CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an insight on the background and selection of both data and participants. The methodology employed in the study will be elaborated on in three sections namely the types of data collected and the rationale underlying the selection of this data will be dealt with, the instrument to collect the data will be introduced and the procedure that is followed to analyze the data will be explained in details. Further, the pilot study as well as the strength and drawbacks of the research instrument will be highlighted.

3.2 Participants’ Profile

The participants were chosen from among Iranian male native speakers. They were 120 university students doing their studies in a subject not related to languages or linguistics in Iran. They were both undergraduate and postgraduate students of a variety of technical fields of study such as electrical engineering, mechanical engineering, computer science, metal industries, metallurgy, architecture and civil engineering in Majlesi Islamic Azad University, where the researcher works as a lecturer, and from Shahrood University. As far as age is concerned most of them were between 18 and 25 years of age. In order to ensure as much homogeneity as possible in terms of sex, educational background, age range, social class and possible future occupation among the participants, the above-mentioned specifications were
considered with the intention of maintaining as much similarities as possible among
the participants.

3.3 Instruments

One can find a variety of instruments used in the study of speech acts, namely:
Discourse Completion Test (DCT); diary or self-reflective recording of events; recall
protocols; role-play; role-play interview; ethnographic observation; audio-and/or
video-recording; and films. Ethnographic observations, for instance, are the ideal
method of data collection due to capturing the underlying social strategies of behavior
in spontaneous natural data as pointed out by Boxer and Pickering (1995); however,
they are not efficient enough when applied to the study of speech acts. The time-
consuming nature of ethnographic observation and the risk that the amount of the
details in data may make the study impracticable are among those shortcomings of
ethnographic methods referred to by Kasanga and Lwanga-Lumu (2007). Another
difficulty is the challenging task of eliciting real-life apology events even with traps,
such as planting someone behind the door to get whacked every time it is open, as

Nunan (1992: 3) believes that three components of a systematic process of research
are a question, problem or hypothesis, data, and analysis and interpretation of the data.
The questions to be explored in this study have been stated in Chapter 1 Section 1.4.
As for the data, elevating the triangulation aspect of the study was a concern to the
researcher, since the process of triangulation serves to verify and confirm perceptions,
interpretation and findings and to strengthen the researcher’s observations to yield
validity and reliability (Morais, 2000).
A combination of two data collection instruments was utilized in order to have triangulation as a characteristic of this study. Jariah Mohd. Jan (1999: 228-229) believes that qualitative research is based on the assumption that social life and human behavior differ in an essential way from the natural phenomena, where the ultimate difference lies in one’s interpretations, culminating from experience and perceptions. As such, to present a more comprehensive data with the aim of providing the ground for detailed analyses and justified interpretations of the results, two instruments were employed to collect the data.

In order to be in harmony with triangulation characteristics of a research, two main tools of inquiry were employed in this study to gain the relevant data. These instruments as mentioned earlier are the Discourse Completion Test (DCT) and audio-recorded Role-Play which are explained in detail in the following sections.

3.3.1 Discourse Completion Test (DCT)

Data collection methods in the wide area of language studies from such various perspectives of sociolinguistics, pragmatics etc., have always taken measures as precise as possible to collect the best and most suitable data to validate the studies under investigation.

The suitability of the data is both a matter of the data itself and the instrument through which the data is collected. As for the data, researchers have been looking for data representing the natural data. In other words, the authenticity of the data is of great importance in any study. However the authentic or natural data have been interpreted differently by different researchers; as such Marquez-Reiter (2000) exemplifies several studies in which the researchers (e.g. Labov, 1972a,b; Hymes, 1974a; Gumperz, 1982a) have been claimed to be analyzing natural data. The review of the
studies indicates that natural data varies according to the purpose of studies under investigation. It is claimed by Stubbs (1983: 225) that ‘the hunt for pure, natural or authentic data is a chimera’. The claim is supported by Wolfson (1976) where he argues there is no single, absolute data. Wolfson (1976, in Marquez-Reiter, 2000) further explains that ‘if speech is felt to be appropriate to the situation and the goal, then it is natural in that context’.

As for the instrument of data collection, a variety of alternatives have been employed in the study of speech acts which are the case under investigation in this study too. This study employed the Discourse Completion Test (DCT) as one of the data collection instruments based on two rationales; first, to supplement the data collected through this instrument with the data collected through audio-recorded Role-Play for triangulation purposes; second, to use a conventional data collection instrument for this study. As previously stated, many speech acts studies reported in the literature – e.g., Blum-Kulka et al., 1989; Kalantari-Khandani, 1997; Eslami-Rasekh, 2004; Marti, 2006; Salmani-Nodoushan, 2006; Wouk, 2006; Afghari, 2007; Amou-Ali-Akbari, 2007; Nureddeen, 2008; Jalilifar, 2009 to name a few– use DCT to collect the data because it is an appropriate method of data collection for the study of both apology and request. The appropriateness of DCT will be discussed in the subsequent section.

3.3.1.1 Strengths and Weaknesses

DCTs have also been criticized due to such inherent weaknesses as lack of repetition, lack of elaborations and repetitions as in natural data, and other features of natural data. Prabhalini (2006: 66-67) reports that ‘DCT responses are shorter in length, simpler in wording, less face-attentive and negotiatory and less economically involved
than naturally occurring speech’. DCTs have been compared to role plays as one of the other instruments for data collection especially for speech acts studies. Although there are studies providing support for the application of role play in lieu of DCTs, there have also been investigations which found that both elicitation procedures yielded similar data (e.g. Rintell and Mitchell, 1989).

DCT was first adapted by Blum-Kulka (1982) to investigate speech acts. DCT is a questionnaire containing a set of briefly situations designed to elicit particular speech acts. The participants read the situations and respond in writing to a prompt. In an investigation, Billmyer and Varghese (2000) studied the effect of systematic modification to DCT situational prompts used to elicit requests on the responses of the participants of the study. The modifications involved enhancing the situational prompts by adding such information as, gender and the name of the interlocutors, the role relationship between the interlocutors, the length of acquaintanceship, the frequency of interaction, whether or not the relationship was optional, and a description of the place the interaction happened and the time of interaction. The authors found out that modification and manipulation of situational content of DCT has no effect on the choice of request or amount of internal modification. The results also revealed that the preference for conventionally indirect strategies of request were in harmony with previous studies which examined natural data (Billmyer and Varghese, 2000).

Despite many criticisms addressed to DCTs, in her study on refusals Beebe (1985: 10) found that the Discourse Completion Test is an effective tool for:

- Gathering a large amount of data quickly.
- Creating an initial classification of semantic formulas and strategies that will occur in natural speech.
• Studying stereotypical perceived requirements for a socially appropriate response.
• Gathering insights into social and psychological factors that are likely to affect speech and performance.
• Ascertaining the canonical shape of refusals, apologies, partings, etc. in the mind of the speakers of that language.

According to Rintell and Mitchell (1989), DCT elicitation methods are preferred to other methods because of ease of collecting a large number of samples under controlled contextual variables. Moreover, Beebe and Cummings (1985) noted that data elicited with DCTs are consistent with naturally occurring data, at least in the main patterns and formulas.

3.3.1.2 Rationale Underlying the Use of the Discourse Completion Test

The need to collect the data for this study in a lot of batches and analyzing them in a relatively short span of time is a rationale behind utilizing DCT as one of the instruments for data elicitation in this study. The other advantage, which would be another justification as well, is the fact that DCT allows for contextual control, namely manipulation of variables in different situations. The use of DCT paves the way for the participants to yield prototypes of “the variants occurring in the individual’s actual speech” which are sociolinguistic adaptation to very specific situations compared to authentic, but atypical items that natural speech may include (Hill et al. 1986, in Kasanga & Lwanga-Lumu, 2007).

With regard to the above advantages, one of the instruments employed for the collection of apology and request speech acts was the Persian translation of a written questionnaire in the form of the “Discourse Completion Test (DCT)” adopted from Marquez-Reiter (2000) with some modifications.
In order to provide a whole image of the situations used to elicit the data from Persian participants of the study and in order to show the variation of context-internal as well as context-external variables involved in every situation Table 3.1 is provided.

Table 3.1  Context-Internal and Context-External Variables across Situations (Adapted from Marquez-Reiter, 2000)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation</th>
<th>Social Power</th>
<th>Social Distance</th>
<th>Ranking of Imposition/Severity of Offence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R1. Student asks lecturer to borrow his book A1. Student forgets to return the book on time</td>
<td>S&lt;H</td>
<td>+SD</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2. Employee asks manager to cover for him A2. Employee spills coffee on manager’s trousers</td>
<td>S&lt;H</td>
<td>−SD</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R3. Employee asks new trainee to mind telephone while she is out for a few minutes A3. Employee returns one hour and a half later than expected</td>
<td>S&gt;H</td>
<td>+SD</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R4. Speaker is driving and asks his friend to ask someone for directness A4. Driver realizes he had a map all along</td>
<td>S=H</td>
<td>−SD</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R5. Speaker asks a neighbor for help to move out of his flat using his car A5. While in neighbor’s car oil is split over the back seat</td>
<td>S=H</td>
<td>+SD</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R6. Employee asks manager to borrow car A6. Employee crashes car</td>
<td>S&lt;H</td>
<td>−SD</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R7. Speaker suggest that his friend ask for directions from the pedestrian A7. Speaker realizes he had the map in his pocket all the while</td>
<td>S&gt;H</td>
<td>−SD</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R8. Employee put in charge of work project asks colleague to type a few letter A8. Employee asks colleague to rewrite them</td>
<td>S&gt;H</td>
<td>−SD</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R9. Friend asks another friend to borrow his house in countryside A9. Friend spills ink on expensive carpet</td>
<td>S=H</td>
<td>−SD</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R10. Speaker asks bus passenger to swap seat A10. Speaker steps on passenger’s toe</td>
<td>S=H</td>
<td>+SD</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R11. Employee asks new manager for loan A11. Employee returns money later than agreed</td>
<td>S&lt;H</td>
<td>+SD</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R12. Employee asks new trainee to borrow his brand new computer A12. Employee smashing computer screen</td>
<td>S&gt;H</td>
<td>+SD</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R=request, A=apology, S=speaker, H=hearer, SD=social distance, SP=social power
3.3.2 Audio-Recorded Role-Play

To make triangulation a characteristic of this study, DCT-elicited data was supplemented with audio-recorded Role-Plays data. Audio-recorded Role-Plays were employed to collect request and apology speech acts from among the participants. Sixty participants out of 120 university student participants took part in the data collection sessions in pair and acted out situations in which a request and an apology speech act were elicited from the participants.

There have been criticisms addressed to the use of role-plays as a tool of data collection. Clyne et al. (1991: 255), for instance, state “people do not always behave in role-plays as they would in real-life situations and, in fact, do not perceive their own behavior”. However, the simulated real-life situations in which the participants act out provide a detailed account of the realization of speech acts roles played. This account is similar enough to the social and culture-specific characteristics of the community under investigation. Moreover, the possibility of memory distortion which delayed recalls involve will be reduced (Hjelmquist, 1984). The other advantages include obtaining complete conversational interactions, for example openings and closings of conversation; providing the investigators with some degree of control over the interaction process; and reflecting an awareness of the appropriateness of language use (Scarcella, 1979, in Kasanga & Lwanga-Lumu, 2007).

Furthermore, audio-recorded Role-Plays support the validity of DCT data by providing triangulation features (House, 1989; Rintell & Mitchell, 1989).

3.4 Procedure

In order to check the validity of the data collection instruments and the practical aspect of the study, the instruments, namely DCT and Role-Play, were evaluated in a
pilot study among a sample group similar to the participants of the study to analyze:
1) the structure, content and format of the instruments, and to identify any problematic
items which would not yield usable data; 2) the applicability of data collection
frameworks to the data that would be collected for this study.

3.4.1 Pilot study
In the first phase of the pilot study, ten male university students in Iran participated.
All twenty participants were asked to write down their verbal reactions spontaneously
to the situations provided in the DCT. The DCT consisted of 12 combined situations
resulting in the elicitation of 12 requests and 12 apologies, and a short questionnaire
where the participants were asked general questions about their age, educational
background, and occupation. The situations depicted in the DCT represent socially
differentiated situations which reflect everyday occurrences types expected to be
familiar to participants as in the following example.

A5 (Damage Car with Oil):
Your neighbor has agreed to help you move some things out of your apartment with his car. Once in his car you notice how clean and spotless the car is. While turning round a bend a bottle of oil which was amongst your belongings falls onto the back seat and its contents are spilt all over the seat. You both notice it. What do you say to him?

The situations vary according to a number of social variables: the social distance
between the speakers, the relative social power of the participants, the ranking of the
request, and in the case of apologies the severity or seriousness of the offence.
The feedbacks obtained from the participants, highlighted a few typographical errors in the DCT. Moreover, some of the items were modified to match the situations with the Persian context of the study; for instance, the phrase ‘self-service coffee shop’ in A2 (ruin trousers) was crossed out.

In the second phase of the pilot study, another ten male university students were asked to act out the same situations as Role-Plays. In the Role-Play data collections, the speaker (participant A) and the addressee (participant B) were instructed in advance through demonstration. They would receive a card which contained some information explaining the role they had to act out. The information included some character specification, the social power and social distance between the participants as well as some information about the setting in which the interaction is going to take place. The speaker’s and the hearer’s cards were different only in terms of the subject of the speech act in question; the speaker knew what he was going to act out, however, the addressee only knew that the speaker would talk to him, as displayed in the following example.

**Participant A:**
You are a university student. You need to get a book from the library to finish your assignment on time. The library is closed and there is only one person you know who has the book you need, one of your lecturers. On the way to his office you meet him in the hallway. What do you say?

**Participant B:**
You are a university lecturer. While leaving your office you meet one of your students in the hallway. Respond to him.
In their feedback of the Role-Play situations, a few problems regarding the perceptions of context-internal and context-external variables were reported by the participants. For example, after reading the situations some participants were unclear about the familiarity of the interlocutors. Therefore, the situations were clarified and more description of the contextual variables (e.g., social distance) was provided in the respective situations. The interactions between the participants to realize request and apology speech acts were recorded by a digital recorder and were transcribed for the purpose of analysis.

### 3.4.2 Results of the Pilot Study

In the third phase of the pilot study, the data collected from the DCT and the Role-Play were compared and some differences were observed. For example, the apology and request speech acts collected through the Role-Play were longer compared to those of the DCT. The Role-Play yielded apology and request speech acts with opening and closing parts as greetings and leave-taking expressions. However, the main strategies of apology and request speech acts were identified in both the DCT and the Role-Play.

The current study was looking at the main realization patterns of apology and request speech acts with regard to context-internal and context-external variables, and both of the instruments could provide the main realization patterns of the speech acts under investigation in this study. Therefore, the data collected from the DCT and the Role-Play were not differentiated, though some differences were observed, as the opening and closing parts of the Role-Play interactions which included more greetings and farewell expressions compared to the DCT, or as the prosodic features available in the Role-Play data.
The pilot study also showed that there are a few strategies used by the participants of the study for the realization of apology and request speech acts that do not match the strategies in the classic framework developed by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989). The analysis of the strategies identified in the pilot strategies highlighted the possibility of emerging new apology and request strategies out the data. Therefore, the pilot study led us to perform the analysis of the data in two major stages, namely the initial analysis and the complementary analysis, as explained in the subsequent section.

3.4.3 Data Analysis

Once the data was collected, the process of analyzing the collected data was performed in two major stages. As the initial part of the analysis, the data collected through instruments of the study were analyzed, based on a modified data analysis framework developed by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989), for the analysis of request and apology to identify and classify the request and apology strategies identified in Persian (for a detailed account of the data analysis framework see the subsequent section). The identification and classification of request and apology strategies included the tabulation of the frequency distribution of request and apology strategies with regard to context-internal and context-external variables. The data was further analyzed to classify request internal and external modifications and the relation between request modifications and context-internal and context-external variables. The analysis of apology intensifiers as well as the relation between apology intensifiers and context-internal and context-external variables was also a part of initial analysis.

As the complementary part of the data analysis process, this study explored the nature of request and apology realizations among Persian male participants beyond the limits.
of traditional speech act theory. Adopting a broader perspective when analyzing the data and moving beyond the Blum-Kulka et al.’s (1989) data analysis framework, the study investigated strategies other than those reported in most studies of request and apology speech acts to find traces of new culture-specific request and apology strategies. As a result of the complementary part of the analysis, new strategies (see the complementary analysis of the apologies and requests data analysis framework) emerged out of a few situations. The new strategies were incorporated in the respective data analysis frameworks to be used in the process of the analysis of all the data. To produce the frequency distributions and percentages figures and tables the software SPSS was employed.

3.5 Data Analysis Frameworks

The final data analysis frameworks consisted of a combination of modified version of Blum-Kulka et al.’s (1989) data analysis framework and the new request and apology strategies found by the researcher, as illustrated in the subsequent sections.

3.5.1 Requests

The request speech acts are analyzed based on three levels of directness as proposed by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1989) (see page 58). The first category of request speech act is Direct request including the following strategies.

- *Mood Derivable*

  They include utterances in which the syntactic mood of the verb indicates illocutionary force. “The prototypical form is imperative”, however other forms “such as infinite forms and elliptical sentence structure express the same directness level” (Bulm-Kulka et al., 1989: 278-279).
• **Performative**

The illocutionary force in utterances classified as performative is explicitly named. The CCSARP makes a distinction between *Explicit Performative* (e.g. I am asking you to move your car) and *Hedged Performative* (e.g. I’d like to/wanted to ask you to present your paper a week earlier). However, to suit the CCSARP coding scheme with Persian data *Explicit Performative* and *Hedged Performative* were merged and classified as performative. In doing so, the data collected did not elicit such distinction. So, they were not distinguished differently. An example of the performative strategy in the data is as follows.

e.g. *Mixaastam azat darxaast-konam jozvato be man qarz-bedi.*

(I’d like to ask you to lend me your lecture notes.)

• **Obligation Statement**

Through this strategy “the illocutionary intent is directly derivable from the semantic meaning of the locution” (Bulm-Kulka et al., 1989: 279).

e.g. *Shomaa majburid safaretun ru aqab-bendaazid.*

(You have to cancel your trip.)

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1. The italics are Persian examples under which word for word translations have been provided.

2. The rough English translations of examples have been provided between parentheses.
• **Want Statement**

  This strategy is employed when the speaker expresses his/her desire to be carried out by the hearer.

  e.g. *Mixaastam maashinetoro baa chand ssaat qarz-begiram.*

  Wanted car for a few hours borrow

  (I wanted to borrow your car for a few hours.)

The second category of request strategies, namely Conventional-Indirect, consists of the following strategies.

• **Suggestory Formula**

  Through Suggestory Formula the illocutionary intent is expressed as a suggestion.

  e.g. *Cheraa aadres ro nemiporsi?*

  Why address not ask

  (Why don’t you ask for the address?)

• **Query Preparatory**

  They are utterances through which the speaker checks the conditions for the feasibility of the request.

  e.g. *Mishe labtaabe jadidetu emtehaan-konam?*

  Can laptop new try

  (Can I try your new laptop?)

Finally, the Non-Conventional Indirect request makes up the third category of request as follows.
• **Hint**

Hints are utterances in which the illocutionary intent of the speaker is not directly derivable. The illocutionary intent of hints must be inferred by the hearer.

*e.g. Man diruz kelaas ru az-dast-dadam.*

I yesterday class missed.

(I missed the class yesterday. [Intent: borrowing the hearer’s lecture notes])

Contrary to the distinction made between Mild Hint and Strong Hint in Blum-Kulka et al. (1989), this study does not make such a distinction. As a matter of fact, Mild and Strong Hints are too blurry in Persian to be distinguished clearly and such distinction is not applicable in Persian context where hints are not treated as mild or as strong.

As the complementary part of data analysis, through the analysis of the data beyond such classic frameworks as Blum-Kulka et al.’s (1989), the study came up with a new strategy through which the Persian male participants realized requests in some situations of data collection instruments. Through this strategy the speaker challenged the hearer’s ability in an attempt to urge him to fulfill his request. This strategy was termed by the researcher as **Challenging Ability**.

*e.g. Begzaar bebinam mituni in naamehaa ru taip koni*

Let see can these letters type

(Let me see whether you can type these letters)

The above request was identified in a situation where the speaker was going to ask his colleague to type a few letters for him.
3.5.2 Request Internal Modifications

To classify the modifications made in requests internally, the following data analysis framework was employed.

- **Downtoners**

  They are propositional modifiers used by the speakers with purpose of modulating the impact of request.

  e.g. *Fekr-kardam shaayad* tu *taip-kardane naamehaa be man komak-koni*

  Thought perhaps with typing letters me help
  (I thought perhaps you would help me type these letters.)

- **Diminutives**

  Diminutives are elements used to underestimate the imposition of affairs denoted in a request speech act.

  e.g. *Chand lahzeh be telephonha javab-bede taa man bargardam*

  Few moment to phone answer until I return
  (Answer the phone for a few moments until I return)

- **Cajolers**

  Cajolers are “conventionalized speech items whose semantic content is of little transparent relevance to their discourse meaning” (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989: 285). They are commonly interspersed in to the request structure to increase, establish, or restore harmony between interlocutors which may be endangered through the request.

  e.g. *Miduni, mixaastam tu in project be man komak-koni*

  Know, like with this project me help
  (You know, I would like you to help me with this project)

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3. The parts of examples underlined represent the internal modification strategies.
• Politeness Marker

Politeness Markers are optional elements through which cooperative behavior is asked.

e.g. *Lotfan taa man barmigardam be telephonha javab-bede*
    
    Please by I back the phone answer
    
    (Please answer the phone by the time I get back.)

• Appealers

Blum-Kulka et al. (1989: 285) define Appealer as “an element used by a speaker whenever he or she wishes to appeal to his or her hearer’s benevolent understanding.” They add “appealers function to elicit a hearer signal, occur in a syntactically final position, and may signal turn-availability” (ibid.).

e.g. *Chand saat maashinetobe man gharz-bede, bashe?*
    
    A few hours car me lend, ok
    
    (Lend me your car for a few hours, ok?)

3.5.3 Request External Modifications

The external modifications used both before and after request head acts were analyzed based on the following framework as illustrated in the following examples.

• Grounder

This kind of modification provides an explanation or reason that has given rise to a request by the speaker. Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) suggest that grounders can either precede or follow a request. However, in this study modifications of this type were classified as grounder only if they preceded the request head act. This is a better classification, because the reason
preceding the request prepares the ground for the realization of the request speech act and is a type of reason for making a request; therefore, they must be distinguished from the modification which is performed after the request speech act, and is supposed to support the fulfillment of the request speech act, as explained further in the Goal Achievement classification.

e.g. Motoasefaaneh ketabkhone ta?tile, mitonam ketabeto qarz-begiram?
    Unfortunately library closed. Can book borrow
    (Unfortunately the library is closed. Can I borrow your book?)

- **Goal Achievement**

  The study makes a distinction between reasons or explanations preceding a request and those following a request because the reasons and explanations following a request are the results of the request and can indicate the goal that can be achieved through the fulfillment of a request. Accordingly, as a minor modification of CCSAPR coding scheme, this sort of external modifications are referred to in this study as Goal Achievement.

  e.g. Aadres ro az in ?aber bepors ta raah ro peidaa-konim.
      Address from this pedestrian ask to way find
      (Ask the address from this pedestrian to find the way.)

- **Imposition Minimizer**

  Through this modification the speaker makes an attempt to decrease the intensity of the request imposition addressed to the hearer.

  e.g. age moshkeli nist, laptaabeto bede emthaan-konam.
      If problem no, notebook give try
      (If there is no problem, give me your notebook for a try.)
• **Preparator**

One of the frequent request external modifications identified in the data was Preparator. In order for the request to be ensued, the speaker prepares the addressee through a preparatory. The speaker announces that s/he is going to make a request. Accordingly, the request will be preceded either by an inquiry regarding the availability of the hearer for the implementation of the request or by asking the hearer for a permission. The content of the request, however, is not necessarily revealed by the speaker and a positive commitment is not taken for granted from the hearer.

*e.g. emkan dare be man komak-konid?*

Possible me help
(Is it possible to help me?)

• **Pre-commitment**

Through the modification of a request by a pre-commitment, the speaker checks the potential failure of the request fulfillment. Edmonson (1981) calls pre-commitment modifications ‘pre-exchanges’ because they pave the way for the beginning of a request realization. It should be noted that the hearer is not obliged to provide a response, whether positive or otherwise, to the speaker. However, any possible response can indicate the hearer’s commitment level. Hence, it will help the speaker to make a request with a greater possibility of subsequent fulfillment by the hearer.

*e.g. Mitoni yek lotfi be man bokoni?*

Can a favor me do
(Can you do me a favor?)
• **Promise of Rewards**

It is another request modification identified in Persian data. The likelihood of the hearer’s compliance can be increased in case the speaker modifies the request by a promise of reward. The speaker can announce that upon the request fulfillment by the hearer, s/he will be rewarded.

*e.g. Mitoni xuneye yeyliqi to be man qarz-bedi?Ensha-allah jobran- mikonam*

Can home countryside me lend? God willing compensate

(Can you lend me your home in the countryside? I will compensate for it god willing.)

• **Disarmer**

Disarmers can be employed by the speaker to disarm the hearer from any excuse that may lead to any request refusal. The use of disarmers helps the speaker feel safer as far as the request fulfillment is concerned.

*e.g. Midunam Xuneye vilai shoma baraa do hafte estefaade-nemishe.*

Know home countryside you for two week use not.

*Mitonam on ro baraa chand ruz qarz-konam?*

Can that for a few days borrow?

(I know your home in the countryside is not used for two weeks. Can I borrow it for a few days?)

### 3.5.4 Apologies

According to the data analysis framework adopted for this study, the realization of an apology speech act in Persian is performed through the following strategies.

• **Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID)**

The first formula, IFID, is a ritualized formulaic expression where the speaker’s apology is made explicitly through a performative verb (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain 1984).
Drawing upon past studies (e.g. Olshtain & Cohen, 1983; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain 1984), Afghari (2007) suggests that a direct expression of an apology can be found in any language. He further instantiates the direct expression of an apology in Persian through three apology verbs as follows:

A. Motoasefam. (Expression of Regret)
   (I am sorry)
B. Ma?zerat mixaam (Offer of apology)
   (I apologize.)
C. Bebaxshid (Request for Forgiveness)
   (Forgive me.)

According to Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) the sub-strategy ‘expression of embarrassment’ that is exemplified in Persian as sharmandeam (I’m embarrassed) is classified under the second universal apology strategy – taking on responsibility. In Persian, however, this sub-strategy is realized as a direct expression of apology and has a function close to that of the expression bebaxshid (forgive me). Hence, all the apology verbs through which the direct expression of an apology is realized along with ‘expression of embarrassment’ were categorized as IFIDs in this study to estimate the frequency of IFIDs as an apology strategy.

- Taking on Responsibility

The second semantic strategy, as referred to above after IFID, is taking on responsibility, by which the speaker expresses responsibility for having committed an offence.

The CCSARP project reports on several sub-strategies under this universal strategy from among which the first two sub-strategies were adopted here. The second three strategies listed below were adopted from Afghari (2007: 179). 

• Taking on Responsibility

The second semantic strategy, as referred to above after IFID, is taking on responsibility, by which the speaker expresses responsibility for having committed an offence.
A. Lack of intent. e.g. *Qasdi nadaashtam* (I didn’t mean to).
B. Justifying the hearer. e.g. *Haq ba shomaast* (You are right).
C. Statement of the offence. e.g. *Ketabetun ro nayavordam* (I didn’t bring your book).
D. Expression of self deficiency. e.g. *Gij budam* (I was confused).
E. Concern for the hearer. e.g. *Omidvaram be shoma sadameh nazade baasham* (I hope I didn’t hurt you).

Apart from Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID) and Taking on Responsibility (TOR), there are other strategies which are categorized as follows.

- **Other Apology Strategies**

The other apology strategies include Explanation of Situation, Offer of Repair, Promise of Forbearance, and Underestimating the Offence by Humor which are explained and exemplified in the following:

- **Explanation of Situation**

   The third semantic, explanation, is where the speaker gives an account of the reasons which brought about the offence. (In case the strategy is a part of a sequence of utterances it is underlined).

   e.g. *Motoasefam dir-shod. Reis az man xaast bemunam va megdaari az kaar ro tamaam-konam*  
   (Sorry I’m late, the boss asked me to stay behind to finish some work.)

- **Offer of Repair**

   The fourth semantic formula, offer of repair, is utilized when the speaker compensates the addressee for any damage resulting from his/her infraction.
e.g. Kaampiyouteret shekast vali negaraan nabaash yeki dige

Computer smashed but worry don’t one another
baraat migiam.
You get
(Your computer got smashed but don’t worry I’ll get you another one.)

○ Promise of Forbearance

The formula, promise of forbearance, is employed when the speaker feels guilty enough to take the responsibility for the offence and promises it will not happen again.

e.g. Qol-midam dobaare etefaaq-nayufteh.
Promise again happen not
(I promise it won’t happen again.)

○ Underestimating the Offence by Humor

As the complementary aspect of the data analysis, the data was analyzed for the probable identification of any new strategy which had not been reported in the literature of the field in any other language investigated. The analysis of the data beyond the classic coding schemes revealed a new strategy that Persian male participants used in this study. The data indicated that in some situations explained in the data collection instruments, Persian male speakers of the study, who were supposed to apologize for the offence committed, avoided apologizing directly. They resorted to using humor to reduce the intensity of the offence they were responsible for. The following example provides a better illustration of the strategy termed by the researchers as underestimating the offence by humor:

e.g. Xodaa ro shokr fahmidi kaare man che-qadr saxteh. Daf?eye
God thanks realize job my how hard. Time
dige age kaari daashti biaa soraage man.
Next if favor come to me.
(Thank God, you realized how hard my job is. Next time you need a favor come to me.)

The above example was elicited in a situation where the speaker was expected to apologize for an hour and a half delay while his colleague had been covering for him at the work place, according to the speaker’s previous request.

### 3.5.5 Apology Internal Intensifiers

As discussed earlier (page 56), internal intensifiers are used to strengthen the apology strategy realized in a situation. The categories employed to identify apology internal intensifiers are as follows:

- **Intensifying Adverbials**
  
  As the name signals they are adverbials which strengthen the impact of main apology expressions.
  
  e.g. _man vaaghean_?ozr-mixaam baraa in.
  
  I really apologize for this
  
  (I really apologize for this.)

- **Emotions**
  
  They are expressions or interjections which indicate the speakers’ emotional regret.
  
  e.g. _Vai xodaa, che xaraab-kaari kardam._
  
  Oh God, What mess made
  
  (Oh God, What a mess I made.)

- **Double Intensifiers**
  
  Double intensifiers are realized when two or more adverbials strengthen the impact of main apology expression.
  
  e.g. _man xeili xeili motoasefam_
I very very sorry
(I am very very sorry)

3.5.6 Apology Supportive Intensifiers

Supportive intensifiers, as stated earlier, follow the main apology syntactic structure to intensify the apology speech act. Since apology supportive intensifiers and apology strategies are identical in nature, the framework employed in this study to classify apology strategies identified in data is also used to classify and analyze apology supportive intensifiers (see Section 3.5.4).

3.6 Summary

The description of the methodology of the study, namely the participants of the study who are representing the Persian male community, the material to be analyzed that consist of request and apology speech acts along with request modifications and apology intensifications, the data collection instruments which are DCT and audio-recorded Role-Plays, and the method applied to analyze the data according to data analysis frameworks brings an end to Chapter 3 and prepares the ground to present the results of the study and the discussion in Chapter 4 for ‘Request’ and Chapter 5 for ‘Apology’.