

**Ministry of Education and Science of the Russian Federation  
South Ural State University  
INSTITUTE OF LINGUISTICS AND INTERNATIONAL  
COMMUNICATIONS  
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES**

**Reviewer**

\_\_\_\_\_/O. A. Tolstyh /

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2017

**Head of department**

\_\_\_\_\_/K. N. Volchenkova/

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2017

**SOCIO-PRAGMATIC DEVIATION OF IRAQ EFL  
COLLEGE STUDENTS IN RECOGNIZING AND PRODUCING  
SPEECH ACTS**

***MASTER'S THESIS***

**Supervisor:**

**Associate Professor Bulat Fatkulin**

**Candidate of philology**

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2017

**Student: Ali Gomar Ali Al-Rubayai**

**Group: LM-281**

**Defended with the grade:**

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_ 2017

**Chelyabinsk**

**2017**

## **Abstract**

Iraqi non-native learners are often found to deviate from the sociocultural norms and features when they are required to understand and produce certain spoken situations involving the use of illocutionary acts such as apology, threatening, thanking, invitation, warning and so on. Their speeches and responses do not match those of native speakers, and thus, they seem unobvious or refer to certain spoken situations other than those required in the communicative process or interaction.

One main factor leading to such a type of deviation and failure in recognizing and producing the proper speech act is owing to the socio-pragmatic knowledge that most students lack. This knowledge is mainly attributed to the appropriateness of meaning in terms of the social and cultural contexts in which these speech acts are used. Furthermore, it is sometimes difficult to learn the socio-pragmatic conventions as they are linked to the distinction between forms and functions (Cakir, 2006: 137).

The problem lies in the fact that Iraqi students might show total or partial lack of the linguistic knowledge (syntax and semantics) and this leads them not only to deviate but also to produce hesitant and awkward speech involving the use of the speech acts of warning, condoling, offering, etc. The present study aims at (i) evaluating the socio-pragmatic level of Iraqi EFL (English as a foreign language) college students in recognizing and using various illocutionary acts found in different situations, (ii) identifying the major linguistic factors leading to socio-pragmatic deviations, and proving that students resort to their L1 linguistic devices and cultural norms when trying to perform situations involving the use of speech acts.

Thus, the study hypothesizes that

1. Failure to produce and detect certain illocutionary acts is due to socio-pragmatic factors which are attributed to the influence of L1 culture and insufficient linguistic knowledge.

2. Lack of syntactic and semantic knowledge may also lead to deviation and failure in handling illocutionary acts.

A test of two questions (recognition and production) is administered to a sample of 50 Iraqi EFL students of the fourth year classes of The Department of English, College of Arts, Al-Mustansiriya University. The data are collected from students' answers to the test consisting of two sides: recognition and production. A quantitative descriptive analysis of the speech acts of warning, condoling and offering as recognized and produced by Iraqi EFL learners is carried out.

The study concludes that

1. Negative transfer of the L1 socio-pragmatic knowledge is one of the main characteristics that EFL Iraqi students resort to when attempting to interact, communicate or express spoken situations involving the speech acts of warning, offering and condoling.
2. EFL students fail or deviate with regard to socio-pragmatic knowledge when performing certain spoken situations owing to the fact that they are linguistically unaware of the conventions, norms and resources used in the target language; therefore, their performance is non-native one.
3. Lack of linguistic knowledge ( syntactic and semantic) is an influential factor in understanding and producing certain spoken situations of the speech acts of warning , offering and condoling. This lack is either total or partial as related to the syntactic and semantic knowledge.
4. Lack of the socio-pragmatic knowledge and linguistic knowledge lead to inappropriate recognition and production of the three speech acts in the spoken utterances. These results in hesitant and awkward utterances manipulated for expressing warning, offering and condoling.

On the basis the conclusions, a number of pedagogical recommendations are put forward.

## CONTENTS

Introduction.....	6
Chapter 1 Pragmatics in EFL: Theoretical Background.....	8
1.1 Pragmatics .....	8
1.2 Socio-pragmatics.....	9
1.3 Pragmatic Failure .....	11
1.4 Pragmatic Failure .....	13
1.4.1 Pragma-linguistic.....	14
1.4.2 Socio-pragmatic Failure .....	14
1.5 Pragmatic Competence .....	16
1.6 Previous Studies .....	19
1.7 Speech Acts Theory in Classroom Teaching: Overview .....	25
1.8 Speech Act Theory .....	25
1.9 Speech Acts in Teaching Classroom .....	28
1.10 Methodology .....	29
1.10.1 Population .....	30
1.10.2 Sample .....	30
1.10.3 Equalization .....	31
1.10.4 Construction of the Test .....	31
1.10.5 Validity .....	32
1.10.6 Reliability .....	33
1.10.7 Pilot Study .....	35
1.10.8 Test Administration .....	36
1.10.9 Scoring Scheme .....	36
1.11 summary .....	37
Chapter 2 Practical Part .....	39
2.1 Recognition Level .....	40
2.2 Production Level .....	41
2.3 Reasons behind Socio-pragmatic Deviation .....	42

2.3.1 Warning .....	42
2.3.2 Offering .....	46
2.3.3 Condoling .....	51
2.4 Socio-pragmatic Deviation Due to Linguistic Knowledge .....	54
2.4.1 Lack of Syntactic Knowledge: Warning .....	54
2.4.2 Lack of Syntactic knowledge: Offer .....	56
2.4.3 Lack of Syntactic Knowledge: Condoling .....	58
2.4.4 Lack of Semantic knowledge .....	59
2.5 Conclusions .....	61
2.6 Recommendations .....	62
References .....	63
Appendix .....	67

## **INTRODUCTION**

It is often realized that understanding and using a language involves not only knowledge of grammar, phonology and vocabulary, but also knowledge of certain features and characteristics of society and culture which is a system of values, attitudes, beliefs and norms that users of L2 agree to (Dascal, 1985: 96).

Generally speaking, socio-pragmatic deviation or failure occurs when the non-native speakers fail to detect and perform the illocutionary act required by the social situation. Those speakers seem to lack social and cultural knowledge coupled with the issuance of situations including the utilization of speech acts. Or such failure may be due to the interference of the two cultures in addition to the fact that the students do not have at all practice which they can manipulate in encountering situations in the target language .

Thus, this study endeavors to identify the socio-pragmatic failure of Iraqi EFL students at the college level, focusing on reasons leading to this failure and suggesting remedial solutions. A survey of the previous studies has revealed that each study focuses on an aspect of pragmatics different from the others: they investigate speech acts different from those in the present study. In other words, it is true that a number of previous studies have done in this field and focused on the idea of pragmatic transfer between L1 and L2, yet no study has so far has been conducted to be concerned with the problem of students' socio-pragmatic failure in handling the speech acts of condoling, warning and offering, a point which the present study aims at highlight.

I used a descriptive quantitative method in my research to describe the data analysis. The data are collected from students' answers to the test consisting of two sides: recognition and production. Students' replies are collected and test sheets are scored. Points of deviation and failure are identified and analyzed using some statistical techniques and percentages. The aim of this analysis is to find justification for students' deviation, focusing on finding reasons behind this deviation, and arriving at some main findings. The practical part involves the analysis of results of the recognition and production questions. Students' answers

to these two questions are collected and analyzed detecting the number of the correct and incorrect answers to each item that the sample have done. Finding reasons and justifications behind the socio-pragmatic deviation and failure of offering, warning and condoling is introduced with the aim of arriving at the main findings using suitable percentages. Some pedagogical implications and suggestions for further studies are also presented.

The theoretical value of the study is that it attempts to present the main ideas concerning pragmatic behavior of speech acts, particularly of offering, warning and condoling. Identification of the term socio-pragmatics, socio-pragmatic knowledge and failure is also offered. Finally, issues related to the pragmatics and speech acts of classroom is detailed.

The practical value of the study lies in the fact that the results and conclusions of the investigation of offering, warning and condoling as employed by Iraqi EFL college students in their spoken situations are accounted. It would give teachers, tutors, text-writers and syllabus designers insightful dimensions into how to account for the teaching of these speech acts in classroom.

The present study has 67 pages (including appendix) and consists of Two sections: Theoretical Background and Data Results. Theoretical background includes three main parts: (1) introduction involving six basic units ( Problem, Aims , Hypothesis, procedures, background and significance), (2) Theoretical background involving views of pragmatics and speech acts as manipulated in classroom teaching and socio-pragmatics , and socio-pragmatic knowledge and failure are also presented, and (3) Methodology involving population, sample and construction of the main test and scoring scheme . The practical section involves results analysis of recognition and production level arriving at the results and conclusions.

## **CHAPTER 1 THEORETICAL PART**

The theoretical part consists of giving an obvious idea about pragmatics (including socio-pragmatics, socio-pragmatic failure and knowledge) in general focusing on the theory of speech acts (concentrating on offering, warning and condoling). Then, a reference to the utilization of pragmatics of speech acts in classroom teaching is given. In this part, methodology is described in terms of the population, sample, validity, reliability, pilot study, administration of the main test, scoring scheme and statistical tools used. The theoretical value of the study is that it attempts to present the main ideas concerning pragmatic behavior of speech acts, particularly of offering, warning and condoling. Identification of the term socio-pragmatics, socio-pragmatic knowledge and failure is also offered. Finally, issues related to the pragmatics and speech acts of classroom is detailed.

### **1.1 Pragmatics in EFL: Theoretical Background**

The study of pragmatics explores the ability of language users to match utterances with contexts in which they are appropriate; in Stalnaker's (1972: 383) words, pragmatics is ".The study of linguistic acts and the contexts in which they are performed". The teaching of pragmatics aims to facilitate the learners' sense of being able to find the socially appropriate language for the situations that they encounter. Within the second language studies and teaching, pragmatics encompasses speech acts, conversational structure, conversational implicature, conversational management, discourse organization, and sociolinguistic aspects of language use such as choice of address forms. These areas of language and language use have not traditionally been addressed in language teaching curricula, leading students to ask if they could be taught "the secret rules of English."

Pragmatic rules for language use are often subconscious, and even native speakers are often unaware of pragmatic rules until they are broken (and feelings are hurt, offense is taken, or sometimes things just seem a bit odd). Neither does pragmatics receive the attention in language teacher education programs that other areas of language do. A growing number of studies exist that describe language use in a variety of English-speaking communities, and these studies have yielded



important information for teaching. From the teacher's perspective, the observation of how speakers do things with words has elucidated the pragmatic process in concrete lessons and activities to language learners (ibid).

The need for pragmatics instruction is fairly easy to document. In addition, there are recent studies that suggest instruction benefits pragmatic development in both comprehension and production. The chief goal of instruction in pragmatics is to raise learners' pragmatic awareness and to give them choices about their interactions in the target language. The goal of instruction in pragmatics is not to insist on conformity to a particular target-language norm, but rather to help learners become familiar with the range of pragmatic devices and practices in the target language. With such instruction learners can maintain their own cultural identities and participate more fully in the target language communication with more control over both intended force and outcome of their contributions.

Exposing the learners to pragmatics in their second or foreign language helps them to expand their perceptions of the language and speakers of the language. The classroom provides a safe place for learners to learn and experiment. In the classroom learners are able to try out new forms and patterns of communication in an accepting environment. For example, they can experiment with unfamiliar forms of address, or attempt shorter conversational openings or closings than they are used to that might at first make them feel abrupt or they might try longer openings or closings that initially might feel too drawn out, just to get the feel of it.

## **1.2 Pragmatics**

Pragmatics has only recently come on to the linguistic map. It has originally been considered part of sociolinguistics. It overlaps with many other disciplines such as sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, discourse analysis, semantics and stylistics. In Crystal's (2008: 379) words:

In modern linguistics, it has come to be applied to the study of language from the point of view of the users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction, and

the effects their use of language has on the other participants in an act of communication.

Here, he (ibid) gives a reference to the study of pragmatics which focuses on an 'area' between semantics, sociolinguistics and extralinguistic context. Yet, the boundaries with these other domains cannot be of precise definition. Still, no coherent pragmatic theory has been achieved, unless it has relation to a variety of topics such as aspects of deixis, conversational implicatures, presuppositions, speech acts and discourse structure. This leads to confusion and disagreement among different scholars in accounting for a clear definition of what pragmatics is.

Levinson (1983:24) defines pragmatics as the study of the "ability of language users to pair sentences in the contexts in which they would be appropriate". Because pragmatics was born out of the abstractions of philosophy rather than of the descriptive needs of linguistics, difficulties raised by linguists when they tried to apply pragmatic models to the analysis of stretches of naturally-occurring discourse, given reference to the context in which an utterance or sentence occurs and to the study of meaning in relation to speech situation.

More elaborately, pragmatics is defined as "the study of the conditions of human language use as these are determined by the context of society" (Mey, 1993: 42). Pragmatics, in this sense, deals with the communicative conditions which affect language use. In other words, the proper domain of pragmatics is the use of language in everyday situation, rather than the grammatical aspects of that language.

Supporting Mey's view, Yule (1996: 3) affirms that pragmatics should be better described as the study of contextual meaning and necessarily involves the interpretation of what people mean in the particular context and how the context influences what is said. It also requires a consideration of how speakers organize what they want to say in accordance with who they are talking to, where, when, and under what circumstances. Additionally, pragmatics explores how listeners can make inference about what is said in order to be understandable and

interpretation of the message intended by the speaker, and explores how a great deal of what is unsaid is recognized as part of what is communicated.

In brief, pragmatics is the study of language use rather than language usage. It should not be seen as a component of the language system, but is a different perspective on verbal phenomena. It examines how linguistic resources are used in communication and investigates a speaker's (or writer's) intentions and a hearer's (or reader's) interpretations. And, since language use is considered a complex form of social action, the general question addressed in pragmatics is how language functions in the lives of human beings. The focus can be on utterances or on longer stretches of discourse (Strazny, 2005: 869-872).

### **1.3 Socio-pragmatics**

The first definition of socio-pragmatics is offered by Leech (1983:10) who describes it as "the sociological interface of pragmatics", referring to the social perceptions underlying participants' interpretation and performance of communicative action. It refers to the study of how pragmatic principles operate in different cultures, in different social situations, among different social classes, etc., including knowledge of degrees of relative power, social distance, and degree of imposition.

According to Crystal (1985: 240), socio-pragmatics accounts for the social and psychological features interpreted in terms of their context of situation. Socio-pragmatic analysis is more related to the study of culture than the former because most of pragmatic interpretations are determined by cultural conditions as in religion, beliefs, rituals, norms of politeness and deference, etc.

Further, socio-pragmatics is concerned with the politeness and cooperative principles and the conversational implicatures as shown in different speech communities, whereas pragma-linguistics studies linguistic aspects such as deixis, reference, ellipsis, etc. As an example of the socio-pragmatic explanations, one can see that children in Britain are taught to avoid using the pronouns 'she' or 'he' to an adult female/male in their presence. Socio-pragmatics studies other aspects which are related to the politeness principle. For example, in some countries, it is

polite to remark to a host that we are enjoying the food; in others it is polite to keep silent (Crystal, 1987: 120).

Elaborately, Socio-pragmatics , a term sometimes used within the study of pragmatics, refers to the way conditions on language use derived from the social situation. It contrasts with a view of pragmatics in which language use is studied from the viewpoint of the structural resources available in a language (referred to as pragma-linguistics). A pragma-linguistic approach might begin with the pronoun system of a language, and examine the way in which people choose different forms to express a range of attitudes and relationships (such as deference and intimacy). Socio-pragmatics investigates the social, other-oriented uses of semiotic systems. An illustrative example is the communicative uses of language. Such uses must rely on shared (public) rules and contexts, to ensure comprehensibility (Crystal, 2008: 441).

A distinction between pragma-linguistics and socio-pragmatics is also made by Strazny (2005: 869-872). He contends that pragma-linguistics is concerned with the verbal resources available for realizing any given speech act. By contrast, socio-pragmatics focuses on the polite norms governing the selection of resources relative to social situations. For example, pragma-linguistics identifies the word choices, meaning patterns, and sentence constructions that are used to pay a compliment, whereas socio-pragmatics determines who may compliment whom, on what, and in which situations. Pragma-linguistics is language specific, and socio-pragmatics culture specific. Pragma-linguistics is concerned with the structural resources that a language provides for conveying particular intentions, whereas socio-pragmatics considers language use relative to social situations.

In particular, pragma-linguistics "includes strategies like directness and indirectness, routines, and a large range of linguistic forms which can intensify or soften communicative acts". Socio-pragmatics, on the other hand, refers to "the social perception of communicative action" (Kasper, 1997: 1). It emphasizes the interactive aspect and the acknowledgement of the social context in which a speech act occurs. These two aspects have formed the basis of socio-pragmatics

research. It is the study of communication in its socio-culture context. It can be said that social and cultural factors influence how people communicate with others. When a person issuing a speech act, for instance, the social context of the conversation plays a role in the case of how the speech act is delivered to the hearer (Trosborg, 1995: 37-8).

#### **1.4 Pragmatic Failure**

Generally speaking, Ziran and Xinren (2004: 52-7) point out that pragmatic failure in cross-cultural communication occurs under the following four circumstances:

1. The speaker chooses an inappropriate topic. Different cultures usually have different beliefs, value views and living habits. Therefore, people need to distinguish between free and constrained topics in intercultural communication.
2. The speaker uses expressions which have different implications in the target language, or which deviate from his own intention in producing such utterances. This kind of pragmatic failure commonly happens in greetings. Besides, misuse of fixed expressions in the target language also gives rise to misunderstanding.
3. The utterance made by the speaker to express a certain idea does not conform to the convention of the target language. Since people with different cultural backgrounds tend to use different expressions and strategies to convey the same information, they tend to commit pragmatic failure while speaking a language other than their mother tongue.
4. A participant in a conversation makes an inappropriate response to a certain question or statement.

In a more specific way, Guan-lian (2002: 195) remarks that "pragmatic failure is committed when the speaker uses grammatically correct sentences, but unconsciously violates the interpersonal relationship rules, social conventions, or takes little notice of time, space and addressee".

### **1.4.1 Pragma-linguistic Failure**

Pragma-linguistic failure occurs when the pragmatic force mapped by the speaker onto a given utterance is systematically different from most frequently assigned to it by native speakers of the target language, or when conversational strategies are inappropriately transferred from the speaker's mother tongue to the target language (Thomas, 1983: 91). It can be considered from both sides of the conversation. On the one hand, the speaker commits pragmatic failure because he takes for granted that the listener is able to understand his meaning and he, thus, makes an inappropriate utterance. On the other hand, the listener commits pragmatic failure by deducing the meaning of the speaker's utterance incorrectly (Ziran and Xinren, 2004: 52-7). In pragma-linguistic failure, speakers fail to convey their meaning because the message's pragmatic force is misunderstood. A speaker might translate something from an L1 into a target language without the knowledge that the communicative conventions of the target language are quite different. For example, the formulaic expression 'How are you?' in English generally means little more than 'Hello'. Pragma-linguistic failure occurs when learners sometimes fail to get the meaning of an utterance due to the fact that the communicative conventions behind such an utterance used are different. Such an error or problem is considered as a pragma-linguistic one since it has a little to do with speaker's perception of what constitute appropriate behavior, and moreover it has a great deal to do with knowing how to phrase an utterance (a request, for instance), so that it will be interpreted as a certain speech act (a request) rather than as an information question.

### **1.4.2 Socio-pragmatic Failure**

The second category of 'pragmatic failure' is referred to as 'socio-pragmatic failure' which is concerned with 'what to say' and 'whom to say it to'. Many of the misunderstandings that occur stem from what is identified as differences in evaluation regarding 'size of imposition', 'cross-culturally different assessments of relative power or social distance', and 'value judgments'. Socio-pragmatic failure results from different cultural norms and pragmatic principles that govern

linguistic behaviors in different cultures. Since speakers with different cultural backgrounds have different understandings of the appropriateness of linguistic behavior, there may be barriers to effective communication. In addition, different cultures have different ways of thinking, rules of speaking, social values and place different relative weights on the pragmatic principles, and these cross-culturally different assessments of social parameters have negatively affected language users' linguistic choices, which finally result in socio-pragmatic failure (Thomas, 1983: 91-4).

Ziran and Xinren (2004: 52-7) confirm that socio-pragmatic failure occurs when the speaker does not give attention to the identity and social status of the listener during the conversation. He may produce pragmatic failure by using a polite form of expression towards a close person or someone of a lower social status, or by addressing a remote person or someone of a higher social status with an intimate form. The speaker's lack of knowledge about the politeness principle of social interaction is a major cause of socio-pragmatic failure.

The Socio-pragmatic failure is caused due to the social circumstances surrounding the speech act, such as the social distance, politics, religion, morals, gender, power and the closeness of relationships between the interactants, i.e., knowledge about the world. So, this type of transfer occurs when the speaker does not know what to say, when, why and to whom. For example, not knowing the pragmatic force of a 'thank you' might cause a pragma-linguistic failure, but cultural differences of when to say it, in which occasion and for what reason might cause socio-pragmatic failure (Carter and Nunan, 2001: 102).

It is important here to note that the socio-pragmatic knowledge refers to the ability to interpret the social meaning as Savignon (1983: 37) mentions:

Sociolinguistic competence is the knowledge of socio-cultural rules of discourse and language. It requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used: the roles of participants, the information they share, and the function of interacting.

Savignon (ibid) expounds that the sociolinguistic competence means more than to use language appropriately in a social situation. Briefly, the sociolinguistic information which the speakers convey to each other share a pragmatic competence which helps them to interpret and act in different situations by making use of different contextual clues. It also includes components like: 'culture' and 'interaction', which reflect the fundamental concepts of verbal and non-verbal communication.

Taking into consideration politeness principles in a society, socio-pragmatic failure also occurs when one does not know what to say to whom, a situation that can lead to violating local politeness norms. As examples, which topics are discussed, which questions are appropriately asked of newcomers and which favours one asks, differ dramatically across speech communities. For students from many locations outside the US it is odd that American hosts offer food only once and then take it away (ibid: 103).

### **1.5 Pragmatic Competence**

The speaker's or hearer's inability or failure to use and interpret the language appropriately in certain contexts may be due to lack of pragmatic competence (linguistic, socio-cultural, knowledge of the world, contextual knowledge, etc.). Hence, it seems necessary to offer an overview on what is meant by pragmatic competence.

The notion of pragmatic competence was early defined by Chomsky (1980: 224) as the:

knowledge of conditions and manner of appropriate use (of the language), in conformity with various purposes". This concept was seen in opposition to grammatical competence that in Chomskyan terms is "the knowledge of form and meaning."

Providing a more illustrative definition, Canale (1983:90) holds that pragmatic competence includes:

Illocutionary competence or the knowledge of the pragmatic conventions for performing acceptable language functions, and



sociolinguistic competence, or knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions for performing language functions appropriately in a given context.

It is often described as an interaction between speaker-meaning and hearer-effect and is accomplished successfully when the speaker conveys his or her attitude to the hearer.

Kim and Hall (2002: 332) define pragmatic competence as that competence which "entails knowing how to connect utterances to locally situated circumstances", and thus, it is a mixture of both linguistic and cultural knowledge. More precisely, pragmatic competence includes:

- a) the speaker's ability to use language for different purposes;
- b) the listener's ability to get past the language and understand the speaker's real intentions (e.g., indirect speech acts, irony and sarcasm); and
- c) the command of the rules by which utterances come together to create discourse.

Being overlapped with the concept of communicative competence, Trosborg (2010: 335-6) affirms that pragmatic competence is the ability to use language to perform social functions. It has been recognized as an indispensable component of the L2 communicative competence. Some aspects of pragmatic competence may be difficult to acquire and even have the potential to emerge late in learners' systems for some reasons. Firstly, pragmatic competence requires learners to control the complex interplay of language, language users, and context of language use. Second, pragmatic competence is constructed by a complex sociocultural nature, because the mappings of forms, functions, and contexts vary across cultures, sociolinguistic functions are hard to perform. Although some pragmatic functions are universal, the linguistic means to encode and decode those functions exhibit considerable cultural variation.

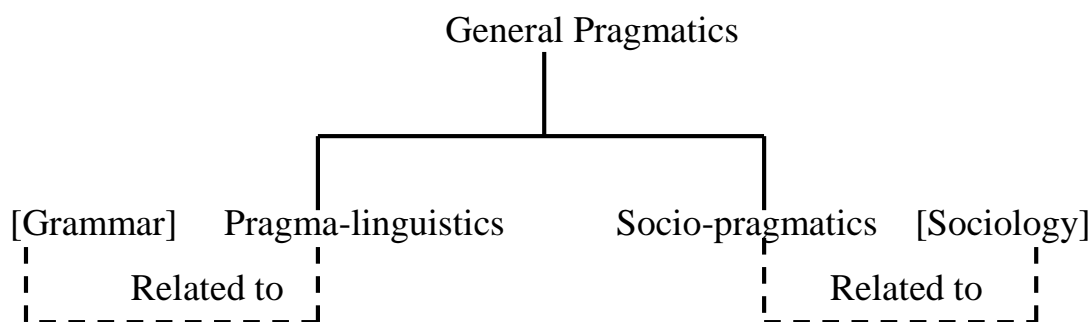
Knowledge of social conventions—namely, how linguistic behaviors are structured in a culture—is an important aspect of L2 learning. However, because social conventions of speaking are not salient, it can often be difficult to notice

how people convey appropriate levels of politeness, or what linguistic means they use to communicate meaning indirectly (Wolfson, 1989: 117). Furthermore, learners may transfer their L1 norms to L2 and end up with what Thomas (1983: 94) calls 'pragmatic failure', which occurs when the two languages operate under different conventions.

From what has been discussed above, it is apparent that pragmatic competence involves a complex set of inter-related factors, both linguistic and socio-cultural. It comes as no surprise that this kind of knowledge is very difficult for non-native speakers to acquire. Language learners often fail to follow the socio-cultural rules that govern language behavior in the target language, and this has been referred to in the literature as pragmatic failure.

The existence of pragmatic failure can be ascribed to two reasons: a) learner's lack of linguistic means to convey his or her pragmatic knowledge, and b) cross-cultural differences as to what constitutes appropriate cultural behavior. When learners lack this socio-pragmatic knowledge of what constitutes appropriate linguistic behavior in L2, they often draw on their knowledge of appropriate language behavior from L1 (ibid, 93).

Leech (1983: 11) refers to this socio-pragmatic knowledge as the social perception underlying the participants' interaction and performance of communicative action as in the following figure:



**Fig. 1: Subdivision of Pragmatics (Leech, 1983: 11)**

As it can be noticed, both socio-pragmatics and pragma-linguistics are part of general pragmatics but more specifically, they are part of the pragmatic competence.

## 1.6 Previous Studies

There have been a number of studies that dealt with examining the deviation of pragmatic aspects of language (including both pragma-linguistic and socio-pragmatic failure) among non-native speakers as compared to the performance of the native speakers. The following are some of the previous related studies which aim at comparing them with the present one. In addition, they can provide a solid grounding for initiating this study.

Cook's (1996) study states that the main focus on the SLA research has been more concerned with socio-pragmatic aspect, in other words, the way in which pragmatic use depends on certain social rules among the participants, usually perceived through the aspect of transfer. The way in which Japanese learners of English express refusal differs from that of native speakers (ibid: 3) as in the following example:

- I never yield to temptations.

This shows that some aspects of L1 socio-pragmatics are used in the L2. Little attention is given to L2 to L1 transfer. In some cases, the Japanese learners nod their heads for agreement when talking English. The L2 users' use of such transfer from the L1 is regarded as a pragma-linguistic failure. Cook states that the knowledge of speech acts of the ideal L2 user is considered as a combination of L1 plus L2, and if they know all language functions in L1 and L2, then they have succeeded. But the L2 user's role may be different from that of any L1 monolingual (ibid: 4).

Cook interprets this behavior (L2 learners' behavior) as a pragma-linguistic failure to speak like natives; they do not succeed in mastering how native speakers use English (ibid). People expect non-native speakers to be extra-polite, and the L2 users are trying to be so. Indeed, they have a distinctive way of using the language which is not appropriate to the monolingual in either language.

Undeniably, the concept of transfer between L1 and L2 cannot account for such aspects of the L2 user's use of language that are not part of either L1 or the L2. It can be clearly noticed that the most obvious language functions distinctive

to L2 users are going to be code-switching, adopted for a range of discourse motives and translation.

In Rover's study, the knowledge of implicatures, speech acts (apology, request and refusal) and routines of 267 ESL and EFL students have been investigated at various levels as in the following tests (Rover, 2001: 5):

**Test 1: Implicatures:** Within this test he states the following:

- A. Knowledge of implicatures is strongly dependent on proficiency but not exposure.
- B. There is an appreciable increase in knowledge of implicatures between the 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> year EFL.

Proficiency is high enough to understand that utterance is not meaningless due to the learners' lack of linguistic knowledge but contains an intentional implicature.

**Test 2: Speech Acts:** within this test, he states the following:

- A. Knowledge of speech acts was strongly dependent on proficiency but not exposure.
- B. There is an appreciable increase in knowledge of speech acts between 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> year EFL.

**Test 3: Routines:** within this test, he states following:

A-unlike implicatures and speech acts, knowledge of routines was strongly dependent on exposure but not proficiency.

Out of the three tests, Rover (ibid) concludes the following points:

- A. Proficiency and exposure impact different components of pragmatic competence differently.
- B. Proficiency is the major factor in acquiring knowledge of implicature and speech acts.
- C. Exposure impacts routines, socio-pragmatic awareness, socio-pragmatic knowledge.

- D. Socio-pragmatic awareness: exposure increases noticing of pragmatic input and appreciation for the importance of pragmatic competence (language becomes a tool for living, not just an academic exercise and a hurdle on the way to a diploma).
- E. Socio-pragmatic knowledge: learning by model provides opportunity for comparison with own culture's pragmatic norms
- F. Routines: non-guessable, can only be acquired through exposure, even in the short term, or (by highly motivated learners) through input instances.
- G. L1 learners use / know routines that outperform their competence, e.g., "I often hear this but I don't know what it means".
- H. Routines are part of both, socio-pragmatic and pragma-linguistic competence.
- I. Implicature is proficiency- dependent because learners must have a certain proficiency level to recognize that an implicature is being performed, otherwise they may just think that their lack of L2 proficiency is to blame for the interlocutor's apparent uncooperativeness.
- J. Speech acts: knowledge of conventions of form for speech acts increases with greater knowledge and control of language
- K. Grammatical competence (at least to some degree) is a necessary but not sufficient condition for speech act production (ibid: 8).

Lubov's ( 2004) study demonstrates that research into culturally determined language behavior and problems of cross- cultural communication has proved that even advanced speakers of a foreign language may fail to convey or comprehend the intended illocutionary force or politeness value of speech acts when communicating with the native speakers of this language. Contrary to the early expectations of contrastive analysis, such problems are more likely to take place between close or related languages that are widely different. The seeming cultural closeness or similarity between the source and the target language can be misleading for the native and non-native speakers of these languages and sometimes cause more misunderstanding and communication failures than in the

case of more obvious or striking differences between language cultures of which the interlocutors are well aware or which they can easily feel (Lubov, 2004: 1).

It has been established that both speech acts have similar semantic and situational- contextual structures in both languages whereas the linguistic strategies and social cultural norms of their realization slightly differ. Speakers of the two languages perceive such differences as minor and unimportant. However, when they use communication strategies based on their native system of assumptions to advice and offer in the target language, their intentions may often be misinterpreted by the native speakers of this language.

The study concludes that the occurring strategic transfers could be classified as pragma-linguistic or socio-pragmatic and explained by the fact that the sets of similar constitutive factors and variables relevant for the speech acts of advice and offer are differently arranged in their conceptual representations in the two cultures. Moreover, the speakers, usually unaware of such difference in their structures of expectation, subconsciously base their strategic choices on the native hierarchy of beliefs and assumptions when code switching which might result in a communication conflict and even culture clash (ibid: 3).

Conejos (2000) presents a study in which performance of spoken situations is dealt with from the cognitive standpoint by focusing on the nonnative speakers as involved in the process of comprehension and production. The study demonstrates that the notion of pragmatic failure can be extended to cover those cases of misunderstanding in which a stage of pragmatic development that requires a cautious or sophisticated learner to be at issue. In spite of the quite high levels of mastery at the linguistic level, the meta-representational abilities needed to deal with accidental relevance, accidental irrelevance and purported relevance are not always transferred to L2. In most cases where misunderstandings occur, the non-native speaker tends to apply the native learner's strategy. This is the tendency shown in 15 conversations between three native speakers of English and 15 nonnative speakers (native speakers of Spanish) that make up the corpus of this study and on which its tentative conclusions are based. The nonnative speakers

were English majors who were at different stages (third, fourth and fifth year students) towards the completion of their undergraduate degree (ibid: 2).

The study concludes that the application of the native learner's strategy is one of the main loci of misunderstanding. In addition, there is no significant correlation between mastery of linguistic knowledge and usage of more sophisticated strategies. Practitioners of socio-pragmatics have long emphasized the rules of meta-pragmatic awareness in the target culture, appropriate discourse production. Moreover, the transfer of pragmatic knowledge can be facilitated by describing the nonnative speakers of Spanish how they interpret in their L1 the intercultural situations (ibid: 6).

Barron's (2003) study investigates the speech act realization, the analysis of Irish college students' acquisition of German, especially of the pragmatics of requests, offers and refusals, during their study abroad year. In her study, she sought to answer the following:

1. Is there evidence of changes in learners' L2 pragmatic competence towards or away from the L2 norm over time spent in the target speech community?
2. Does pragmatic transfer increase or decrease with time in the target culture?
3. What implications do any changes or lack of changes in learners' L2 pragmatic competence have for our understanding of the development of L2 pragmatic competence?

The participants in this study are Irish learners of German and German native speakers and native speakers of Irish English as well. Barron chooses to focus on three speech act types of requests, offers, and refusals, in part because these last two types will allow her to look, not only at the performance of the speech act in question, but also at differences in discourse structure involving cultural differences which may interfere with learning; specifically, in Irish English, "ritual refusal" may follow a hospitable offer, with a second offer (or "pressing") then accepted, but this course sequence is not characteristic of German. Barron is also interested in pragmatic "routines" including both fixed and formulaic patterns in speech act performance (ibid).

The pragmatic analysis shows that Barron's work is intriguing, illuminating both the quirky path of pragmatic development, and interesting pragmatic differences between English and German. For example, when it comes to ritual refusals of offers (typically followed by re-offers and acceptance), these Irish learners do attempt to implement the Irish English pattern in German, but these transfer attempts decrease over time spent in Germany. The learners' meta-pragmatic comments show this, as do the stories some learners tell of using the German discourse pattern in their English after they return home (and suffering a bit of pragmatic failure in the L1). Part of this development is connected with learners' realization that there is no formula for re-offers in German (ibid: 4).

Barron summarizes the answers to her research questions in the conclusion making clear which ones are answerable with her data, and which are not: there is clear movement towards the German native speaker norm, though not attainment of it, by these learners. Pragmatic transfer decreases over time in some instances, and increases in others. Pragmatic development takes a non-literal path, but pragma-linguistic development seems to outpace socio-pragmatic development (ibid).

The aforementioned studies are introduced from the least relevant to the most relevant one. The aim of such presentation is to detect points of similarity and differences between these studies and the present one. In other words, they tend to provide a solid background for the present study through the clarification and discussion of the employment of socio-pragmatic aspects in classroom teaching. Each of these studies utilizes a different sample of different individuals of different nationalities (Japanese, German, Irish, etc.). However, the present study involves 50 Iraqi fourth year students of the Dept. of English, at College of Arts, Al-Mustansiriya University. The main instrument in the present study is a test of two parts: recognition and production. In addition, the three speech acts involved in the investigation are warning, offer and condoling. It seems that no study has so far conducted to account for Iraqi college students' failure in handling these three speech acts. This would give a solid justification for tackling this study.



## **1.7 Speech Acts Theory in Classroom Teaching: Overview**

Teachers can successfully decode the apparently secret rules for classroom learners. Observations of language teaching show that there is a demonstrated need for it and that instruction in pragmatics can be successful. Learners show significant differences from native speakers in the area of language use, in the execution and comprehension of certain speech acts, in conversational functions such as greetings and leave-takings, and in conversational management such as back channeling and short responses (Kasper and Schmidt, 1996; Kasper & Rose, 1999).

Without instruction, differences in pragmatics show up in the English of learners regardless of their first language background or language proficiency. That is to say, a learner of high grammatical proficiency will not necessarily show equivalent pragmatic development. As a result, learners at the higher levels of grammatical proficiency often show a wide range of pragmatic competence. Thus, it is found that even advanced nonnative speakers are neither uniformly successful, nor uniformly unsuccessful, but the range is quite wide. The consequences of pragmatic differences, unlike the case of grammatical errors, are often interpreted on a social or personal level rather than a result of the language learning process.

Maintaining a conversation in English requires a certain amount of knowledge underlying responses that prompt a speaker to continue, show understanding, give support, indicate agreement, show strong emotional response, add or correct speaker's information, or ask for more information. Left to their own devices such as contact with the target language in and out of the classroom, the majority of learners apparently do not acquire the pragmatics of the target language on their own.

## **1.8 Speech Act Theory**

Speech acts such as request, advice, apology, warning, compliment, command and suggestion are significant components of communicative competence. Therefore, learners to be communicatively competent in a second or foreign

language demand not only to promote their grammatical knowledge but also to improve their pragmatic competence. To perform speech acts appropriately, two types of knowledge are required: socio-pragmatic and sociolinguistic knowledge (Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1983).

Initially, pragmatics has been dominated by the speech act theory. The basic insight of this tradition is that speech is action. Whenever we say something, we do not only produce sound waves, utter words, and produce sentences but we also perform an action. If a mayor says: 'I declare this bridge open', then this bridge is open. In this sense, the mayor has performed an action. Bridge-opening belongs to 'declarations', a class of speech acts that all require an institutional context. Four further classes have been identified, which are more likely to occur in everyday communication. These are 'directives', 'commissives', 'expressives', and 'assertives'. Typical examples for these classes are requests, promises, apologies, and statements (Strazny, 2005: 869-872).

The emphasis on language in use in the latter half of the twentieth century has led to the flourishing of pragmatic studies. One important approach in pragmatics is the application of the notion of speech acts. The essential insight of speech act theory is that language performs communicative acts. The concept of speech act captures an important feature of language: saying something can also involve doing something. For example, by saying 'I am sorry' a speaker does not only produce a sentence in English but also performs an act, that of apologizing (Austin, 1962: 92).

Searle (1969: 56) further elaborates the idea that for a speech act to be performed successfully, a certain number of conditions have to be met. For example, a speaker has to have the right to perform certain speech acts in order for them to be performed successfully. This places speech act theory into a popular domain of research not only in the philosophy of language but also in linguistics. He (ibid) explains that speech acts are performed in real situations of language use. Thus, the underlined assumption in speech act theory is that the minimal unit of human communication is the performance of certain kinds of acts or functions.

Relying on some taxonomic principles which reflect the different types of conditions underlying speech acts, Searle (1979: 19-22) proposes a classification of speech acts according to their functions. He proposes five categories:

1. **Representatives** are utterances which commit the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition or, according to Yule (1996: 53), are those that state what the speaker believes to be the case or not (paradigm cases: asserting, concluding, claiming, etc.). For example: 'I am old enough to vote', 'Columbus discovered America in 1492', 'Water freezes at zero degrees centigrade' and 'The earth is flat'.
2. **Directives** are utterances attempted by the speaker to get the addressee to do something (paradigm cases: requesting, advising and commanding). For example: 'Stop shouting', 'Take out the garbage' and 'Don't touch that' (ibid: 54).
3. **Commissives** are speech acts which are used by the speaker to commit him or herself to some future actions (paradigm case: promising, threatening, offering). For instance: 'I promise to call you later', 'I'll write your letter of recommendation tomorrow' and 'I'll be back' (Meyer, 2009: 233).
4. **Declaratives** are utterances that affect immediate changes in the institutional affairs and which tend to rely on elaborate extra linguistic institutions. These speech acts declare something to be so and they may be used to assign a name or role (paradigm cases: excommunicating, declaring war, christening, firing from employment). For instance: 'I now pronounce you husband and wife' and 'I hereby sentence you to ten years in jail' (Yule, 1996: 53).
5. **Expressives** which express a psychological state (paradigm cases: thanking, apologizing, welcoming, and congratulating). Expressives are speech acts that state what the speaker feels. One problem of this taxonomy, however, is that the categories are not mutually exclusive and they often overlap. For example: 'That's a beautiful dress'; 'I'm sorry for being so late' and 'Congratulations!' (ibid: 53).

For a classification to be more effective and more practicable, Hymes (1974: 75) proposes that for understanding speech acts as units in communication, this classification should include speech situations, speech events and speech acts. For him (ibid), a speech situation takes place in a speech community and can take the form of, for example, a party or a meal. A speech event takes place within a speech situation, which can be a conversation at a party. Finally, a speech act takes place within a speech event, and this can, for example, be a promise or a request made by interlocutors engaged in a conversation at a party.

### **1.9 Speech Acts in Teaching Classroom**

It is an obvious fact that improving the learners' pragmatic knowledge is as important as developing one's activities and technology skills. Both are important for the world of today. ESL/EFL teachers are on the frontlines of pragmatic development. They also had great responsibility for learners who intend to use the L2 for study or work abroad. So, the teachers in particular need to pursue their own ability to think critically about language data and instances of use to prepare themselves. Their learners benefit from the explicit teaching of pragmatics by their teachers and ideally become autonomous learners, doing pragmatics to solve communication problems and pushing their competence level (Locastro, 2012: 11).

Moreover, pragmatic studies should consider providing the students with linguistic tools and helping them to learn and understand the action in an appropriate way. This may be concerned with teaching TL culture, seeing it as process rather than a product (Rueda 2006 cited in Shokouhi and Rezaei, 2015: 102). As a language learner has to possess, in tandem, a good grammatical and lexical command and succeed in communicating functionally, a teacher is required in a classroom to focus on developing both competences in order to make a student be successful in foreign language acquisition and usage. In conceptualizing and studying a language speech act theory plays a significant role as it increases the perception of how a language works when used by interlocutors in different contexts in contrast to the Chomskyan approach, which assumes that

grammatical competence is sufficient to create an unlimited number of utterances on the basis of acquired linguistic categories and systems. However, for successful communication, a course of communicative competence has to be complemented (Rathert, 2013: 81-2).

Nonetheless, the major problem in teaching pragmatics is the sheer number of speech acts. A large number of language functions and speech acts makes the teaching of a particular speech act an unattainable goal. Many ESL/EFL studies suggest that the focus should be on using language in ongoing discourse. In fact, the real responsibility of the classroom teacher is making students more aware about existing pragmatic functions in language, especially in discourse. The teachers should know about these speech acts and their elements to use the natural input for the students in a particular content, for a particular purpose, and as part of a strategy (Bardovi – Harlig, 1996: 23).

Many studies have shown that language learners are slow to comprehend speech acts. They are slow to perceive how to respond to cultural differences because just as they transfer L1 language patterns into learning L2, they also transfer pragmatic understanding from L1 into L2. Tanaka (1997 cited in Milleret, 2009: 31) has noted that it is difficult to acquire pragmatic competence and that even advanced-level L2 learners are prone to pragmatic failure.

In her study, Ishihara (2007 cited in Milleret, 2009: 33) reports on a one-month on-line course on speech acts that was designed to instill a sense of appropriate language use in the university students of Japanese who volunteered to participate. The data consisted of journal entries produced by the students as they completed each of the five speech act units. The comments from students confirmed that the explicit teaching of pragmatic features and the cultural ideologies that underlie them did result in a heightened awareness.

### **1.10 Methodology**

The aim of this section is to present and discuss in details the procedures followed in the present study for the purpose of achieving its aims. It is important to start with the population concerned with this study, then, moving to an

illustration of the sample selection and equalization among the subjects that has been prepared for the investigation of the study. This section is also concerned with a survey of the procedures of building up the test designed for the purpose of the study, including: the construction of the test , test validity , test reliability , pilot test and percentages and statistical tools used for verifying results obtained from data analysis.

### **1.10.1 Population**

The whole population of this research is 124 fourth-year students, morning studies in the Department of English, College of Arts, Al-Mustansiriya University , Iraq, Baghdad, during the second term of academic year 2015-2016, of both male and female students, distributed in three sections, A, B, and C. The reason behind choosing fourth- year students is that they are supposed to have a good knowledge about pragmatic or socio-pragmatic behavior (and particularly the idea of speech acts) as they come across the topic of linguistics in the third and fourth-years, in addition to linguistic knowledge (lexical, syntactic, and semantic). This idea is supported by Burn (1999:62, cited in Bella 2004:6) who defines *population* as an entire group of people, objects or events that all have at least one characteristic in common and must be defined specifically and unambiguously. In this respect, the learners are of nearly the same age and non-native speakers of English language. It is supposed that their learning experience of English is to a general extent the same since all repeaters are excluded. The reason of this exclusion is to avoid any side effects on the test. In this case they are homogeneous.

### **1.10.2 Sample**

Fifty non- native speakers who are fourth year students from college of Arts, Al-Mustansiriya University has been chosen to represent the sample of the study (constituting % 40.32 of the whole population) This representative sample of the subjects is chosen from sections A and B ( 25 students of each section ).This selection has been made on the basis that students at this stage are able to speak with good fluency and accuracy. Moreover, they are supposed to have good knowledge of understanding and producing different spoken situations at different

occasions. All students are native speakers of Iraqi Arabic and their average age was twenty two years. These are the conditions of homogeneity of the sample (Corder, 1981: 71).

Moreover, the subjects selected are supposed to have acquired well-formed structures and a good storage of lexical items in addition to the ability to manipulate this knowledge when they are required to do so. This, in return, will help them solve problems and difficulties pertaining to pragmatic and socio-pragmatic issues.

### **1.10.3 Equalization**

For building a good test, certain variables – causing variance in the subjects' performance – should be taken into account (i.e. achieving equalization among the chosen subjects). These variables ( factors) mainly include age, subjects' background and parents' level of education which covertly play an effective role in test performance and which make a difference in student's recognition and production of socio-pragmatic aspects of spoken situations ( c.f. Good et al., 1976: 366).

Using statistical tools, it has been found that there are no significant differences among the testees as far as age variable, background variable and parents' level of education variable are concerned.

### **1.10.4 Construction of the Test**

Constructing a test is thought to be the most efficient means of deducing the students' linguistic responses with regard to the subject under investigation. The test that has been designed for the purpose of verifying the goals of the present study has gone through several stages. The first is the choice of the items; insuring their validity and reliability then establishing the scoring scheme. Before the administration of the main test, a pilot test is designed and administered to another selected sample of 15 students of section C, in order to see if there is any defect or any required insertion concerning all the relevant steps of the test. Finally, the main test is administered to the chosen sample and statistical means and percentages are used to detect results of the subjects' responses on the test.

The test is comprised of two questions ( of 20 items ) ; 10 items for recognition and 10 for production. The choice of the items has mainly been made to verify the aims of the study. The test involves items that require both socio-pragmatic and linguistic knowledge to be performed. Particularly, the test contains certain spoken situations implying the use of the speech acts of condoling, offering and warning to be recognized and produced by the students.

### **1.10.5 Validity**

The validity of a test is concerned with what the test measures and how well it does so. In other words, it is "the degree to which the test actually measures what is intended to measure" (Brown, 1987: 221). The standard method of estimating this factor is through statistical correlation with other related measures. Another method is to find out how the test is evaluated as a measuring instrument for its specific purpose by expert educationalists. This procedure should yield convincing and verifiable evidence that the test accurately and sufficiently measures the testees for the particular purpose it is designed to address (Harrison, 1983: 11).

More elaborately, Bachman and Palmer (1996:21) define validity as "the extent to which the conclusions are applicable to a large population drawn from a specific sample". Similarly, Tyler (1963:28) considers validity as "the most important consideration in the construction and use of the test". Thus, the test is valid when it is accurate in measuring what it is ought to measure (Tyler, 1963: 26; Ebel, 1972: 435; Heaton, 1975:153).

Validity always refers to the degree to which the gathered empirical evidence supports the adequacy and appropriateness of the inferences that are made from the scores. It means that the interpretations and uses that reserchers make of test scores are to be valid. Placed it another way, a test is said to be valid to the extent that is measures what it is supposed to measure ( Ebel, 1972: 435). If the test is not valid for the purpose for which it was designed, the scores do not mean what they are supposed to mean.

Validity of any test is of many kinds, each is dependent upon the specific purpose for which the test is used. For Harris (1969:12), the most important kinds



are *content validity* and *face validity*. Every test, whether it is a short, informal classroom test or a public examination, should be as valid as the constructor can make it. The test must aim to provide a true measure of the particular skill which it is intended to measure.

Face validity is the suitable kind to find out whether the items given are said to be valid to attain the aims stated at the beginning of the present study or not. In fact, it refers to the degree to which a test appears to measure the knowledge or abilities it claims to measure, based on the subjective judgment of an observer (Richards and Schmidt , 2002: 196-7). That is, face validity could be described as the layman's impression of what a test measures. A test must have a certain degree of face validity for its user. If a test does not appear to be measuring what it purports to measure, this could, for example, be determined to the motivation of testees , and this way influences their test performance.

To determine face validity, the test has been exposed to a number of experts in Linguistics and ELT in Al-Mustansiriya University and University of Baghdad. They have been requested to comment and make any necessary suggestion, modification, omission, or addition to the items of the test. In this respect, the test items have proved to be valid and appropriate for the fourth year college students at the departments of English. These items show 100% agreement of the jury experts.

#### **1.10.6 Reliability**

One of the necessary characteristics of a test to be good is reliability. A reliable test is the one that produces essentially the same results consistently on different occasions when the conditions of the test remain the same ( Gronlund, 1976; Madesen, 1983; Mehrens and Lehmann, 1991: 294-262). Put it another way, a good test provides a more reliable indication of the skills students have and it also ensures that they do not suffer unfairly because of a poor question (Anastasi, 1982: 131).

Reliability is concerned with ascertaining to what degree scores on tests or assessments are affected by measurement error, i.e., by variation in scores caused

by factors unrelated to the ability being assessed (e.g., conditions of administration, test instructions, fatigue, guessing, etc.). Such factors may result in inconsistent performance by test takers (Brindley, 1998 cited in Carter and Nunan, 2001: 138).

Test reliability derives from a commitment to standardization whereby all sources of potential error, including test methods effects, such as test-taking strategies, preferences for a particular type of test, age, gender, and cognitive style are minimized to ensure that the observed score is as close to the true score as possible (Bachman, 1990: 161).

A test is reliable if it yields the same score through multiple administrations across different learners of similar ability at the same point in time or across different points in time for the same learner, assuming his/her abilities have not changed. Once the likelihood of error is minimized, any changes in performance for the most part can be attributable to some confidence to real change in the variable (e.g., language proficiency) under scrutiny.

In addition, the testees are told that the test is intended to measure their linguistic performance of the topic in question in order to motivate them to do their best. Finally, the researcher explains the instructions of the test to the testees in Arabic when this is needed in order to make sure that they have understood these instructions.

It is important to mention that reliability can be "enhanced by making the test instructions absolutely clear, restricting the scope for a variety in the answers, and making sure the test conditions remain constant" (Harmer, 2001: 322). The researcher corrected the responses of the subjects twice and the period between the two corrections was two weeks. Using Pearson Correlation Formula, the reliability coefficient of the test is found to be 0.88. This result is considered acceptable with reference to Mehrens and Lehman (1991: 225). This formula is shown as follows:

$$R = \frac{N \cdot \Sigma XY - \Sigma X \Sigma Y}{\sqrt{[N \cdot \Sigma X^2 - (\Sigma X)^2][N \cdot \Sigma Y^2 - (\Sigma Y)^2]}}$$

where

N = The number of students in the sample

$\Sigma X$  = The sum of X scores

$\Sigma Y$  = The sum of Y scores

$\Sigma X^2$  = The sum of squares of X scores

$\Sigma Y^2$  = The sum of squares of Y scores

$\Sigma XY$  = The sum of the product Y scores for each student

(Lado,1964: 336).

### 1.10.7 Pilot Study

The pilot test refers to a try-out of the test to a small but representative group of subjects ( Heaton, 1982: 158). Baker (1989:42) stresses the importance of this step in a foreign language testing ,stating that "if a test being developed seriously it will go through one or more stages of piloting when it is tried out on a suitable group of 'guinea pigs'". The pilot test is important since:

- i. it provides information about test items to determine whether they are easy or difficult to the students( i.e., the workability of the test and the clarity of its instructions) (Al-Zobaie and Al-Hamadani,1982:13),
- ii. it estimates the time required that the students should take in the main test,
- iii. it calculates the reliability of the test,
- iv. it analyzes the test items to find out the difficulty level and discriminating power (ibid).

On 15<sup>th</sup> of March, 2016, 15 fourth-year students for the pilot test (from College of Arts, Al-Mustansiriya University) were seated and the test sheets were distributed to them. The students' pilot responses had been analyzed and checked. Some modifications have been added in order to make the instructions more

understandable by the testees. The time required for the subjects to answer the test questions was found to range from 40 to 45 minutes. This gives an indication that 45 minutes would be sufficient for the subjects to complete the test.

#### **1.10.8 Test Administration**

After ensuring the validity and reliability of the test, the final version of the test was administered to the sample of 50 fourth-year students of the Department of English, College of Arts. All the items were read by the researcher (each sentence was read twice), and further illustration was sometimes given to Iraqi students when they asked about some items. The subjects were instructed to read the test instructions and allowed to ask any question if they found difficulty. The researcher was, sometimes, obliged to use Arabic language to help students to understand the purpose behind the items given. Here, he focused on two points: (1) the semantic and pragmatic interpretation leading to speaker's intention, and (2) types of speech acts involved.

The test was administered in the second term on 22<sup>nd</sup> of March of the academic year 2015-2016. The aims of the test were clarified for the students before they responded, to give them a clear idea concerning their task. For the first question (of recognition part), the students were asked to identify the appropriate speech act used in the given item. The second question (of production part) required the students to provide suitable utterances in correlation with the situations given ( i.e. the manipulation of the three speech acts of condoling , warning and offering).

It is important to note that these 50 students volunteered to participate in the test, a point which indicated their willingness, desire and motivation to take it. In addition, the subjects were informed to take the test seriously and encouraged to feel free to ask questions. The students were also asked to write their answer on the same test sheet in order to save time and effort.

#### **1.10.9 Scoring Scheme**

Assessing the numerical scores of the students' responses seems to be essential for detecting and assigning points of difficulty and failure, through errors

committed by the students. In fact, scoring involves the process of correcting tests and assessing their numerical scores. In this connection, Mehrens and Lehman (1991:75-6) add that scoring of objective test, as compared with that of a subjective one, is easier to grade accurately, and that the scorer's tasks seem to be more explicit, because such scoring is determined almost completely by the test, not only by the personal judgment of the scorers.

The whole test is scored out of hundred. The criterion for correcting the responses of the subjects is mainly suggested by the researcher and Asst. Prof. Abbas Lutfi Ph.D. (A staff member of the Department of English, College of Arts, Al-Mustansiriya University).

Question one, implying recognition, is scored objectively since such a scoring cannot be attributed to the personal opinion of the testees. This is owing to the fact in such a question students are required to supply brief answers or choose the right alternative (the choice of the right speech act). For the recognition test, it has been scored out of 50; that is, each item is given five marks if it is true, and zero if it is wrong. Zero score is also given to any blank item (left unanswered).

On the other hand, the production test is a subjective one as the testees are required to give his/her suitable utterance in relation with the situations given. Therefore, the process of scoring is done with the help of a teacher in the Department of English. However, the production test is also scored out of 50; each item is scored out of 5, taking into consideration all types of errors a scorer comes across, i.e., pragmatic, syntactic, and lexical errors. A full mark is given to an utterance which is socio-pragmatically, semantically and syntactically acceptable. The improper answer or avoidance of an item is given zero mark.

### **1.11 Summary**

Chapter one has been introduced with the aim of providing the main theoretical pillars required for the practical side. The term pragmatics has been defined focusing on its main components, i.e., the concept of speech acts in general and the utilization of speech acts in classroom teaching has also been mentioned. Some pages are devoted to the presentation of pragmatic failure and

deviation attempting to explore the factors behind such deviation and failure. Some relevant studies have been designated to provide the crucial gap that this study tries to fill. The second section of this chapter is concerned with the methodology and procedures used to verify the aims and hypotheses of this study. Therefore, it involves the population and sample chosen, qualities of a good test (validity and reliability), pilot test, administration of the main test and the scoring scheme used for assessing the test (both recognition and production).

In brief, this chapter intends to provide the raw material for the analysis of the students' responses on the test. It attempts to provide a gradual step to the movement from the theory to the practice.

## **Chapter : 2 Practical Part**

The practical part involves the analysis of results of the recognition and production questions. Students' answers to these two questions are collected and analyzed detecting the number of the correct and incorrect answers to each item that the sample has made. Finding reasons and justifications behind the socio-pragmatic deviation and failure of offering, warning and condoling is introduced with the aim of arriving at the main findings using suitable percentages. Some pedagogical implications and suggestions for further studies are also presented. The practical value of the study lies in the fact that the results and conclusions of the investigation of offering, warning and condoling as employed by Iraqi EFL college students in their spoken situations are accounted for. It would give teachers, tutors, text-writers and syllabus designers insightful dimensions into how to account for the teaching of these speech acts in classroom.

This chapter is mainly devoted to the investigation and analysis of the Iraqi EFL students' socio-pragmatic and pragma-linguistic failure and deviation when recognizing and producing certain illocutionary acts observed in the data which involve utterances implying the use of the speech acts of condoling , offering and warning. The discussions and analysis of such failure is mainly seen as being caused by two major factors, namely, the inappropriate use of meaning and form which are in turn the results of certain factors. In addition, there are other factors that lead to this type of failure. So, the chapter would analyze the socio-pragmatic and pragma-linguistic failure and the factors and causes that lead to such failure and deviation.

In other words, this chapter endeavors to present and explain the results of the test (in its both recognition and production sides) by virtue of the scoring scheme. It attempts to detect testees' responses with respect to their ability to recognize and produce utterances involving the three mentioned speech acts. Students' errors in terms of frequency of occurrence are identified and analyzed with the aim of arriving at the congruent insights concerning the nature of the students' failure.

## 2.1 Recognition Level

As far as the Iraqi EFL students' ability to identify the type of the speech acts ( of condoling , warning and offering ) involved in the utterances given in Question One, it has been found that students perform better in recognizing the speech acts of *offering* than that of *warning*. In case of their ability to recognize the speech act of *condoling* , they have proved to be so weak, as only 26 correct responses out of the total 150 have recoded. This indicates that students' recognition of the speech act of condoling constitutes 17.33% . For the recognition part , table 1 below provides an overall profile of the number of the subjects' correct and incorrect responses with their percentages:

**Table1: Recognition Test**

<b>Speech Acts</b>	<b>Total Responses</b>	<b>Correct Items</b>	<b>Percent.</b>	<b>Incorrect Items</b>	<b>Percent.</b>
<b>Warning</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>44%</b>	<b>84</b>	<b>56%</b>
<b>Offering</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>56.66%</b>	<b>65</b>	<b>43.33%</b>
<b>Condoling</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>17.33%</b>	<b>124</b>	<b>82.66%</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>450</b>	<b>177</b>	<b>39.33%</b>	<b>273</b>	<b>60.66%</b>

It is obvious as shown in the table above that Iraqi fourth year students find difficulty in identifying the particular speech act ( i.e. either warning , offering or condoling) to the given utterance. The total number of the correct answers constitutes 177 out of 450 responses with a percentage of 39.33% . Furthermore, the correct answers of the speech act of condoling have the rate of 17.33% , and of the speech act of warning , the rate is 44% , while that of offer , the rate is 56% . This means that the most difficult items students encountered are those pertaining to the illocutionary act of condoling and less are those of warning, and the least difficult are those associated with offering. It seems that the reason behind such errors can be attributed to the fact that students, in general, are likely to be more familiar with expressions of offering than those of warning. They, moreover, seem



to be unfamiliar with those of condoling, a point which needs to be considered in designing EFL curriculum.

## **2.2 Production Level**

With reference to the production question, students are found to be weaker in producing utterances involving the use of the three speech acts of warning, offering and condoling. In addition, students are also found to commit more errors and produce more deviated utterances concerning the speech act of condoling – only 11 correct answers out of 150 (total responses of condoling) have been recorded. As for the speech acts of warning and offering, only 29 correct answers out of 150 (total responses of warning) have been recorded for warning and 46 correct answers out 150 (total responses of offering) have been recorded for offering. This gives the indication that students in the production test face more difficulties in producing proper utterances for the given situations. This fact is confirmed by the low percentage. Question Two designates that the total number of the correct answers of the whole question is 86 out of 450 (the total number of the responses of the items concerned).

This question refers to the fact that one of the causes of socio-pragmatic failure and deviation can be ascribed to the students' unfamiliarity to such spoken situations. They seem to be somewhat acquainted with offering and warning in comparison with condoling, although they have proved to be weak in handling situations associated with the three given speech acts . To have a better view of such deviations and errors committed in Question Two, consider table 2 below:

**Table 2: Production Test**

<b>Speech Acts</b>	<b>Total Responses</b>	<b>Correct Items</b>	<b>Percent.</b>	<b>Incorrect Items</b>	<b>Percent.</b>
<b>Warning</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>19.33%</b>	<b>121</b>	<b>80.66%</b>
<b>Offering</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>30.66%</b>	<b>104</b>	<b>69.33%</b>
<b>Condoling</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>7.33%</b>	<b>139</b>	<b>92.66%</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>450</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>19.11%</b>	<b>364</b>	<b>80.88%</b>

This table reveals that EFL students generally fail or deviate to produce proper utterances implying the utilization of the three speech acts of warning, offering and condoling. Thus, it is important to dig into the reasons and causes behind this deviation or failure; the following sections are concerned with providing such analysis.

### **2.3 Reasons behind Socio-pragmatic Deviation**

With relation to table 1 and 2 above, it has been noticed that Iraqi EFL learners have displayed several defects and inefficiencies as far as their performance of the spoken utterances is concerned. Generally, those learners fail to produce proper utterances owing to certain pragmatic, socio-pragmatic, pragma-linguistic and linguistic ( syntactic and semantic ) reasons. Socio-pragmatically, these reasons include:

1. The influence of L1 culture, and
2. Lack of the social norms and principles of the target culture.

#### **2.3.1 Warning**

Two main reasons behind students' failure to recognize and produce the speech act of warning. They are as follows:

##### **A. Influence of L1 Culture**

In relation with this socio-pragmatic factor, students attempt to produce the required spoken situations but use their L1 socio-pragmatic resources because of the direct influences of L1 pragmatics. This might be interpreted as the attempts

of learners to produce the spoken situations relying on their socio-pragmatic knowledge of their L1 as it seems that they are unaware of the socio-pragmatic behavior of the target language, which is completely different from that of L1. Moreover, aspects of cultural norms, principles and rules of L1 cannot be appropriate or applicable to the norms, principles and rules of L2.

On the other hand, this might be interpreted as the fact that while engaging in the responding process, learners are thinking of their L1 pragmatic and cultural resources to produce the required spoken situation because they are linguistically influenced by their L1 resources, thinking that this is the way to properly perform the spoken utterances. In other words, it seems that learners are mostly unaware of the social and cultural norms of the target language; they are unaware of the social and cultural norms of the target language, so when producing the required spoken situations, they are attempting to approach the socio-pragmatics of the target language but they fail to do so because of being unfamiliar with that of that of the target language.

The following examples show that Iraqi EFL learners often try to produce the speech act of warning relying on their L1 socio-pragmatic knowledge:

**Item 1**

1. you can't use force with me.
2. what do you think ? I have a bitter meat try me.
3. I will attack you and destroy you.
4. do it again and it is the last day.
5. stars are closer to you than you thought it.

**Item 2**

6. leave the room better for you.
7. Your voice is bothering.
8. oh it is problem for you.
9. I will call my father.
10. what is the solution ?

**Item 3**

11. who let you drive.
12. anyone can drive these days.
13. see what will happen to you.
14. you will regret.
15. fix the screen or it will be higher.

These responses obviously reveal that those students have completely deviated when trying to produce the spoken situations of warning because of the direct influence of their L1 socio-pragmatic knowledge. Although their syntactic and semantic abilities seem to be good, the way they use them deviates from those of the target language. They give utterances that are suitable in their native language situations. As if the students were attempting to translate from Arabic into English irrespective of the fact that English and Arabic are completely two different languages surrounding by two different circumstances, obeying different social and cultural norms, conventions , principles and rules. Furthermore, it is a kind of performance that might be accounted for as a direct translation of the speech events of warning found in their L1 (Arabic version). One can conclude that those students are linguistically good in mastering the linguistic knowledge of the target language, but pragmatically they have failed to produce responses that are similar to the ones produced by native speakers of English. Though they sometimes seem to understand the situations, they have failed to produce the responses that match such situations. To augment such view it is possible to consider more examples:

16. You don't know who my relative is .
17. stars are closer to you
18. if you don't get it back I will get your past.

All these utterances seem to be common in Iraqi Arabic culture and society. A striking point here is that students ignore the fact that these two languages are of two different backgrounds and cultures, moreover, they have not paid attention to punctuation marks, particularly capitalization at the beginning of a sentence.

## **B. Lack of Social Norms of L2**

With reference to this factor, learners show that they lack the social norms of the target language, so when they produce the required spoken utterances; such utterances do not imply the use of the speech act of warning. Mostly, another speech act is issued in these situations. In some cases, the produced spoken utterances are unclear and hesitant, in a way that the indicated speech is not obviously recognized.

This lack of norms is mainly attributed to the fact that while attempting to produce the required spoken utterances, they are thinking of the socio-pragmatic knowledge of the target language, but failed to produce proper utterances. This is simply because they are unfamiliar with such norms as in the following examples:

**Item 1**

19. I will prevent you as much as possible.
20. well I am stubborn ... But you know.
21. it is time... for what is I call revenge or...no...
22. don't take it or else you will fail.
23. force with you
24. let us see
25. please I need money.
26. force will never force

**Item 2**

27. I take out of him
28. loudly is not good
29. not to talk loudly
30. please don't talk... talk no... don't talk. Not that loudly

I think but you should not do so..

31. loudness is what we don't prefer if quietness is very important
32. well why don't be like what I think very calm to yourself.
33. why it is always that you speak loudly and never ... well ... you should not speak in this way while people are quite.

**Item 3**

34. why to do that ... it is very expensive don't you drive carefully ... what did you do oh man I don't like it.
35. smashing my car is not what I think a good job but anyway you must pay all what I think needed or else it is going to be really great problem ... but not one to you.
36. well it is really a problem for you because ....uh....I am sure it is difficult can you afford to do it but never lie .
37. why do that
38. hey ... you don't see me, don't you ?
39. why didn't you do that , are you what ? I am so angry at what happened but we must do something because things are not to be like that.

Clearly, those examples reveal that learners are attempting to approach the production of the required spoken event concerning the employment of the speech act of warning on the basis of their knowledge that is not related to their L1 linguistic resources. They are trying to use the target language conventions and norms, but they lack the actual use of the socio-pragmatic knowledge of the target language. As a consequence, their performance seems to be awkward, hesitant and non-native one. Students' responses are long sentences as in the example 34, 35 and 39. This reflects the fact that they are mainly confused as to which proper performance to be used. They resort to various possible responses which are confused leading to weakening their responses and clearly made them awkward and unclear.

### **2.3.2 Offering**

The students' failure to recognize and produce the speech act of warning is also owing to two main reasons which are as follows:

#### **A. Influence of L1 Culture**

As mentioned earlier with spoken events of warning, students tend to use socio-pragmatic knowledge to produce spoken situations of offering that is mainly derived from the socio-pragmatic resources of their L1. That is, the influence of L1 culture is shown in the following examples:

#### **Item 4**

40. what are you doing? Are you serious ? I will pay I will never let you pay are you doing seriously ?
41. you pay every time and I keep silent, this time it is no way for you. This time it is my generosity
42. don't make me shy, it is not worthy
43. never I swear never swore what do you do after my swearing
44. hide all your money or I will get upset
45. are you speaking truly? Is it reasonable that you pay what are you doing?  
Don't let me swear.

#### **Item 5**

46. you must come all things free I will never let you pay any money, don't worry  
I have money that never end
47. come to the countryside you will see things you never saw what are you talking , try the countryside, it is eating and drinking with no money
48. are you serious , you will not pay any money , I take you from the beginning to the end and I pay what you want
49. where do you find a trip without money
50. you are crazy...don't refuse it will never happen again, all things from the start to the end are without money
51. don't care for anything it is all on my expenses even the gifts I buy them for you

#### **Item 6**

52. I am shy but I will buy you all books in city
53. what do I say but fate...but don't worry I offer you anything you choose
54. I will give you money whatever you want but please don't end the relation, is it reasonable that you end everything for a book?
55. I am so sorry but I will buy you something that is better than the book thousands of time
56. forgive me and God give you

57. I know that your heart is great and I am sure that the coming days will surprise you with what I do for you

Analyzing these responses linguistically and closely examining the students' socio-pragmatic knowledge, it can be noticed that their responses are totally a reflection of the socio-pragmatic knowledge of their L1. They completely rely on their social and cultural norms and principles of their L1 while trying to produce the required spoken situations of the speech act of offering . Such socio-pragmatic failure or deviation can be clearly noticed when they try to match the target situations with that of their native situations. To illustrate this point , consider the following examples in which the use of certain words , phrases and expressions are clearly adaptations of the students' L1 spoken situations:

58. Are you serious ?

59. Seriously?

60. Never I sworn never I swore

61. Hide all your money

Such words and phrases are common in everyday conversations in Iraqi situations, particularly when people speak to one another to express the speech act of offering such as paying something for a friend, or offering something to a friend . They repeat the use of the word *swear* with its derivatives *swore* and *sworn* as clearly noticed in their speech. Such a word is manipulated to tell the other party that, e.g. "I invite you and you must not pay for your food ". Similarly, the following words and expressions are also found in the students' responses to the situations involving the utilization of offering:

- money that never end

- it is eating and drinking without money

- from the beginning to the end

- all things from the start to the end are without money

These expressions are completely Arabic dialectal expressions used in everyday situations. Such students resort to them to solve problems they face in producing spoken utterances concerning the speech act of offering. Again, they ignore the



fact that English and Arabic cultural norms and conventions are completely different. The result is a non-native performance of offering.

### **B. Lack of Social Norms of L2**

Iraqi EFL Students also reveal lack of social and cultural norms and conventions related to the production of the speech act of offering. Consequently, they produce unclear and hesitant utterances which do not match with that of the native speaker. However, deviation and failure of applying socio-pragmatic knowledge from L1 to L2 in offering seems to be less than that of warning. Consider the following examples concerning the manipulation of the speech act of offering:

#### **Item 4**

62. I offer you

63. It is my pay

64. it is payment that I want

65. you want to have a drink for free money so you don't need but to say yes

66. leave it on my check

67. you should leave the money, it is issue of the paying the money which is not really interesting for me.

#### **Item 5**

68. a free trip is important because it is a fresh to you

69. I offer you a trip

70. it is a trip that I want to say for free of charge

71. yes my friend free with you

72. come to my trip it is what we call free with pleasure

73. hey I have great thing for you , it is free trip

#### **Item 6**

74. the book is important as I discovered

75. oh it is the book that I lost but not that I want to tell you about such thing.

It is very important to you I know but what can you say about it

76. we both lose it so I offer you and insist that you take the offer so seriously

77. we are to settle this issue by offering you what is really you can like forever

78. a book is better than anything to you I really know that but I give you that book and it is very important

The responses above noticeably reveal that Iraqi EFL students are attempting to approach the production of the spoken situations of offering on the basis of their L1 background ( pragmatic ) knowledge which is not linked to L2 pragmatic knowledge . They are aware of using the linguistic resources of the target language, but lack its socio-pragmatic resources. This lack makes them produce spoken utterances of offering in an inappropriate way; the produced utterances are indefinite and awkward, not related to the required one in most instances. These reticent utterances are made due to the following words, phrases and expressions which are so common in Iraqi dialect as used in every day conversations:

- my pay
- paymen that I want
- free money
- leave it on my check/ account
- for free of charge
- it is the issue of paying the money
- take the offer so seriously
- free with you
- you can like forever
- a book is better than anything

Indeed , such utterances, seem to be direct translations of Arabic utterances used for expressing offer, but they cannot be used in English situations to indicate offer. For example , the last example " a book is better than anything" in some cases in Arabic can be used to issue the speech act of offering, yet , it cannot be used in English context to indicate offering.

### **2.3.3 Condoling**

In the case of the speech act of condoling, two factors also affect their production and cause their failure and deviation, i.e. influence of L1 culture and lack of social norms of L2.

#### **A. Influence of L1 Culture**

Iraqi students are highly influenced by their native language cultural norms and rules and social conventions of condoling. Examples taken from their responses to items 7-9 clearly show that their utterances are direct translations of utterances of condoling used in Arabic culture into English ones. Consider the following:

##### **Item 7**

79. God bless him because he was good to people so God will forgive him.

80. We are all dead.

81. oh I don't believe it, he was so healthy.

82. my friend I am sorry but it is his moment.

83. that's our life who knows about it.

84. don't be sad God is so merciful.

85. I am sorry the blessing is in you.

86. it is you that continue his start.

87. I am sorry my friend but it is fate who decides things and you are believer so accept it.

88. we are all going to die one day so please don't cry

89. you believe in God right so remember that God will keep him.

##### **Item 8**

90. oh I am shocked to what happened but life never continue, it a day even you and I.

91. who stays alive forever.

92. my dear friend the cry never gets him back so please ask God for him all the time.

93. it is life, it always takes good people.

94. oh please don't do this to yourself.  
95. it is something horrible, he was so young.  
96. please tell me the accident I know it is hard for you.

### **Item 9**

97. you are the eldest , the blessing is in you.  
98. I am very sorry I knew he was very dear to you and he is always dear for us  
we are family not friends.  
99. I am very sorry but you are instead .  
100. he will not die because you will complete his way.  
101. I am terribly sorry but death is written.  
102. what can we do ? death is the means of comfortable in such bad life.  
103. make charity to his soul.  
104. oh you are the eldest so you must be strong and take responsibility.

These examples reveal that learners have failed or deviated to produce the appropriate spoken situations of condoling. This failure or deviation is mainly due to the fact that they are resorting to their L1 socio-pragmatic knowledge without thinking of the cultural and social norms and conventions of the target language. This failure can be clearly noticed through the exploitation of certain expressions and phrases that are common in Iraqi society used to show regret and sorrow in expressing condolence. These expressions are:

- we are all dead
- he was so healthy
- his moment
- it is a day even you and I
- the blessing is in you
- You will complete his way.

These utterances of condoling, when translated from Arabic language, clearly reveal that they are created by them not found in the target language. Moreover, these expressions seem to be of Islamic nature as they have mostly reference to teachings (e.g. *we are all dead* , *his moment* , *you will complete his way* ..., etc.)

## **B. Lack of Social Norms of L2**

Once again, learners' lack of the social norms and conventions of using condoling in the target language makes them produce improper and inappropriate utterances of condoling, although they are trying to think of linguistic resources of the target language. In other words, they are thinking of the socio-pragmatic norms and conventions of the target language, but do not know the appropriate resources to be used as shown in the following examples:

### **Item 7**

- 111. may he live
- 112. oh I am really sorry to hear this but well it is time for you.
- 113. great mind is better than the dead as I think.
- 114. in the soul of his own
- 115. I am sorry your father was good but what to do next.
- 116. that is terrible and it is the news that is really terrible
- 117. what can I say my friend but you stay
- 118. I am here for you to support the issue of the trouble.
- 119. it is bad thing for sure but it is going on I mean you have nothing about it.

### **Item 8**

- 120. so sorry for your losing
- 121. such an accident causing terrible future
- 122. I am sad because you lost your brother in accident.
- 123. your brother caused tragedy
- 124. what can I say but it is really for all of us
- 125. my friend I know it is terrible but you cross it sooner or later because I know you.
- 126. it is a losing for you and also for anyone who care about the issue.

### **Item 9**

- 127. it is really sad for you and I should say few things that express what I feel towards

128. I came when I heard and I am so sorry because there are no things and sentences that will do for this bad situation.

129. what a sad thing to live now but soon I am sure you will be able to overcome the entire situation when it is passing.

130. it is sad for you but you are so wise to be in the situation cause no one will have this power but you.

131. I attended the funeral and you are the eldest son so what to say is nothing but you are patient.

132. it is the soul that I mean to you

133. the funeral is really honor for this sad occasion.

These responses above show that Iraqi students have tried to socio-pragmatically approach the speech event of condoling on the basis of their pragmatic knowledge of the target language but seemingly fail to do so. Therefore, they have pragmatically produced awkward and unclear utterances in most situations. Again here the problem lies in the fact that they depend on their pragmatic knowledge of their native language to produce utterances of condolence.

#### **2.4 Socio-pragmatic Deviation Due to Linguistic Knowledge**

Iraqi FEL students deviate or fail when attempting to produce the required spoken utterances because of their lack of certain linguistic knowledge. The lack in some cases is partial, and others, it is total. This lack is represented by inefficiency in syntactic and semantic knowledge. Consequently, the responses are awkward and unclear. The responses are also characterized by having several types of grammatical, spelling and punctuation mistakes. This lack of linguistic knowledge can be divided into two types: Lack of syntactic knowledge and Lack of semantic knowledge.

##### **2.4.1 Lack of Syntactic Knowledge: Warning**

This type of knowledge is mainly concerned with (i) wrong use of tenses and (ii) improper use of functional words.

##### **A. Wrong Use of Tenses**

Within this linguistic defect of tenses, learners are highly confused as to which appropriate tenses to be used which suits the required spoken situations in question. Mostly, they are mixing between past simple and present simple or progressive. This confusion occurs because they do not recognize the required tense that matches the spoken situation. Because of this confusion, students produce incomplete utterances with wrong tenses. Consider the following examples :

142. oh yes sure I would ... no I made him or I am thinking...

143. I am forcing now.. well...uh I forced him by beating

144. he didn't take my money ... he is nit trying to take it ... because  
I am strongly

145. I am warning you ... I would surely warn him to ...

146. I have many times warn... I warned him in that ...

147. What happen ... what is happen ... happening you

148. are you insane ... you don't watch ... you haven't watching ...  
or it is you didn't

149. I will smash ... and I am smashing you well...

150. The book my friend I swear I swore ... I have swearing.

These utterances reveal that the students here have deviated or failed to produce proper utterances owing to the fact that they misuse tenses in English, They mix between present and past and sometimes they mix between past and present expressing futurity. The result is that they have produced vague and unclear responses which are characterized as incomplete and sometimes senseless.

## **B. Improper Use of Functional Words**

Linguistically, Iraqi EFL students misuse certain functional words; as a result the produced responses seem to be weak. They seem to be irritated and make a lot of grammatical mistakes. These mistakes or errors are demonstratives, definite and indefinite pronouns, relative pronouns, prepositions, plurality and singularity as shown in the examples below:

151. don't make it ...them ...my money

152. it is not good for him ... or it is for you
153. it is mine ... I mean my money ... I will not let you take mine ... my ...  
the money
154. please that ... ah ... these that the money
155. what do you do for ... in that ... of your choice is very loud
156. to whom your voice ... why it is loud
157. smashing the windscreen ... it is ... well ...
158. he is ... oh no ... you are very bad
159. oh it is the windscreen ... they are the windscreen ... it is

These responses show that in addition to the above mentioned errors and mistakes students lack many grammatical rules such as the inversion of subject auxiliary in questions such as " why it is loud" instead of " why is it loud?", and incomplete sentences such as " these that the money ... ". Consequently, they produce vague and awkward utterances to express the speech act of warning. In other words, this lack of syntactic knowledge leads to irritated and unhappy utterances of warning.

#### **2.4.2 Lack of Syntactic knowledge: Offer**

As with the previous spoken utterances of warning, the students' production of the speech act of offering also shows defects in the use of tenses and the use of functional words.

##### **A. Wrong Use of Tenses**

Iraqi EFL Learners have produced utterances implying the manipulation of the speech act of offering, yet their utterances are highly irritated and vague. This is due to their lack of linguistic knowledge of the grammatical rules, particularly jumping from one to another without giving any justification for this use. They often use the present and move to the past and vice versa. They neglect the fact that this shift produces a change in the meaning of the utterance. This may be owing to the way of processing their utterances of offering which is completely influenced by their native grammatical system. In some cases, confusion occurs because they do not recognize the required tense that matches the spoken situations of offering; therefore; they feel awkward and produce many



ungrammatical utterances and incomplete sentences, as shown in the following examples:

160. don't worry I pay ... I paid ... I had paid for it

161. I was paying it ... I pay it now

162. please let me to pay ... I paid .... mmm ... I had paid

163. come on my friend we go ... we are going to this trip for free ... well we

164. it was free ... for free, I think it is free

165. you don't believe it we went ... go ... we go to the trip

166. the book loses ... I lose ... I lost it and I was ... I offer

Again, these utterances reveal that students freely use different tenses in one utterance (e.g. present simple, present simple and past perfect, as in 162 above).

### **B. Improper Use of Functional Words**

The second shortcoming of students' performance of the speech act of offering is related to the misuse of certain functional words. They commit a lot of ungrammatical errors and deviate from utterances produced by the natives. Here, they misuse functional words (such as demonstratives, definite and indefinite pronouns, relative pronouns, prepositions, plurality and singularity) as shown in the examples below:

167. please my friend whose ... which drink .. do you like for drink ...  
to refer in the .... ah ... to drink

168. please ... this time let me to buy them ... let me but all of these ....  
the drinks

169. come on lets go to its ... it ... for the trip we will have any good ...  
good ... the good time ... well as I think

170. well what do you think in the country ... ah of it ... to go for a free trip

171. A free or ... mmm ... the free right

172. I know I lost a book, the book of yours , your book but I promise I buy in the  
book ... I buy to you others books

173. the book is much importance ... for ... very important but I will give to you  
or ... mmm ... give you the book

### 2.4.3 Lack of Syntactic Knowledge: Condoling

The students' performance of the utterances implying the utilization of speech act of condoling also includes many grammatical errors and mistakes. One problem is associated with the idea that they do not recognize the required tense that matches the spoken situations of condoling. They produce awkward and unclear utterances due to the choice of the tense which often seems unsuitable and irritate the meaning of the utterance. They freely move from one tense to another, neglecting the fact that this movement would disturb the purpose behind issuing an utterance. Needless to say, it is a reflection of their utterances which are direct translations of their Arabic utterances of condoling. Furthermore, they misuse the use of functional words such as pronouns, demonstratives, articles... etc. The following examples are illustrative:

174. I am sorry because he dying ... was die ...ah ... was to die ...

175. what can I say ... your father is he was dead ... mmm ... he died

176. I condoled ... was condole ... I really sorry

177. when he was living or he lived I want to say I to condole him

178. very sorry to hearing ... to hear what happen ... was happen

179. I was really shock ... shocking mostly .... I shocked it

180. please accepting my .... I want to say to accept.....

181. what can I say ... it was really very bad ... it is bad or anyway ... your mother is really a nice ... was very nice person

A striking point to affirm here is that in case of the past progressive most students use the base form of the verb after the auxiliary *was* or *were* ; they seem to neglect rules of constructing tenses . It seems that some students find great difficulties in answering these items of condoling; therefore, they have left the items blank without giving any answers. Some expressions used are completely Arabic as they used in everyday situations , such as , "what can I say" which is often used to show the speaker's confusion and puzzlement in expressing himself , as if the speaker wanted to say " I don't know what to say ". In some cases students seem

to misuse the definite article *a* which should be followed by a singular noun , or they use it in a place which is not required as in "you mother is really a nice".

#### **2.4.4 Lack of Semantic knowledge**

Due to this linguistic aspect, students seem to semantically produce incomplete utterances. They often misinterpret certain lexical items and therefore they fail to give happy utterances concerning the speech acts of warning, offering and condoling.

Consider the following examples which reveal the students' failure to produce appropriate utterances due to their lack of the semantic behavior of certain words and expressions used in the utterances of warning:

182. by force ... well I think I will ... ah ... not cooperate

183. take my money without any ... I will not send by force

184. I will say to him that force is what we use in emergency or ... I think so

185. don't do this because by force will never end the conflict.

It seems that here in case of warning, learners believe that the expression "by force" represents something legal or an interpretation which is not related to the lexical meaning of "taking money strongly".

Similarly, the word "windscreen" seems to be problematic to Iraqi EFL students as they produce the following utterances of warning :

186. you must always smash the windscreen of the car because ... the car may not work properly next time

187. oh the windscreen is expensive so he must use them carefully.

Again the lexical interpretation of the two words "windscreen" and "smashed" are highly misinterpreted in the utterances produced by the students; they think of them as being other than what they mean. This is clearly noticed when learners semantically interpret "smashed" as something positive to the car or they relate it to the engine of the car which is a wrong interpretation of the lexical meaning of the word.

As for the speech acts of offering, there are certain words and expressions are semantically misinterpreted leading to inappropriate utterances of offering. Consider:

188. a lift is something that ... well it has or maybe certain

189. I give him a lift and it is a sort of ... something probably related to ...

I really not sure

The word "lift" in these two examples is lexically misinterpreted as something tangible relating to the verb "give" which is entirely a wrong interpretation of what the word means.

In expressing condolence, there are also certain expressions and words which are wrongly interpreted by the students when producing utterances of condolence. In the following examples, the word "funeral" is misinterpreted by the students.

190. well the funeral and the dead are alike

191. well I say to him that he must keep the funeral

192. I say to the eldest son of the dead that he is so funeral in his behaviour.

It is too obvious that the students have completely misinterpreted the word funeral; in 190 the word "funeral" and "dead" seem to be synonymous; in 191, it is used to refer to the "dead body", whereas in 193, it is used to indicate an adjective meaning "upset". In all these examples the word "funeral" is not appropriately interpreted.

In addition to the idea of misinterpretation of certain lexical items, inability to find appropriate lexical items seems to be the second semantic issue related to lack of semantic knowledge. Within this linguistic defect, students are unable to recognize the lexical meaning of certain items; therefore, they produce irritated and awkward utterances of the three speech acts of warning , offering and condoling. Consider the following examples:

193. well I say to him ... by force which is ... ah maybe bad to me

194. by force ... ah ... yes might mean something

195. he smashed so as to... ahh ... certainly something which is ...

196. give my friend a lift ... it is a kind of well I am not sure what is it .

197. yes lift to my friend I will try ... it is very important but exactly I don't know  
All these examples above show that Iraqi students produce inappropriate and clumsy utterances. One reason behind such clumsiness and inappropriateness is that they are unable to find the most appropriate lexical items. The words and expressions "by force, smashed, a lift" are used when the speaker fails to find a more suitable ones to fit the contexts.

## **2.5 Conclusions**

This section is devoted to the presentation of the major findings that this study has arrived at, on the basis of the analysis made above. These are:

1. Negative transfer of L1 socio-pragmatic knowledge is one of the main characteristics that EFL Iraqi students resort to when attempting to interact, communicate or express spoken situations involving the speech acts of warning , offering and condoling .
2. EFL students fail or deviate with regard to socio-pragmatic knowledge when performing certain spoken situations owing to the fact that they are linguistically unaware of the conventions, norms and resources used in the target language; therefore, their performance is non-native one.
3. Lack of linguistic knowledge ( syntactic and semantic) is an influential factor in understanding and producing certain spoken situations of the speech acts of warning , offering and condoling. This lack is either total or partial as related to the syntactic and semantic knowledge.
4. Lack of socio-pragmatic knowledge and linguistic knowledge leads to the inappropriate recognition and production of the three speech acts. Lack of syntactic knowledge includes wrong use of tenses, misusing functional words such as demonstratives, relative pronouns, definite and indefinite pronouns, plurality and singularity, etc. Lack of semantic knowledge involves misinterpreting certain lexical items and the inability to properly find the most suitable lexical items used in the spoken utterances. This results in hesitant and awkward utterances manipulated for expressing warning, offering and condoling.

5. The easiest spoken utterances for EFL students seem to be those that are pertinent to the speech act of offering, followed by those of the speech act of warning. The most difficult speech act is condolence. This may be due to the familiarity of the former to the students and the unfamiliarity of the latter to them. Put it another way, the norms and conventions used for expressing condolence are so different in the two languages ( L1 and L2).

6. Another reason for the students' failure and deviation is attributed to the communicative strategies are different from one language to another, as these two languages have two different societies , cultures and environments.

7. Most of the utterances produced by EFL students in expressing warning, offering and condoling are translations of Iraqi utterances used in spoken situations utilized for issuing warning, offering and condoling in everyday Iraqi situations.

## **2.6 Recommendations**

On the basis of the findings of the present study, some recommendations are put forward aiming at assisting EFL teachers and learners to improve the various levels of recognizing and producing various spoken utterances, particularly those related to the issuance of the speech acts of warning , offering and condoling. In this way, communication and interaction can be efficiently developed. Some recommendations seem to be important here:

1. In general, instructors and teachers should always motivate, encourage and urge students to practice English inside the class and exhort them to use it outside the class. This would promote students' communicative ability.

2. Instructors should play a crucial role in helping learners to develop and enhance their recognition and production of language in appropriate, fluent and proper manner.

3. Students' syntactic and semantic knowledge should be enhanced and developed by teachers in order to help students produce utterances pragmatically acceptable.

## References

- Austin, J. (1962). *How to Do Things with Words*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Al-Zobaia, A. J. and Al-Hamadani, M. M. (1982). *Test Construction*. Mosul: Dar Al-Kuttab.
- Anastasi, A. (1982). *Psychological Testing*. New York: McMillan Publication Company, Inc.
- Bachman, L. F. (1990). *Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bachman, L. F. and Palmer, F. R. (1996). *Language Testing in Practice: Designing and Developing Useful Language Tests*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1996). *Pragmatics and Language teaching*. Bringing pragmatics and pedagogy together. *Pragmatics and Language Learning*, 7, 21-39.
- Barron, Anne (2003). *Acquisition in Interlanguage Pragmatics*. Review: Acquisition Pragmatics. [http://www.LinguisticsList14\\_1999Acquisition-Pragmatics- Anne Barron. Com](http://www.LinguisticsList14_1999Acquisition-Pragmatics-AnneBarron.Com)
- Baker, D. (1989). *Language Testing: A Critical Survey and Practical Guide*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Brown, H. D. (1987). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc.
- Çakir, I. (2006). *Socio-Pragmatic Problems in Foreign Language Teaching*. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*. Vol.2, No. 2: 136-146.
- Canale, M. (1983). *For Communicative Competence to Communicative Language Pedagogy*. London: Longman.

- Canale, M. & Swain, M. (1980). '*Theoretical Bases of Communicative Approaches to Second Language Teaching and Testing*'. *Applied Linguistics* 1: 1–47.
- Carter, R. and Nunan, D. (eds.) (2001). *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chomsky, N. (1980). *Rules and Representations*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Conejos, Pilar, G. (2000). *A Relevance Theoretic Account of Pragmatic Failure*. Madrid. [http://www. A Relevance- Theoretic Account of Pragmatic Failure.html](http://www.ARelevance-TheoreticAccountofPragmaticFailure.html)
- Cook, V. (1996). *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching*. London: Arnold.
- Corder, S. P. (1981). *Error Analysis and Interlanguage*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Crystal, D. (1985). *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Oxford: Basil Blackwell Ltd.
- Crystal, D. (1987). *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Crystal, D. (2008). *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*. (6<sup>th</sup> ed.) Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Cudden, J. A. (1982). *A Dictionary of Literary Terms*. New York: Penguin Books.
- Dascal, M. (1985). "Language Use in Jokes and Dreams: Sociopragmatic vs. Psycholinguistics" in *Language and Communication*. Vol. 5, No. 2.
- Ebel, R. L. (1972). *Essential of Educational Measurement*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Fasold, R. W. and Connor-Linton, J. (eds.) (2006). *An Introduction to Language*



*and Linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University

- Gronlund, N. E. (1991). *Measurement and Evaluation in Teaching*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed). New York: The Macmillan Co.
- Guan-lian, Q. (2002). *Pragmatics in Chinese Culture*. Beijing: Tsinghua University Press.
- Harison, R. (1983). "Verb-aspect". *Journal of Planned Languages* (24<sup>th</sup> ed.). 1-8.
- Harmer, J. (2001) *The Practice of English Language Teaching* (3rd Ed.) New York: Longman
- Harris, D. P. (1969). *Testing English as a Second Language*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Heaton, J. (1975). *Writing English Language Tests*. London: Longman.
- Hurley, Sean, Daniel, (1992). *Issues in Teaching Pragmatics, Prosody, and Non-Verbal Communication*. Oxford University Press.
- Hymes, D. (1974). 'On Communicative Competence' In: Pride, J. B. & Holmes, J. (eds.). *Sociolinguistics*. New York: Penguin. 269–293.
- Kasper, G. (1997). *The Role of Pragmatics in Language Teacher Education*. New York: McGraw- Hill.
- Kasper, G., & Rose, K. (1999). *Pragmatics and SLA*. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 19, 81-104.
- Kasper, G., & Schmidt, R. (1996). *Developmental issues in Interlanguage pragmatics*. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18, 149-169.
- Kim, D. and Hall, J. K. (2002). "The Role of an Interactive Book Reading Program in the Development of Second Language Pragmatic Competence". *Modern Language Journal*, 86, 332-348.
- Lado, R. (1964). *Language Testing: The Construction and Use of Foreign Language Tests*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Leech, G. (1983). *Principles of Pragmatics*. London: Longman.

- Levinson, S. C. (1983). *Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- LoCastro, V. (2012). Defining the Territory. In V. LoCastro, *Pragmatics for language educators: A Sociolinguistic Perspective*. London: Routledge, pp. 3-17.
- Lubov, Tsurikova. (2004). *Cognitive Aspects of Pragmatic Transfer in Cross-Cultural Communication*. International Pragmatic Association. <http://A:\Lubov Tsurikova.html>
- Madsen, H. (1983). *Techniques in Testing*. New York: Oxford University Press, Inc.
- Mey, J. L. (1993). *Pragmatics: An Introduction*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell, Ltd.
- Meyer, C. F. (2009). *Introducing English Linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Milleret, Margo (2009) "*Teaching Speech Acts*" Unpublished Thesis University of New Mexico.
- Rathert, S. (2013). "*The Language Outside and Inside the Foreign Language Classroom: Speech Act Theory and Discourse Analysis*" *The Internet Journal Language, Culture and Society*, issue 36: 81-87.
- Richards, J. and Schmidt, R. (2010). *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*. London: Longman.
- Rover, C. (2001). "*A web Based Test of Interlanguage Pragmalinguistic Knowledge: Implicatures, Routines and Speech Acts*". Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Hawai'i at Manoa.
- Savignon, S. J. (1972 C). *Communicative ompetence: An Experiment in Foreign Language Teaching*. Philadelphia: Center for Curriculum Development.
- Savignon, S. J. (1983). *Communicative Competence: Theory and Classroom Practice*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Searle, J. R. (1969). *Speech Acts: An Essay in the Philosophy of Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Searle, J. R. (1975). 'Indirect Speech Acts'. In: Cole, P. & Morgan, J. L. (eds.).
- Searle, J. R. (1979). *Expression and Meaning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Shokouhi, S. and Rezaei, A. (2015) "The Importance of Teaching Pragmatics in the Classrooms (Focus on Complimenting)". *Journal for the Study of English Linguistics* . ISSN 2329-70342015, Vol. 3, No. 1,
- Stalnaker, R. C. (1972). Pragmatics. In D. Davidson & G. Harman (Eds.), *Semantics of natural language* (pp. 380-397). Dordrecht: Reidel.
- Strazny, P. (ed.) (2005). *Encyclopaedia of Linguistics*. V. 1. New York: Fitzroy Dearborn.
- Thomas, J. (1983). "Cross-cultural Pragmatic Failure". *Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 2, 91-112.
- Trask, R. L. (2007). *Language and Linguistics: The Key Concepts*. (2d ed.). London: Routledge.
- Trosborg, A. (1995). *Interlanguage Pragmatics: Requests, Complaints and Apologies*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Trosborg, A. (2010). *Pragmatics Across Languages and Cultures*. New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Tyler, L. E. (1963). *Tests and Measurements*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Wolfson, N. (1989). *Perspectives: Sociolinguistics and TESOL*. New York: Newbury House.
- Yule, G. (1996). *Pragmatics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ziran, H. and Xinren, C. (2004). *Contemporary Pragmatics*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

## Appendix

### A. Recognition Test

*Q1/ Identify the type of speech act involved in the following utterances (promise, offering, request, warning, condoling, command, etc.):*

1. At times like these, words cannot express our feelings.
2. I will be thinking of you in this moment of pain.
3. Shall I give you a lift to your office?
4. Have some more chicken, please. There are more on the plate.
5. You'll be in our thoughts and prayers.
6. Help yourself with another piece of cake.
7. Don't go farther, it's too deep.
8. If you don't pay the bill before May 13, you'll be fined.
9. You'd better not drive fast in sloppy streets.

### B. Production Test

*Q2/ What would you say in the following situations:*

1. Someone wants to take your money by force.
2. Your little brother is talking loudly.
3. Someone smashed the windscreen of your car.
4. You want to buy your friend a drink.
5. You want to offer your friend a free trip to the countryside.
6. You lost your friend's book. Offer him a new one.
7. Your father's friend died
8. Your friend lost his brother in an accident.
9. You attended a funeral and you met the eldest son of the dead.