy combinations) while addressing the teacher than a friend.

When it comes to the types and variety of single strategies utilized by the children in the present study, the analysis revealed that the range of remedial acts directed to equal status was greater than those employed to mitigate offences committed against the teacher. Namely, the distribution of strategies addressed to interactants with different status was observed to be different from each other, which is supportive of the outcome emerged in Hatipoğlu's (2003) study.

In terms of strategy types, the data yielded an overwhelming usage of IFIDs; mainly the sub-category *an offer of apology*, irrespective of the hearer's status. However, it was found that children chose to employ this strategy ("özür dilerim) significantly more for the offences committed against the teacher. In this sense, this finding is similar to that of Hatipoğlu (2003) who found differences in strategy preferences of Turkish university students depending on the status of the victim. Accordingly, IFIDs emerged to be the most popular strategy when the hearer was higher in status while it was the *acknowledgment of responsibility* when the interlocutor had equal status. On the other hand, there is a disparity in findings of the two studies in tems of the frequency rates of sub-categories of IFIDs: while in the present study the most favored category was *an offer of apology* regardless of the hearer's status, participants in Hatipoğlu's (2003) study were found to vary subcategories depending on the status. Accordingly, whereas *offer of apology* was directed to the ones who were in higher status, *a request for forgiveness* (excuse me) was addressed to lower and equal status interlocutors.

Additionally, the remedial exchanges between equals indicated significantly higher usage rate for the category *an offer of apology when* used with *an alerter*, similar to *offer of repair*.This finding does not comply with Chang's (2018) who found that

children reflected their status sensitivity by using *alerters* mostly in their responses to transgressions committed against the teacher and there was more variety in the remedial acts when they were directed to the teacher. Another contradictory finding with Chang's (2018) is related to the use of intensified apologies, which were found to be directed mostly to equal status interactants in the present study although the difference in usage rates was not statistically significant. In contrast, Chang's (2018) study revealed that intensified apologies were addressed mostly to the teacher similar to Olshtain and Cohen's (1983, p. 21) finding that "I'm sorry" was replaced by "I'm terribly sorry" when the interlocutor was of higher status. On the other hand, our finding is supportive of what was reported by Sadeghi (2013) who concluded in his study with Kurdish and Persian children that the most intensified apologies were directed to close friends who had no dominance over the offender.

The disparity in the abovementioned outcomes may stem from the differences in cultural norms. To be more specific, Chinese participants (in Chang's study) may attach more importance to their relations with their teachers as opposed to Turkish children. However, more importantly, the variations can also be attributed to the differences in children's age in the two studies: Chang's study includes four different age groups; the youngest ones being nine-year-old. Connected with this, since the participants of the present study are very young children, it's not surprising that what comes first for them is their friendship, which motivates them to use *alerters* or *intensifiers* more for the wrongdoings committed against friends in order to make their remedies more effective. Otherwise, if conflict resolution is not provided, they will most probably lose their primary playmates.

In terms of two-strategy combinations, although the rate of use was higher when addressing the teacher, more variety was incorporated into the remedial exchanges between equals. Regarding the predominant types of combinations, the category of *an offer of apology+a promise* was found to be the most popularly preferred one when the remedy was directed to both equal and higher status. However, the usage rate was significantly higher for the transgressions committed against the teacher. Similarly, the combination of *an offer of apology* with *accepting the blame* was directed significantly more to the teacher, which stands in contrast to the Turkish university students who used this combination mostly to mitigate an offence committed against friends (see Hatipoğlu, 2003). On the other hand, the tendency of combining *an offer of apology* with *an offer of repair* was significantly higher when the remedy was directed to equals

similar to Hatipoğlu's (2003) finding. In fact, this category was not preferred in any of the remedial acts addressed to the teacher due, most probably, to the situation-specific nature of this strategy: the scenarios in exchanges between child and teacher do not include such actions that necessitate using *repairs*.

The results of the analysis regarding the three-strategy combinations revealed that the most preferred category belonged to the combination of *an offer of apology* with *a promise* and *offer of repair* in responses provided for the breaches committed against equal and higher status interactants.

Research Question 4

Do the children's preferences of apologizing strategies display change across such contextual factors as

a) severity of the offence

Holmes (1990, p. 156) points out that there is a "relationship between the complexity of the apology and the weightiness of the offence which elicited it".Accordingly, the gravity of the offence is a predictive factor that plays a role in determining how elaborate the apology pattern will be. Considering this, the present study aimed to test children's socio-pragmatic skills evidenced by sensitivity to contextual features of the situations and their ability to adjust their speech accordingly. Hence, the severity of the offence was treated as binary valued: high and low. There were totally six scenarios in child-child interactions: three includes offences with low severity and three with high severity, which were systematically manipulated only by making slight changes in the actions of the offender.

The results revealed a statistically significant difference ($p<.05$) between the frequencies of single strategy usage; being higher for the breaches with low severity, which implies that children possibly thought that using strategies as standalone was sufficient to ask for forgiveness following minor offences. In parallel, the use ofthree-strategy combinations were significantly ($p<.05$) higher for more serious breaches. This, in turn, shows that participant children could distinguish between serious and minor offences and tailored their realization patterns accordingly. This finding is supportive of Fraser's (1981) argument that serious harms necessitate using more heavy and comprehensive remedial acts, which proved to be the case in most studies as well (see Holmes, 1990; Olshtain, 1989; Marquez-Reiter, 2000; Vollmer and Olshtain, 1989).

This may demonstrate that preschool-aged children take notice of the seriousness degree of an offence since they mostly preferred multiple-strategies to mitigate serious breaches similar to the teenage and adult subjects who employed one of the IFID strategies when the consequence of the predicament was small but showed a marked preference for multiple remedial acts by combining explicit apologies with such other strategies as *offer of repair* for serious transgressions (see Aijmer, 1996; Banikalef et al., 2015; Holmes, 1995; Schlenker & Darby, 1981).

Similar to the conclusions obtained from adult or teenage literature, in their study conducted to explore the modifications in children's speech depending on the situational variations, Gleason and Perlmann (1985) observed children's (aged between 2 and 5) interactions in three different situations and found that they could distinguish between different situations, which wasreflected in their speech with a number of lexical, phonetic, and syntactic modifications in one of the situations. According to the researchers, this indicated that they marked this situation as syntactically different from the other ones. All in all, they stated that there was a gradually developing sensitivity to the requirements of a certain situation and children's ability to use language to fulfil these essentials develops concomitantly(see section 2.2.2. for more details).

In parallel, Schlenker and Darby (1981, p.273) denominate "pardon me" as a "perfunctory" response which they regard as appropriate for offences with small gravity as opposed to the "nonperfunctory" responses such as expressing feelings of remorse and offering help which should be used when the breach is serious. They associate the employment of nonperfunctory apologies and the quantity of constituents in these apologies with the gravity of the transgression: the more serious the offence the more components the apology will include. However, when the strategy choices of the children in the present study were investigated, it was observed that in contrast to Schlenker and Darby, IFIDs in total emerged to be the most favored strategy regardless of the seriousness degree of the breach without a significant difference. On the other hand, offering repair was used significantly more for serious offences ($p<.01$) and interestingly, children were found to give *a promise* for nonoccurrence of a future action significantly more for minor offences ($p<.001$). This may imply that children considered giving promises sufficient for mitigating minor misdeeds while the same was not considered as effective enough to compensate for the damage they've caused in more serious predicaments. Possibly, they may have found *offer of repair* more suitable for such kind of offences.

In terms of intensification, our finding stands in contrast to Olshtain and Cohen (1981) who argue that highly intensified apologies like “I’m terribly sorry” are provided for a more serious offence whereas “I’m sorry” is offered as a consequence of minor transgressions. In the present study, intensified apologies were employed for both serious and minor offences although the usage was found higher for the former.

In Schumann and Ross’ (2010) terms, apologies provided for more severe damages are comprehensive and generally include as many as eight elements identified by Lazare (2004, p. 47). In line with this, analysis of the two-strategy combinations revealed that more variety was incorporated into categories produced for serious breaches. Additionally, in contrast to the results related to the types of single strategies utilized for serious and minor offences,combining *an offer of apology* with *a promise* or*an offer of repair* was a prevalent manner for both minor and serious offences. The same was also the case for three-strategy combinations. That is, the category *offer of apology+a promise+an offer of repair* was preferred more than the others for both serious and minor misdeeds. Also, *expressing lack of intent* was used more when the predicaments were serious although the difference was not large enough to be significant.

Overall, it can be concluded that children’s sensitivity to the situations with varying degrees of severity could be detected more in their preferences of single versus multiple strategies and the types of single strategy choices rather than the types of strategy combinations as they were shaped around similar categories regardless of the seriousness degree of the offence.

b) type of offence

Deutschmann (2003) has voiced the need to distinguis hamong different types of offences as, according to him, each requires different remedial work. Therefore, as stated in the methodology chapter, taking into account the offences that trigger children’s apologies as emerged in Schleien et al.’s naturalistic data (see Chapter II and III for more details), three different scenarios including offences of physical harm, verbal harm, and right violations were designed by manipulating the degree of severity (high and low). To be more specific, there were two scenarios for each type of offence, which yielded totally six. In order to test the extent to which children’s linguistic choices differ depending on the type of offence, responses for every two scenarios that belong to the same offence category were taken together and analyzed separately.

Accordingly, differences were detected in the usage rates of single and multiple strategies; while children mostly employed single strategies and two-strategy combinations for physical harm and verbal harm; for right violations, they showed an inclination to employ mainly two-and three-strategy combinations with a statistically significant difference. This may demonstrate that they regarded right violations as more damaging to their friend's face and hence more detrimental to their friendship, which caused them to make a greater effort to remedy their actions and make their apologies more effective and convincing. In addition, another significant difference appeared between the productions of physical harm and verbal harm was related to the frequency rates of three-strategy combinations which were higher in the latter. Namely, physical harm emerged as such an offence type for which the least complex patterns were elicited.

This finding conforms to Hatipoğlu's (2003) study in that her participants (Turkish university students) produced longer apologies for offences of possession. However, it is not in agreement with Schleien et al.'s (2010) in which children were found to apologize most frequently following physical harm rather than right violations or verbal harm implying that such offences were regarded as more serious. The disparity may be explained with the differences in cultural norms as to which type of offence is more damaging. More specifically, Turkish children most likely considered physical damage as a normal act since, as Shantz (1987) states, conflicts followed by disruptive behaviors like hitting or pushing are prevalent actions at preschools. Apparently, the case was not the same for Canadian children in Schleien et al.'s study, which may be associated with the differences in socio-cultural backgrounds. This, in turn, proves the culture-specific nature of speech acts.

On the other hand, if we evaluate the results in terms of children's distinguishing among types of offence and tailoring their speech accordingly, then it may be claimed that this finding is in line with Hatipoğlu's (2003) study which pointed at differences in Turkish speakers' realization patterns across different types of offences in terms of both length of apologies and strategy types utilized. Accordingly, participants were reported to reserve the longest apologies to the offence of Time (see page 64 for a detailed classification of offences) whereas the shortest ones were given for the offence of Space. In this sense, we may argue that children considered right violations as offences that require more elaborate remedial acts since they may have regarded their consequences as more negative than the other two.

Qualitative analysis of the type of single strategies indicated children's overwhelming tendency to use the most direct form of apology "özür dilerim" (I apologize) with varying frequencies regardless of the offence type. While, for physical harm, this strategy was followed by the usage with *an alerter*, this was not the case for the other two in which *offer of repair* emerged as the second most popular strategy. On the contrary, Hatipoğlu's (2003) study exhibited Turkish native speakers' using diverse strategies for each type of offence. Namely, *an offer of apology* emerged to be the most frequent only for offences of Space while for the others it was an *acknowledgment of responsibility*. However, children's using *offer of repair* as the second most frequent strategy for right violations partly echoes Hatipoğlu's finding in that Turkish university students were also reported to consider the same strategy as the most appropriate when damage to possession was involved. Examining the range of strategies employed by teenage or adult speakers across different types of offence (see Hatipoğlu; Ahmed, 2017; Olshtain, 1989; Marquez-Reiter, 1999), it is possible to claim that preschool-aged children in the present study are approximate to adult competence.

Concerning the strategy combinations, children's productions exhibited similar patterns across the three types in terms of the most frequent combination employed for each. That is, they were mostly inclined to combine an explicit apology with *a promise* regardless of the type of harm they'd caused. However, the sequence of combinations was dissimilar across the types: while, for physical harm, children were more prone to combine an explicit apology with an expression of lack of intent, they indicated a marked preference for offering a repair following the transgressions of verbal harm and right violations. This is interesting in that, as stated by Cohen and Olshtain (1983), this strategy is situation-specific and utilized only when there is actual damage.

In this sense, we may normally expect this strategy to be used mostly when damage to possession is involved. However, apart from for breaking their friend's toy, children also used this strategy for verbal harm such as shouting at their friend, which is in agreement to the manner of Turkish university students who also offered repairs not only for damages tothe victim's possessions, but also for offences of Time, Inconvenience, and Social gaffe (see Hatipoğlu, 2003).Besides, combining two phrases of apology, namely *an offer of apology* ("özür dilerim") (I apologize) and *a request for forgiveness* ("afedersin") (Excuse me) was also a prevalent manner among children for all types of transgressions. It is also not surprising as the usage rate of two-strategy combinations was significantly higher for right violations that more categories were

produced for such type of offence. Analysis of three-strategy combinations yielded in similar results indicating that mitigation for all types of offence was actualized combining *an offer of apology* with *a promise* and *offer of repair*. Lastly, incorporation of more variety into three-strategy combinations was again observed for the offence of right violations, which was not unexpected since the employment rate of these productions was significantly higher.

5.2. Summary

In this chapter, the findings of the research questions were discussed and interpreted in relation to the outcomes drawn from the relevant studies. The discussion involved age differences in terms of complexity, variety and types of apology strategies. The influence of several social and contextual parameters (e.g., gender, parents' level of education, hearer's social status, etc.) on children's strategy choices wasevaluated and discussed as well.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

6.0. Introduction

In this chapter, we first provide a summary of the findings obtained from the study, which is followed by the implications of the study and implications for ELT. The chapter ends with suggestions for further studies to be conducted in this area.

6.1. Summary of the Findings

In this dissertation, an attempt has been made to ascertain apology realization patterns of Turkish preschool children specifically searching for developmental trends by comparing two age groups of children (4;0-4;11; and 5;0-6;0) to track possible changes in their pragmatic competence. Overall productions were searched for the potential effect of such sociolinguistic factors as gender, parents' level of education and preschool experience.An additional goal was made taking into account the claim put forth by Brown and Levinson (1987) as to the existence of a number of variables which have a potential to influence the realization of apologies in many ways. Accordingly, children's sociopragmatic skills were tested by observing their ability to tailor their speech across such contextual variables as interlocutor's social status, the severity of the offence, and type of offence.The fulfillment of these intended aims became possible using ODCT as a data collection method which gave the researcher an opportunity to manipulate the abovementioned variables that were initially planned to be tested. The obtained responses provided for eight apology scenarios were exposed to both quantitative and qualitative analyses in terms of three dimensions: complexity, variety, and types of apology strategies, which are the major dependent variables examined in the study.

With respect to children's metapragmatic knowledge related to the use of apologies, we found that children in both age groups displayed such knowledge by providing correct answers with a hundred percent as to the appropriate behavior they should perform following an offence. More precisely, they were found to be cognizant of the function of apologies as remedial acts which are put into action when a transgression occurs as they were adept at distinguishing apologies among many types

of speech acts used as controls in the ODCT. This finding provides evidence to the claim pointed out by many scholars in the field (e.g., Darby and Schlenker, 1982; Smith et al., 2010) that even four-year-old children are aware that an apology is required when a social norm is violated.

Concerning children's realisation patterns, the analysis of the overall productions of the two age groups (4;0-4;11 and 5;0-6;0) exhibited children's tendency to use mostly combination of strategies rather than using them as standalone similar to adult-manner (Demeter, 2006; Vollmer&Olshtain, 1989; Shariati&Chamani, 2010; Nemeth, 2015). However, the usage of single strategy had a significantly higher rate in the corpus of younger children demonstrating that there was a decrease in the utilization of strategies as standalone with increasing age. In parallel, although the difference was not significant, multiple strategy use was found higher in the older group, which showed that apology patterns became more elaborate with increasing age as evidenced in the relevant literature (e.g., Meier, 2004; Sell &Rice, 1988; Ely&Gleason, 2006) in parallel to the developments in perception and linguistic skills. Equally important, the sequence of most preferred categories was not much different across the two age groups. The analysis of the repertoire of strategies did not result in any age effect apart from differences in the frequency rates of certain categories utilized higher either by younger or older group.

In addition, observation of the types of basic strategies preferred by the children in the study indicated similarities with teenage or adult-usage in other languages in general and in Turkish in particular but with different sequence and proportions. Accordingly, IFIDs emerged to be a markedly preferred category in which the sub-category *an offer of apology* used either with or without *an alerter*had an overwhelming usage rate among others. Thus, it appears that children, like teenagers and adults, mostly showed a marked tendency for the most direct and formulaic form of apology in Turkish although the reliance on this sub-category indicated a decrease with increasing age.

However, in contrast to the higher usage rates of *acknowledgement of responsibility* detected as the most prevalent strategy in adult-usage in Turkish (e.g., Hatipoğlu, 2003) and other languages as well (e.g., Marquez-Reiter, 1999; Olshtain, 1989), in the present study, *promise* emerged to be the one which was much favored than this strategy. In this regard, children's overwhelming use of *promises* stands in a great contrast to the corpus of Turkish adults (see Erçetin, 1995; Gökçora, 1998;

Hatipoğlu, 2003) and speakers of other languages (e.g., Marquez-Reiter, 1999; Afgari, 2007; Intachakra, 2001) which pointed at hardly any use of this category. This result may be associated with the situation-specific nature of the strategy or ceaseless insistence of parents' asking their children to assure the non-occurrence of a similar future action by stimulating them to give *a promise*, especially in the early years. Equally possible, the relatively less existence of this category in adult-usage may initially provide evidence to claim that promises are peculiar to child language. However, the outcomes coming from studies on children's apologies did not report a popular usage as well, which stimulates us to relate this finding to methodological differences.

Additionally, it's unexpected to find that only the sub-strategy *an offer of apology* was internally upgraded by an intensifier in contrast to Turkish adults' corpus which yielded in intensifications of all the three sub-categories (*expression of regret* and *a request for forgiveness*) (see Hatipoğlu, 2003). The lexical phrase "özür dilerim" (I apologize) was reinforced by only using the adverbial "çok" (very) compared to a rich range of modifiers employed by Turkish adults such as "gerçekten" (really), "çok ama çok" (so much) or "vallahi" (by God!, I swear it's so!). Hence, it may be inferred that the modification devices children internalize increase in variety with increasing age as children are exposed to the relevant input by getting into more various types of interactions.With respect to strategy combinations, the analysis exhibited slight differences in terms of variety and similarities were observed regarding the most preferred strategies by the two groups in both two- and three-strategy combinations.

Turning to the effect of gender, no significant difference was observed in terms of the complexity of patterns in the corpus of male and female children although multiple strategy usage was higher in the latter. Observation of strategy types did not also yield any difference in range, but slight differences were evident in the sequence of the most popular strategies in the two groups. Moreover, analysis of multiple strategies (two-strategy combinations) pointed at a significant difference between the two groups in terms of the frequency rates of the two categories of combinations indicating males' higher usage.

Similarly, analysis of the whole corpus divided into two according to mothers' level of education displayed parallel standards for children of more and less educated mothers as both groups utilized two-combination strategies to remedy their offences more than single or three-strategy combinations. However, unlike our initial

expectation, in total, children of less-educated mothers were found to use more elaborate patterns although the difference was not statistically significant. Additionally, in terms of single strategies, we observed that variety and types of children's apology realization patterns were not significantly affected by the degree of education children's mothers have and only two categories of two-strategy combinations yielded significantly higher usage in either less or more educated mothers' corpus. The same was the case for the variable *fathers' level of education*; the effect of which was only reflected in the use of three-strategy combinations by children of more educated fathers eventhough the difference was not significant. Certain strategy types and combination categories had significantly higher usage rates in either group.

When the attention was turned to the way preschool experience affected children's apologizing behavior,the data revealed no significant differences in terms of complexity of patterns across the two groups of children with and without preschool experience even though the corpus of the former yielded higher usage of three-strategy patterns. In addition, analysis of the single strategy types pointed at a significantly higher frequency only in the one category as used by children with no preschool experience. Concerning the multiple strategy patterns, the results did not indicate much difference between the two groups in terms of the amount of categories produced and the sequence of the most favored categories.

Additionally, the seriousness degree of an offence manipulated in the study as high and low emerged as the criterion which affected the complexity of children's remedial acts more than the status relationship between the interactants discussed in the next paragraph. More specifically, noticeable differences were observed between the responses provided for the transgressions with high and low severity: while the predicaments with low severity were mitigated by employing significantly higher number of single strategies, offences with severe consequences were alleviated with significantly higher usage of multiple strategies. Therefore, it may be possible to state that preschool-aged children can classify incidents depending on their degree of severity. This was also reflected in their basic strategy choices. Namely, the strategy *offer of repair* emerged to be employed significantly more for serious offences. On the other hand, promises were given significantly more for minor offences. Moreover, analysis of the types of multiple strategy categories did not indicate children's discrimination between the consequences of the offences as there was a marked

preference of the same category in the two- and three-strategy combinations irrespective of the seriousness degree of the transgression.

As another variable tested in the study, the analysis related to the influence of the status of the interlocutor revealed interesting outcomes. With regard to the complexity of remedial patterns, children were found to employ two-strategy combinations more when they were addressing their teacher who is higher in status although the difference did not have statistical significance. However, unlike our provisional expectation, three-strategy combinations were reserved significantly more to friends who are equal in status. Thus, it appears that children attach much importance to their friendships since much of their time is spent playing with their friends at those years (Sell and Rice, 1988). Therefore, they make much effort by using multiple acts to reinforce their expression of regret and make their apologies more effective, which may guarantee reconciliation. In parallel, a richer variety was observed in the basic strategy types when they were directed to friends with a significant difference in the use of *an offer of apology with an alerter*formed as "arkadaşım özür dilerim" (I apologize, my friend). This also shows that they wanted to emphasize their friendship. On the other hand, transgressions committed against the teacher yielded significantly higher usage of *promises* and *accepting the blame* in two-strategy combinations. In total, more diverse multiple strategy categories were produced when the offended party was a friend. These results may lend support to claim that preschool-aged children are competent at tailoring their speech to suit different addressees as they were found to distinguish among realization patterns while addressing their friends and teacher.

Lastly, taking into account the claim of scholars (e.g., Holmes, 1989; Holmes, 1995; Deutchmann, 2003) that not all the types of offence result in the same apology patterns, three types of offence were designed to uncover the effect of this parameter on children's productions. The results revealed a significantly higher usage rate of multiple strategies for offences in which right violations were involved. On the other hand, physical harm elicited significantly less complex strategy patterns compared to the other two. In this regard, it can be inferred that children considered right violations as more damaging to their friend's face and as a detrimental factor that gives harm to their friendship. These differences in children's manner of apology across the three types of offence may show us that they took into account the perspectives of others, evaluated the consequences of the incidents and made their strategy choices accordingly. Moreover, detailed analysis of single strategy categories indicated slight differences

among the three types of offence: while the most explicit apology was overwhelmingly preferred for all types of incidents, *repairs* were found to be offered for only transgressions that included verbal harm and right violations. However, in two-strategy productions *repairs* were employed to mitigate such offences that included physical harms as well. In a similar vein, the sequence of the most dominant strategies in each offence group was not radically different from each other.

6.2. Implications of the Study

The findings of the study unveiled children's pragmalinguistic skills which were reflected in the rich range of main redressive strategies utilized to mitigate their offences, which can be considered as approximate to adult competence. However, the same did not hold true for the sub-categories of certain strategies such as IFIDs. To be more specific, children were not observed tomuch use *expression of regret* ("üzgünüm, üzüldüm") (I'm sorry, I felt sorry) or *a request for forgiveness* ("afedersiniz") (Excuse me) when compared to the dominant usage of the most formulaic form of apology in Turkish, namely "özür dilerim" (I apologize). This provides evidence to claim that children were not cognizant of the alternative forms for fulfilling the act which is one of the most commonly used one in daily interactions as they maintain social harmony (Edmondson, 1981). This may be associated with the quality and quantity of the input they're exposed to in various types of interactions which mostly occur within the family.

In this regard, parents, as the main providers of input (Bruner, 1981), can help to enrich children's repertoire by explicitly teaching various linguistic forms utilized to perform a certain act in addition to the formulaic ones commonly used in the speech community they belong to. This kind of awareness-raising can also be actualized by different sources of authentic input such as TV programs or the books parents read to children. By this way, they will have the opportunity to notice the existence of multiple forms used to perform a certain act, which, in turn, helps them internalize these forms and expand their repertoire.

In parallel with this, as aforesaid one conclusion drawn from the present study was that preschool education did not create any differences in the complexity and range of patterns utilized to apologize. This result points at a necessity for preschools to incorporate authentic input into their syllabus such as videos and films which include

various types of violations that are followed by various forms of apologies. Equally important, asinvaluable sources of language input, teachers should also provide models of appropriate language use at preschools to improve children's pragmatic knowledge. This can be fulfilled, for instance,by reading short stories to childrenrelated to breaches of social norms and promote their responses, which provides exposure to various forms as expressed in peer interactions as well.

Last but not least, one more remark can be noted for material designers. More specifically, both writers of children's books and writers of coursebooks for learners of Turkish should ensure that a rich range of linguistic forms and strategies are incorporated in the use of speech acts in addition to the routinized formulas that are universal within the language.

6.3. Implications for ELT

The results of the present study may provide some important implications for English language teaching in certain aspects since the existence of a relationship between the properties and processes of first and second language acquisition, with both similarities and differences, is an undeniable fact that has long been stated by several scholars (e.g., Cook, 2000; Ipek, 2009; Flynn, 1983). Informed by the knowledge on many aspects of first language acquisition, foreign language teachers get a chance to adjust many details of their teaching including their method, classroom activities or syllabus. In this regard, when we consider that teaching English to young learners from very early years has gained momentum and become widespread, language teachers are expected to focus their instruction on all aspects of language adopting the recent techniques and shaping their everyday practice depending on learners' needs. The development in pragmatics, as one of these aspects, is important for language learners in many ways as it is related to learning to use language appropriately with proper social and cultural rules.

Unveiling very young children's pragmatic competence regarding their performance of a certain speech act, namely apology, the present study, overall, revealed developmental trends in terms of complexity of patterns; however, children were found to have limited repertoire of strategies and forms utilized to realize the act compared to adults. In this respect, this finding can be used in a way that would guide and assist foreign language learning as being aware of children's pragmatic repertoire in

their native language may provide teachers a sound basis to teach unknown with the known information. At this point, since one's pragmatic knowledge in the mother tongue is most likely transferred to their comprehension, production and learning of second language pragmatic information (Kasper, 1992), curriculum developers need to incorporate pragmatic consciousness raising activities into language syllabuses and language teachers should also pay sufficient effort to include as many samples of authentic data as possible which consist of various conversational routines and linguistic forms used to realize typical speech acts. Videos, scenes from various movies, cartoons, or story books that include various forms of offences or violations encountered in daily life can also be useful to teach certain pragmatic knowledge by helping children visualize the situation and internalize the rule and form. Classroom discussions on the similarities and differences between the two languages with regard to the cultural norms and realization patterns may serve as activities for awaraness raising as well. Explicit metapragmatic instruction can also be considered as one way of teaching pragmatic rules and forms on the condition that they are tailored to learners' level of language and their needs.

6.4. Recommendations for Further Research

In the present study, we have made an effort to uncover apology realization patterns of preschool-aged children taking into account a number of contextual factors as variables. As stated before, since, to our best knowledge, this is the first study in Turkish in this respect, future studies can be conducted with the same purpose in order to obtain a better understanding on Turkish children's pragmatic and socio-pragmatic skills with regard to the performance of apologies. This would make it possible to generalize the findings and draw sound conclusions on competence or development in this respect. Additionally, a similar study conducted with children in other languages would, undoubtedly, provide invaluable details in terms of establishing similarities and differences, which, in turn, paves the way for cross-linguistic and cross-cultural comparisons similar to what has been aimed with Blum-Kulka and Olshtain's CCRSARP (see Chapter III for details).

Since in the present study the analyzed age range was between 4;0 and 6;0, further studies in Turkish should address the production of younger and older children in a cross-sectional basis to find out the developmental patterns in a more

comprehensive way. This kind of information would enrich our knowledge on whether three-year-old children, for example, possess the required level of perception ofresponsibility and intention and knowledge about the meanings and functions of apologies. This would also help us to identify the period in which children's productions approach adult competence in this sense.

The content of the scenarios designed for eliciting speech acts is a powerful factor that determines the content of informants' productions. For this reason, in order to reach better generalizations on children's pragmatic and socio-pragmatic skills, the scenarios should be diversified and enriched in future research that would investigate the same speech act, namely apology. Besides, although the present study has investigated the effect of a great variety of contextual parameters on children's productions in many respects, social distance can also be taken as a variable by manipulating the scenarios in a way that there would be offences committed against strangers as representing the low familiarity and parents as high. Similarly, apart from the several social factors such as gender and parents' level of education, the effect of children's socio-economic backgrounds should also be searched to see how their pragmatic performance is shaped around this parameter.

One other point that needs further scrutiny is the way how apologies are framed in natural discourse since the study has been entirely based on the data elicited through responses provided for manipulated scenarios in the ODCT. Although it is a daunting task to evaluate the significance of contextual parameters via naturalistic data since it is very restricted in this respect as stated by many scholars (e.g. Ogiermann, 2008; Kasper, 2000) in the field, finding out whether and in what circumstances children apologize in daily interactions will enrich our knowledge about their actual apologetic behaviour.

Additionally, as one of the social variables in the study, the effect of gender was investigated in the same-gender interactions. However, it is undeniable that cross-gender interactions will also provide invaluable information on children's linguistic behavior of apologies, which will uncover the possible variations in their manner in terms of length and quality of apology productions.

The last and maybe the most important point that should be taken into account in future research is the investigation of the interaction between the variables. More precisely, the present study explored the effect of social status, severity and type of offence on children's apology productions separately, which made it impossible to unearth the parameter that motivated children's choices most. Hence, it would be

enlightening to find out which criterion children attach much importance and tailor their productions accordingly.

6.5. Summary

In this chapter, the overall conclusions drawn from the study are presented in the form of a summary of the findings, which is followed by the implications of the study and recommendations for future research.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Permission from the Ministry of National Education

T.C.
MERSİN VALİLİĞİ
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 34776202-605.01-E.702474
Konu : Özge Gül ZEREY'in
Araştırma İzin Talebi

10/01/2018

VALİLİK MAKAMINA

İlgi : Çukurova Üniversitesinin 26.12.2017 tarihli ve 54237sayılı yazısı.

Çukurova Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Ünstitüsü İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı doktora öğrencisi Özge Gül ZEREY'in *"Anaokuluna Giden Çocukların Türkçe Özür Sözeylemi Konusunda Edimsel Yeterliliklerinin Araştırılması "* konulu anket çalışma izin talebi ile ilgili 08.01.2018 tarihli komisyon görüşü ve çalışma programı ilişikte sunulmuştur.

Çukurova Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Ünstitüsü İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı doktora öğrencisi Özge Gül ZEREY'in söz konusu çalışmayı 2017-2018 eğitim öğretim yılında İlimiz Mezitli ilçesi Abdulkadir Perşembe Vakfı Anaokulu öğrencilerine gönüllülük esasına dayalı olarak ve eğitim öğretimi aksatmadan (*imzalı ve mühürlü anket soruları kullanılarak*) uygulaması, uygulama sonucunda hazırlanacak raporun basılı ve dijital ortamda İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğümüze vermek şartı ile uygun görülmektedir.

Makamlarınızca da uygun görüldüğü takdirde olurlarınıza arz ederim.

Adem KOCA
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürü

Ek :
1- İlgi Yazı ve Ekleri (9 sayfa)
2- Komisyon Görüşü (2 sayfa)

OLUR
10/01/2018

Mustafa ATSIZ
Vali a
Vali Yardımcısı

Dumlupınar Mah. GMK. Blv. Yenişehir / MERSİN
Elektronik Ağ: http://mersin.meb.gov.tr
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Bu evrak güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır. https://evraksorgu.meb.gov.tr adresinden 4eba-90c1-31d3-9ff0-fcc2 kodu ile teyit edilebilir.

Appendix 2. Consent Form

İzin Formu

Sayın Veli,

Çukurova Üniversitesi İngilizce Öğretmenliği Bölümü'nde yapılan bir doktora tezi araştırması için Sözlü Söylem Tamamlama Testi hazırlanmıştır. Tezin konusu "Anaokuluna Giden Çocukların Türkçe Özür Sözeylemi Konusunda Edimsel Yeterliliklerinin Araştırılması"dır. Toplamda yaklaşık 30 dakika sürecek olan bu test, 4-6 yaş arası çocuklar ile yapılacaktır. Bu testte, çocuklara resimler gösterilerek durumlar yaratılıp sorular sorulacaktır. Çocukların sıkılmaması ve daha sağlıklı veriler elde etmek adına çalışma iki bölüme ayrılıp, çalışmanın ilk kısmından sonra 1-2 hafta ara verilecektir. Bu çalışmayı çocuğunuzla yapmamızı onaylamanız çalışmaya büyük katkı sağlayacaktır. Sonuçlar yalnızca bilimsel yayınlarda kullanılacak olup, çocuğunuzun kimlik bilgileri hiçbir yerde yayınlanmayacaktır. Ayrıca, bu çalışmada video kaydı yapılmayacaktır.

Eğer onaylıyorsanız lütfen imzalayınız.

Katkınız için teşekkür ediyoruz.

Prof. Dr. Hatice SOFU- *Okutman Özge Gül Zerey
Çukurova Üniversitesi
Eğitim Fakültesi/İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümü
*Mersin Üniversitesi, Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu
0 505 778 39 28

Adınız- Soyadınız : _____

Çocuğunuzun doğum tarihi : _____

Kaç çocuğunuz var? : _____

İmza : _____

Örnek resimler:



Appendix 3. Translated Version of Consent Form

Consent Form

Dear Parents,

An Oral Discourse Completion Task (ODCT) was designed for a thesis study at Çukurova University, Department of English Language Teaching. The title of the thesis is *"Exploring Pragmatic Competence of Preschool Children with a Specific Reference to the Speech Act of Apology in Turkish".* This task, which will, totally, last for nearly thirty minutes, will be conducted with children aged between 4;0 and 6;0. In this task, the children will be asked questions with regard to the designed situations accompanied by related pictures.In order not to make children feel bored and to obtain more qualifieddata, the data collection will be divided into two sections and there will be one- or two-weeks' break after the first section. *Your confirming that we can conduct the study with your child will make a great contribution to the study. The results of the study will only be used in scientific publications and the details regarding the identity of your child will not be published anywhere. In addition, there will not be video recording during the data collection process.*

If you confirm, please sign.

Thank you for your contribution.

Prof. Dr. Hatice SOFU- *Ins. Özge Gül Zerey
Cukurova University
Faculty of Education/Department of English Language Teaching
*Mersin University, School of Foreign Languages
0 505 XXXXXX

Name-Surname : _____

Date of Birth (your child's): _____

How many children do you have? : _____

Signature : _____

Sample pictures:



Appendix 4. Demographic Form

Ad (uygulama yapılacak olan çocuğun)

_____

Doğum tarihi

_____

Cinsiyet

_____

Kaç yıldır kreşe gidiyor?

_____

Kardeş sayısı ve yaşları

_____

Anne eğitim durumu

_____

Anne mesleği

_____

Anne çalışıyor mu?

_____

Baba eğitim durumu

_____

Baba mesleği

_____

Baba çalışıyor mu?

_____

Çocuğunuza özür dilemeyi öğretiyor musunuz?

_____

Çocuğunuz size karşı yaptığı hatalardan dolayı özür diler mi?

_____

Özür dilediği hatalar nelerdir?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Nasıl özür diler?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Katkılarınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Özge Gül Zerey
Mersin Üniversitesi
Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu
0 505 XXXXX

Appendix 5. Translated Version of Demographic Form

Name (of the child that will be included in the study)

_____

Date of Birth

_____

Gender

_____

How long does he/she study at preschool?

_____

The number of siblings and their ages

_____

Mother's level of education

_____

Mother's job

_____

Does the mother work?

_____

Father's level of education

_____

Father's job

_____

Does the father work?

_____

Do you teach your child to apologize?

_____

Does your child apologize to you as a result of his/her offences?

_____

What are the offences that he/she apologizes for?

_____

_____

_____

How does he/she apologize?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thank you for your contributions.

EFL Ins. Özge Gül Zerey
Mersin University, School of Foreign Languages
0 505 XXXXXX

Appendix 6. Scenario Assessment Questionnaire for Teachers

BÖLÜM 1: Bazen, bazı durumlarda çocuklar birbirinden özür dileyebilir. Aşağıda, **1-6** arası numaralandırılmış maddelerde, bir çocuğun diğer çocuktan özür dileyebileceği bazı durumlar bulunmaktadır.

Sizden istenilen şey:
 İlk olarak, bir çocuğun diğer çocuktan özür dileyebileceği durumlara dair bu maddeleri okuyun.

 Daha sonra, bu durumların ortaya çıkma olasılığını aşağıdaki numaralara bakarak derecelendirin.

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Asla	**Bazen**	**Genellikle**	**Sıklıkla**	**Her zaman**

Son olarak, özür gerektiren hatanın ciddiyet derecesi açısından "***Yüksek"(Y)*** mi "***Düşük" (D)***mü karar verin.

Not: Deneyimlerinize dayanarak sizin kişisel fikrinizi öğrenmek istiyoruz.

1- Bir çocuğun diğer çocukla bu durumu yaşama olasılığı nedir?

2- Çocuğun neden olduğu durumla diğer çocuğu gücendirme derecesi *Yüksek* **'Y' mi** *Düşük* **'D' müdür?**

Hatanın ciddiyet derecesi		**Bir çocuğun diğer çocuktan şu konularda özür dilemesi:**	**Olasılık**				
Y	D	**1.** Oyun oynarken bir çocuğun diğer çocuğu aniden itmesi, çocuğun ağlaması.	1	2	3	4	5
Y	D	**2.**Oyun oynarken bir çocuğun diğer çocuğa bağırması ve çocuğun bu duruma üzülmesi	1	2	3	4	5
Y	D	**3.**Bir çocuğun oyun kurarken diğer çocuğu oyuna almayıp onunla dalga geçmesi	1	2	3	4	5
Y	D	**4.**Bir çocuk diğer çocuğa birşey anlatırken çocuğun onun sözünü kesmesi	1	2	3	4	5
Y	D	**5.**Bir çocuğun sınıftaki diğer çocuktan oyuncağını ödünç alması ve oyuncağı kırması, oyuncağın sahibi olan çocuğun buna çok üzülmesi	1	2	3	4	5
Y	D	**6.** Boyama etkinliği sırasında bir çocuğun, diğer çocuğun resmini karalaması	1	2	3	4	5

Gözlemlediğiniz diğer özür dileme gerektiren durumları yazınız.

……
……

Appendix 7. Translated Version of the Scenario Assessment Questionnaire for Teachers

BÖLÜM 1: Sometimes, in some situations, children may apologize to each other. Below, there are some situations numbered from 1 to 6 in which children apologize to each other.

What you are asked to do:
 At first, read the situations in which a child may apologize to another child.

 Next, assess the likelihood of occurrence of these situations by taking the numbers below into account.

1 Never **2 Sometimes** **3 Generally** **4 Frequently** **5 Always**

Lastly, please make a decision on whether the severity of the offence that necessitates apologizing is ***"High"(H)*** *or* ***"Low" (L)***

*****We want to learn about your personal opinion based on your experiences.

1- What is the likelihood that a child experiences this stuation with another child?

2- Is the severity of the offence that a child commits against his friend *High* "H" or *Low*"L"?

Severity of the Offence	**A child's apologizing to another child for these situations**	**Likelihood of Occurrence**
H L	**1.**While playing games, a child suddenly pushes another child and the child cries.	1 2 3 4 5
H L	**2.**While playing games, a child shoutsat another child and the child (the victim) feels worried.	1 2 3 4 5
H L	**3.**While setting up a game, a child's not letting another child play with them and mocking him.	1 2 3 4 5
H L	**4.**A child interrupts another child while he is telling something to another child.	1 2 3 4 5
H L	**5.**A child borrows another child's toy, breaks it and the child, who is the owner of the toy, feels very sad.	1 2 3 4 5
H L	**6.**During the coloring activity, a child scratches another child's drawing.	1 2 3 4 5

Please write other situations that you have observed to require apologizing.

……
……
……

……

Appendix 8. Scenario Assessment Questionnaire for Teachers

BÖLÜM 1: Bazen, bazı durumlarda çocuklar öğretmeninden özür dileyebilir. Aşağıda, **1-6** arası numaralandırılmış maddelerde, bir çocuğun öğretmeninden özür dileyebileceği bazı durumlar bulunmaktadır.

Sizden istenilen şey:
 İlk olarak, bir çocuğun öğretmeninden özür dileyebileceği durumlara dair bu maddeleri okuyun.

 Daha sonra, bu durumların ortaya çıkma olasılığını aşağıdaki numaralara bakarak derecelendirin.

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Asla	**Bazen**	**Genellikle**	**Sıklıkla**	**Her zaman**

Son olarak, özür gerektiren hatanın ciddiyet derecesi açısından ***Yüksek*** mi ***düşük*** mü karar verin.

Not: Deneyimlerinize dayanarak sizin kişisel fikrinizi öğrenmek istiyoruz.

1- Bir çocuğun öğretmeni ile bu durumu yaşama olasılığı nedir?

2- Çocuğun neden olduğu durumla öğretmenini gücendirme derecesi *Yüksek* **'Y' mi** *Düşük* **'D' müdür?**

Hatanın ciddiyet derecesi		**Bir çocuğun öğretmeninden şu konularda özür dilemesi:**	**Olasılık**				
Y	D	**1.** Bir çocuğun sınıfta aniden öğretmenine sinirlenmesi ve onun saçını çekmesi.	1	2	3	4	5
Y	D	**2.** Bir çocuğun sınıfta aniden öğretmenine sinirlenmesi ve onu yumuşak bir şekilde itmesi.	1	2	3	4	5
Y	D	**3.**Öğretmen bir çocukla konuşurken çocuğun onunla dalga geçmesi ve kötü sözcükler söylemesi	1	2	3	4	5
Y	D	**4.**Öğretmen sınıfta birşeyler öğretirken/anlatırken bir çocuğun onun sözünü kesmesi.	1	2	3	4	5
Y	D	**5.**Bir çocuğun öğretmeninin kitabını ödünç alması ve sayfayı çevirirken kitabın yırtılması.	1	2	3	4	5
Y	D	**6.** Bir çocuğun öğretmeninin tokasını ödünç alması, iki gün sonra geri getireceğini söyleyip dört gün sonra geri getirmesi.	1	2	3	4	5

Gözlemlediğiniz diğer özür dileme gerektiren durumları yazınız.

……
……

Appendix 9. Translated Version of the Scenario Assessment Questionnaire for Teachers

BÖLÜM 1: Sometimes, children can apologize to their teacher in certain situations. Below, there are some situations enumerated from 1 to 6 that children need to apologize to their teacher.

What you are asked to do:

 At first, read the items related to the situations in which children apologize to their teacher

 Next, assess the situations in terms of the likelihood of occurrence by taking into account the numbers below.

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Never	**Sometimes**	**Generally**	**Frequently**	**Always**

Finally, decide on whether the offence that necessitates apologizing is ***High*** or ***Low*** in terms of degree of severity.

*****We want to learn about your personal opinion based on your experiences.

1- What is the likelihood that a child experiences this situation with his/her teacher?

2- Is the severity of the offence that a child commits against his teacher *High* "H" or *Low* "L"?

Severity of the Offence	**A child's apologizing to his teacher for these situations**	**Likelihood of Occurrence**
H L	**1.**A child's suddenly getting angry with his teacher and pulling his/her hair.	1 2 3 4 5
H L	**2.**A child's suddenly getting angry with his teacher and pushing him/her softly.	1 2 3 4 5
H L	**3.**A child's mocking his/her teacher while he/she is speaking to another child.	1 2 3 4 5
H L	**4.**A child's interrupting his/her teacher while he/she is teaching or telling something in class.	1 2 3 4 5
H L	**5.**A child's borrowing his teacher's book and tearing one page while turning it.	1 2 3 4 5
H L	**6.** A child's borrowing his/her teacher's hairpin saying that he will bring it back two days later, but doing this four days later.	1 2 3 4 5

Please write other situations that you have observed to require apologizing.

……
……..

Appendix 10. Scenarios in the ODCT

Senaryo 1: Senin en yakın arkadaşın kim? Aranızda bazen tartışmalar olur mu? Şimdi düşünki bu sen ve arkadaşınsınız ve resimde gördüğün gibi beraber güzel güzel oyun oynuyordunuz. Ama birden sen bir şeye kızdın ve arkadaşına vurdun, arkadaşın da yere düştü ve canı acıdı, ve ağlamaya başladı. Şimdi bu durumda ne yapman gerekir? Bunu nasıl yaparsın, ne dersin?

Senaryo 2: Şimdi düşünelim ki bu sen ve en yakın arkadaşın X, beraber güzel güzel oyun oynuyordunuz, ama sen birden bir şeye sinirlendin ve arkadaşını ittin ve arkadaşın bu duruma üzüldü. Şimdi bu durumda ne yapman gerekir? Bunu nasıl yaparsın, ne dersin?

Senaryo 3: Sen oyun oynamayı sever misin? Peki, böyle bir grup halinde yani birkaç kişiyle oyun oynar mısınız? Peki, şimdi düşünelim ki sen bir oyun grubu kuruyorsun bu resimdeki gibi, yani 3-4 kişi seçiyorsun beraber oyun oynamak için. Tam bu grubu seçerken de bir arkadaşına "sen bizimle oynama" diyorsun ve onunla dalga geçiyorsun. Arkadaşın da bu duruma üzülüyor ve ağlıyor. Şimdi senin ne yapman gerekir? Bunu nasıl yaparsın, ne dersin?

Senaryo 4: Şimdi düşünelim ki bu sen ve en yakın arkadaşın X, beraber güzel güzel oyun oynuyordunuz, ama sen birden arkadaşına işte bu resimdeki çocuk gibi bağırdın ve arkadaşın bu duruma üzüldü. Şimdi bu durumda ne yapman gerekir? Bunu nasıl yaparsın, ne dersin?

Senaryo 5: Oyuncaklarla oynamayı sever misin?Şimdi düşünelim ki bu senin arkadaşının oyuncağı, sen bu oyuncağı izinsiz aldın ve onunla oynarken işte bu resimde olduğu gibi oyuncak kırılıyor. Oyuncağın sahibi olan arkadaşın geliyor ve oyuncağının kırıldığını görünce bu duruma çok üzülüyor ve ağlamaya başlıyor. Şimdi bu durumda ne yapman gerekir? Bunu nasıl yaparsın, ne dersin?

Senaryo 6: Şimdi düşünelim ki bu sizin sınıfınız ve gördüğün gibi şu an etkinlik yapıyorsunuz, boyama etkinliği. Bu da senin sınıf arkadaşın ve o da boyama yapıyor. Ama sen birden bire gelip onun yaptığı boyamayı / resmi karaladın. Arkadaşının resmi

bozuldu ve arkadaşın bu duruma çok üzüldü. Şimdi bu durumda ne yapman gerekir? Bunu nasıl yaparsın, ne dersin?

Senaryo 7: Şimdi düşünelim ki sınıfta etkinlik yapıyordunuz. Öğretmen size bir kitap okuyup sorular soruyordu. Bir soru sordu ve bu soruyu cevaplamak için sen de parmak kaldırmıştın ama öğretmen başka bir arkadaşına söz hakkı verdi, yani soruyu onun cevaplamasını istedi. Sen de seni kaldırmayıp arkadaşını kaldırdığı için öğretmenine küstün ve onunla konuşmadın. Öğretmenin bu duruma çok üzüldü.Şimdi senin ne yapman gerekir? Bunu nasıl yaparsın, ne dersin?

Senaryo 8: Şimdi düşünelim ki öğretmen sınıfta bir şeyler anlatıyordu ve sen öğretmenin konuştuklarını taklit etmeye başladın ve sınıftaki herkes öğretmene bakıp ona güldü. Öğretmenin de bu duruma çok üzüldü. Şimdi senin ne yapman gerekir? Bunu nasıl yaparsın, ne dersin?

Çeldirici 1: Öğretmeniniz sınıfa gelirken oyun hamurlarınızı getirmenizi istemişti. Ama sen okula gelince fark ettin ki oyun hamurunu evde unutmuşsun, ama bir arkadaşının yanında da fazla oyun hamuru olduğunu görüyorsun. Onun yanına gidip ne dersin? (Rica)

Çeldirici 2: Öğretmeniniz sınıfa gelirken boyama kitabınızı getirmenizi söylemişti ama sen sabah okula geldiğinde evde unuttuğunu fark ettin ve bunu gören arkadaşın sana yanında fazla getirdiği boyama kitabını verdi. Bu durumda ona ne dersin? (Teşekkür)

Çeldirici 3: Bir gün hava çok güneşli ve güzel ve sen de oyun oynamak istiyorsun, ama tek başına oynamak istemiyorsun. Arkadaşının yanına gidip ne dersin? (Öneri)

Çeldirici 4: Bir arkadaşın yanına gelip “beraber oynayalım mı” diyor ama senin canın hiç oyun oynamak istemiyor, çünkü kendini rahatsız hissediyorsun. Bu durumda arkadaşına ne dersin? (Reddetme)

Appendix 11. Translated Version of the Scenarios in the ODCT

Scenario 1: Who is your best friend? Are there sometimes arguments between you and him/her? Now imagine that this is you and this is your friend. As you see in the picture you were playing games peacefully. However, you suddenly got angry with something and hit him/her. Your friend fell down, felt in pain, and started to cry. What should you do in this situation? What should you say? How do you do this? and What do you say to him/her?

Scenario 2: Now imagine that this is you and your best friend X. You were playing peacefully, but suddenly you got angry at something and pushed your friend. He/she felt sad. What should you do in this situation? What should you say? How do you do this? and What do you say to him/her?

Scenario 3: Do you like playing games? Do you play in group, namely with several people? OK. Now, imagine that you are setting up a play group like in this picture.You are choosing three or four people to play with. Doing this, you say "Don't play with us" to one of your friends and you mock him/her. Your friend felt sad and cried. What should you do in this situation? What should you say? How do you do this? and What do you say to him/her?

Scenario 4: Now imagine that this is you and your best friend X. You were playing peacefully, but suddenly you shouted at your friend like the child in this picture and your friend felt sad. What should you do in this situation? What should you say? How do you do this? and What do you say to him/her?

Scenario 5: Do you like playing with toys? Now imagine that this is your friend's toy and you took it without permission. It was broken while you were playing with it. When your friend saw that his toy was broken, he felt sad and started to cry. What should you do in this situation? What should you say? How do you do this? and What do you say to him/her?

Scenario 6: Now imagine that this is your class and as you see in the picture you are doing coloring activity. This is your classmate and he/she is also painting his picture.

Your hands were dirty and you suddenly scratched his picture. It was spoiled and he felt very sad. What should you do in this situation? What should you say? How do you do this? and What do you say to him/her?

Scenario 7: Now imagine that you are doing an activity in the class. Your teacher was reading you a book and asking questions. He/she asked a question and you were raising your hand, but the teacher didn't choose you but a friend for answering the question. You got cross with your teacher for not recognizing you and you didn't speak to him for a while. Your teacher felt sad. What should you do in this situation? What should you say? How do you do this? and What do you say to him/her?

Scenario 8: Now imagine that your teacher was telling something in class and you started to imitate the things he/she said. Thereon, everybody in the class looked at the teacher and laughed at him. Your teacher felt very sad. What should you do in this situation? What should you say? How do you do this? and What do you say to him/her?

Distractor 1: Your teacher had asked you to bring your play dough to the class with you. However, when you arrived at school, you noticed that you had forgotten it. You saw that one of your friends had lots of play dough with him. What do you say to him? (Request)

Distractor 2: Your teacher had asked you to bring your coloring book to the class with you, but you noticed that you had forgotten it at home. Your friend gave one of his books to you. What do you say to him? (Thanking)

Distractor 3: One day the weather is very beautiful and sunny and you want to play outside but you don't want to play alone. What do you say to your friend?(Suggestion)

Distractor 4: One of your friends comes near you and says "Shall we play together?" but you don't want to play that day because you don't feel good. What do you say to him? (Refusal)

Appendix 12. Sample Preliminary Analysis

Class: Nightingales

Age Group: 4;0-4;411

A= Araştırmacı CH= Child

A: önce bir tanışalım bakalım. Adın ne?

CH: X

A: Benim adım da Özge memnun oldum. Hangi sınıftasın?

CH: Bülbüller

A: Peki kardeşin var mı senin ?

CH: Evet.

A: Hmm, kaç tane?

CH: Bir tane.

A: Peki senden küçük mü büyük mü?

CH: Daha bebek.

A: Peki. Senin en yakın arkadaşın kim?

CH: Nehir.

A: Peki diyelim ki bu Nehir ve sensin, beraber güzel güzel oyun oynuyordunuz ama aranızda bir tartışma çıktı ve sen işte bu kızın yaptığı gibi Nehire vurdun, tabi nehir de bu duruma çok üzüldü ve ağladı. Bu durumda ne yapman gerek?

CH: Özür dilemek.

A: Aferin, onun yanına gidip ne dersin?

CH: Özür dilerim. **(Offer of Apology) [1]**

A: Başka?

CH: Bir daha yapmayacağım. **(A Promise of Forebearance) [13]**

A: Aferin sana. Peki özür dilemek iyi bir şey mi Bilgeciğim?

CH: Evet.

R: Neden peki? Özür dileyince ne olur?

CH: Hmm.

A: Mesela bir arkadaşına vurdun, o ağladı sen de yanına gidip özür diledin, özür dileyince ne olur?

CH: Beni affeder.

A: Peki Bilgecim bir arkadaşına vurmak mı daha büyük bir hatadır onu itmek mi?

CH: Vurmak.

A: Peki neden vurmak daha büyük bir hata?

CH: Çünkü arkadaşımızın canı acır.

A: Peki. Sen oyun kurmayı sever misin?

CH: Evet.

A: Peki ne demektir oyun kurmak. Bir oyun oynayacağın zaman o oyunda oynatacağın arkadaşlarını seçmektir. Sen bir gün oyun kurmak istedin sınıfta, sen gel sen gel sen de gel diyerek birkaç arkadaşını seçtin, ama bir arkadaşına dönüp "sen bizimle oynama" dedin ve onunla dalga geçtin. O da bu duruma üzüldü ve sınıfın bir köşesine geçti ve ağlamaya başladı. Bu durumda sence ne yapmak gerek?

CH: ondan özür dilemek.

A: Peki onun yanına gidip ne dersin ona?

CH: Sen de bizimle oynayabilirsin. **(Offer of Repair) [11]**

A: Peki sen oyun hamuru ile oynamayı sever misin?

CH: Evet ama sadece annemle.

A: Peki öğretmeniniz bir gün dedi ki yarın herkes sınıfa oyun hamurunu getirsin dedi, ama sen sınıfa geldin çantanı açtın baktın oyun hamurunu evde unutmuşsun. Ama bir bakıyorsun ki bir arkadaşın yanında bir sürü oyun hamuru getirmiş. Şimdi onun yanına gidip ne dersin ona?

CH: Hamurlarından bir tanesi ile oynayabilir miyim? **(Çeldirici) [Rica]**

A: Sence verir mi öyle diyince?

CH: Evet.

R: Bence de verir.

A: Peki sen suluboya sever misin?

CH: Evet çünkü hayalimdeki şeyleri yapıyorum.

A: Ne mesela hayalindeki şeyler?

CH: Uçan araba, uçamayan uçak.

A: Hmm uçamayan uçak mı yerde mi gidiyor, diğer arabalardan hızlı?

CH: Evet. Ama kafasında kanatları var uçmak isterse kanatları var uçuyor.

A: Yani yerden gitmek isterse açmıyor ama uçmak isterse açıyor.

CH: Hıhı.

A: ne güzelmiş. Peki boyama etkinliğine gelelim. Diyelim ki bir gün okulda boyama etkinliğindesiniz, işte bu resimdeki gibi suluboya yapıyorsunuz bu da sen ve arkadaşın, resimlerinizi boyamışsınız. Ama bazen boya yaparken ellerimiz boya olabiliyor değil mi?

CH: Evet.

A: İşte o gün de senin kirliydi boyadan ve sen de o kirli elini arkadaşının resminin üzerine sürdün ve resmini karaladın, arkadaşının resmi bozuldu, artık öğretmenine gösterecek bir resmi yok. Bu duruma çok üzüldü ve ağlamaya başladı. Bu durumda ne demelisin?

CH: Öğretmenine benim yaptığım resmi verebilirsin. **(Offer of Repair) [11]**

A: Başka ne dersin?

CH: Özür dilerim. **(Offer of apology) [1]**

A: Aferin sana. Peki bir gün yine öğretmeniniz dedi ki yarın herkes sınıfa boyama kitabını getirsin dedi. Ama sınıfa geldin bi baktın ki boyama kitabını evde unutmuşsun. Ama bir arkadaşın yanına geldi ve "bende fazla boyama kitabı var kullanabilirsin" dedi. Bu durumda ona ne dersin?

CH: Teşekkür ederim. **(Çeldirici) (Teşekkür)**

A: Aferin sana. Sen böyle hep teşekkür eder ya da özür diler misin?

CH: Evet.

A: Aferin sana. Peki evde bazı hatalar yaptığında annenden babandan özür diler misin?

CH: Bazen annemle tartışmalarımız oluyor ama sonra barışıyoruz.

A: Nasıl tartışmalar?

CH: Mesela ben yemeğimi yemediğim zamanlarda annem kızıyor yemekten kalk diyor, sonra küsüşüyoruz ama sonra geri barışıyoruz.

A: Nasıl barışıyorsunuz peki?

CH: Sarılarak.

A: Peki özür diliyor musun?

CH: Hatırlamıyorum.

A: Peki oyuncaklarla oynamayı sever misin?

CH: Ben şu anda oyuncaklarla oynamıyorum.

A: Hayır yani oyuncakları seviyor musun bebek ayıcık gibi?

CH: Ben bebeklerle oynamayı seviyorum.

A: Peki düşün ki bir gün sınıfa geldin ve bir bebek görüyorsun bunun gibi, arkadaşının bebeği, izin almadan oynamaya başlıyorsun ama sen bebekle oynarken bebek kırılıyor ve onun sahibi olan arkadaşın geliyor bebeğini kırık görünce tabi ki işte bu kız gibi çok üzülüyor ve ağlıyor. Bu durumda ne demen gerekir?

CH: Özür dilerim. **(Meta.knowledge+)**

A: Yanına gidip ne dersin ona?

CH: Bir daha yapmam, sana başka, daha güzel bir bebek veririm. **(Promise +Offer of Repair) [33]**

A: Peki sen hep böyle yaptığın hatalardan sonra arkadaşların seni affetsin diye böyle güzel şeyler yapar mısın?

CH: Evet.

A: Peki hatırladığın bir şeyler var mı yani ne olmuştu ve sen ne yapmıştın?

CH: Hatırlamıyorum.

A: Peki sence arkadaşımıza bağırmak iyi bir şey mi kötü mü?

CH: Kötü.

A: Şimdi sınıfta bir arkadaşınla oynuyordun, birden sen bir şeye kızdın ve işte bu resimdeki kız gibi arkadaşına bağırdın. O da bu duruma üzüldü. Bu durumda ne yapman gerek?

CH: Özür dilemek. **(Meta.knowledge+)**

A: Peki ne dersin?

CH: Özür dilerim. **(Offer of Apology) [1]**

A: Peki sen bazen tek başına oyun oynar mısın?

CH B: ıı ıhh. Kardeşim doğana kadar ben oyuncaklarıma bir el bile atmadım.

A: Aa niye?

CH: Çünkü ben kardeşimle oynamak istiyorum.

A: Ama kardeşin daha bebek.

CH: İşte büyümesini bekliyorum.

A: Sen oyuncaklarınla oyna, kardeşin büyüyünce onunla da oynarsın. Olmaz mı?

CH: Olur. Dağıtıyorum zaten

A: Kız mı erkek mi kardeşin

CH: erkek

A: Peki annen çalışıyor mu?

CH B: Hayır.

A: Baban?

CH: Evet.

A: Ne iş yapıyor biliyor musun?

CH: Bilmiyorum.

A: Peki son bir soru. Peki sence arkadaşımızı itmek iyi bir şey mi?

CH: I ıh.

A: Peki bak bu resimdeki sen ve arkadaşın. Bir gün beraber güzel güzel oyun oynuyordunuz, birden sen ona kızdın ve onu ittin. Arkadaşın da üzüldü ve oyunu bıraktı. Bu durumda ne yapmak gerek?

CH: Özür dilemek. **(Meta.knowledge+)**

A: Peki ne dersin ona?

CH: Özür dilerim. Bir daha yapmayacağım. **(Offer of Apology+Promise) [23]**

A: Teşekkür ederim resim bakma etkinliğimiz bu kadar.

CURRICULUM VITAE

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June 2019

A. EDUCATION

2012 - 2019	Çukurova University, Ph.D. Major: English Language Teaching Advisor: Prof. Dr. Hatice Sofu
2005 – 2008	Mustafa Kemal University, M.A. Major: English Language Teaching Advisor: Assist. Prof. Dr. Rıza Öztürk
2000 – 2004	Çukurova University, B.A. Major: English Language Teaching

B. EMPLOYMENT

2004 – 2005	English Language Teacher, Ministry of National Education
2005 - 2010	English Language Instructor, School of Foreign Languages, Mustafa Kemal University
2010 – 2016	English Language Instructor, School of Foreign Languages, Çukurova University
2016 – Present	English Language Instructor, School of Foreign Languages, Mersin University

C. PUBLICATIONS

Zerey, Ö. (2018). Overcoming speaking anxiety in English through theatre production activity: A case of pre-service EFL teachers. *International Journal of Language Academy, 6*(2), 440-455.

Zerey, Ö. (2018). Attitudes and perceptions of EFL instructors regarding self-directed Professional development. . *International Journal of Language Academy, 6*, 49-66.

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D. PRESENTATIONS

Zerey, Ö. & Sofu, H. (2018). The influence of transgression types on apology strategy choices of Turkish preschool children. *19th Conference on Turkish Linguistics,* August *17-19, 2018, Nazarbayev University*

Zerey, Ö. (2014). Requests in teacher-child speech: a classroom discourse perspective. *17th Conference on Turkish Linguistics, 3-5 May 2014, University of Rouen, France.*

Zerey, Ö. & Tan, B. (2014). Acquisiton of pragmatic rules: The use of apologies by preschool Children. *17th Conference on Turkish Linguistics, 3-5 May 2014, University of Rouen, France.*

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Zerey, Ö. (2009). Drama application as an influential motive in ELT.*2nd International Conference on Literature, Languages & Linguistics, 13-16 July 2009, Atiner, Athens/Greece.*

Zerey, Ö. (2009). A view of post world-war social life in England: A study on Arden's Live Like Pigs. *Literary London 2009, Representations of London in Literature, An Interdisciplinary Conference, 09-10 July, 2009, Queen Mary University, London, UK.*

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Zerey, Ö. (2009). Voices from students: A study on some possible sources of foreign language speaking anxiety. *19th Conference on British and American Studies, 21-23 May, 2009, University of West, Timisoara, Romania.*

Zerey, Ö. (2009). ELT students' perspectives on a performative approach to the study of Theatre in literature courses. *4th International İDEA Conference, 15-17 April, 2009, Celal Bayar University, Manisa.*

Zerey, Ö. (2008). Impact of theatre production on ELT students' foreign language speaking anxiety. *The 5th International ELT Reseacrh Conference: Bridging the Gap between Theory and Practice, 23-25 May, 2008, Çanakkale 18 Mart University.*