

國立政治大學英國語文學系研究所

碩士學位論文

台灣高中英文教科書語言行為之研究

—以「邀請」、「不同意」為例

An Analysis of the Presentation of the Speech Acts of Invitation and Disagreement  
in Taiwanese English Textbooks for Senior High Schools in Taiwan



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中華民國 109 年 7 月

An Analysis of the Presentation of the Speech Acts of Invitation and Disagreement  
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A Dissertation  
Submitted to  
Department of English,



In Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree of  
Master of Arts

by  
Pei-yun Wu  
July, 2020

## Acknowledgements

I am very grateful to many people that have contributed to this dissertation. First, I would like to express my warmest thanks to my advisor, Dr. Ming-chung Yu, for his patience and professional help in time. Whenever I encountered difficulties, he gave me constructive advice and provided me with useful references. Without his guidance, I would not have completed this dissertation.

I would also like to thank my oral defense committee members, Dr. Shu-chen Huang and Dr. Hsiu-sui Chang. For their recognition of my efforts and suggestions to polish my thesis, I feel so grateful.

Many thanks are also owed to my sincere friends, Zach, Tina, Seashell, Lucius, and Kelly for their assistance and substantial support. They not only generously provided feedback and reference books on an early version of the thesis, but also inspired me and encouraged me to get through the hard times. But for their presence, I might be unable to persist until this moment to embrace the pleasure of hard work.

Finally, my deepest gratitude goes to my family who provided the educational and emotional foundation without which this dissertation would have never been possible: my parents and my brothers. It was always my mom who supervised my progress and stood by my side as a life mentor. There were times I doubted myself and felt like quitting, it was my mom to make me believe in myself when facing the setbacks. But for my family's unconditional love and support, I think I could never have accomplished the achievement in my life. I am blessed to have them keep me in company to overcome the struggles and obstacles during the process.

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碩士論文提要

論文名稱：台灣高中英文教科書語言行為之研究—以「邀請」、「不同意」為例

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論文提要內容：

近幾年來，隨著溝通能力的看重，語言行為在教科書當中的重要性也與日俱增，不過針對「邀請」與「不同意」兩種語言行為在三民、龍騰高中英文教科書當中的相關研究仍是十分匱乏。因此，本研究的目的主要分析「邀請」與「不同意」在兩版本六冊教科書中的次數分佈及呈現情形，是否符合美國人的使用習慣，並進一步檢視兩版本教科書及其對應的教師手冊是否有提供跨文化解釋。本研究以理論為基礎，計算並分類兩版本中「邀請」與「不同意」的使用策略及回應的方式，以卡方檢定探究，試圖找出台灣教科書及美國人使用最為頻繁的策略，並予以比較。研究結果發現，「邀請」出現在兩版本的次數分佈沒有明顯差異，而「不同意」則有明顯的差異。另外，兩種語言行為在兩版本教科書的使用策略大都符合美國人的使用習慣。不過，兩版本和教師手冊提供的跨文化解釋非常有限。本研究也建議未來研究者不僅可以涵蓋 108 年新課綱的新版本教科書，探討「邀請」與「不同意」的次數及呈現情形，而母語的正向或負向語言移轉或不同世代的語言使用習慣對於策略的選擇及使用頻率的影響都是未來可研究的方向。

關鍵字：教科書評鑑、語言行為、邀請、不同意

## Abstract

The speech acts in textbooks have gained considerable significance with the focus on communicative competence, but there have not been sufficient investigations on the speech acts of invitations and disagreements in the two series of senior high school English textbooks published by Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng. Therefore, the study aims to examine the frequency and presentation of invitations and disagreements and see the presentation of the American convention of employing the speech acts. Also, explanations of cultural differences in textbooks and their corresponding teachers' manuals are studied as well. This research was conducted through the quantitative analysis of Pearson's chi-square tests to compare the two series of textbooks and to see whether they correspond to American ways of employing the two speech acts. The results of this study showed that there were almost no discrepancies in the distribution of frequency in terms of the speech act of invitations while there were discrepancies in terms of the frequency of disagreements. Besides, both speech acts were mostly presented in American ways. However, limited explanations of cultural differences between American and Chinese were provided in the two series of senior high school English textbooks and their corresponding teachers' manuals. Suggestions for the inclusion of the 108 new curricula are made, not just based on the frequency and presentation of the speech acts but also on insights derived from the influence of the L1 positive or negative language transfer or the influence of language conventions in different generations on the choice and frequency of strategy use.

**Keywords:** *textbook evaluation, speech acts, invitation, disagreement*

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides the general background information of the current study. The first section covers the general background information and research motive of the study. The second section states the research purposes of the study. And lastly, the significance of the study is proposed.

### 1.1 General Background Information and Research Motive

English has been playing a vital role in our daily lives. It acts as a medium for Taiwan to enter the international arena and connect with the world. The use of English is ubiquitous since it is treated as the required course for examination in schools and even the indispensable skills in modern society. As for the learning environment in Taiwan, parents pay great attention to children's English learning when they are at an early age. Some parents even send their children to bilingual kindergarten, not to mention cram schools. Thus, English learning is a must trend with no doubt. In terms of English learning, how to communicate in the target language for authentic use is especially important with the trend of communicative language teaching in these recent years.

Communication is the exchange of ideas between people. Good communication skills are valuable personal assets to make one's work and daily relationships smoother. One may thus find oneself with more strength and confidence. Accordingly, the importance of communication cannot be neglected. People are able to maintain a harmonious relationship and be more familiar with each other via communication. Hence, as EFL instructors, how to help learners effectively use the target language to convey correct messages to interlocutors



and avoiding unnecessary misunderstanding when communication breakdowns occur then becomes teachers' responsibility. Under the circumstance, textbooks can be the most direct way to orient teachers to assist students with their English communication skills within a limited time in the EFL classroom.

The predominance of textbooks is particularly evident to rule students' learning (Chan, 2004; Li, 2003; Liao, 1999; Wu, 2002). Consequently, the content in textbooks, without doubt, deserves great attention. Within the content, the role of speech acts in textbooks cannot be highlighted further since it serves as the essential tool to cultivate students' communication skills. What is more, Thomas (1983, p. 91) defined pragmatic failure as "the inability to understand what is meant by what is said." Simply put, pragmatic failure is generally associated with a negative transfer of L1 speech act strategies to L2 or insufficient L2 pragmatic knowledge in the given situation (Thomas, 1983). Therefore, L2 learners need to be familiar with the proper target language conventions, which are realized in the instruction of speech acts. In this way, L2 learners may not suffer from pragmatic failure when communicating with native speakers. On this account, this paper aims to analyze the speech acts in English textbooks for senior high schools in Taiwan, expecting to provide students with the means of effective communication.

There are many studies on the evaluation of speech act behavior in senior high school English textbooks in Taiwan. Take Chen's (2010) study, for example. The researcher studied five speech acts, compliments, requests, apologies, complaints, and refusals in terms of their frequency and strategies in two series of senior high school English textbooks published by Far East and San Min in Taiwan. Take another study for example, Lai (2017) examined the frequencies and strategies of three speech acts, compliments, refusals, and requests in three

sets of senior high school English textbooks published by San Min, Lung Teng, and Far East in Taiwan to provide an overall picture of the speech acts in textbooks. Nevertheless, it seems that in the relevant literature, some speech acts such as *invitations* and *disagreements* are left out. At most, some researchers such as Ku in 2015 studied the presentation of pragmatic content of agreements and disagreements in vocational high school English textbooks published by Dong Da, Far East, and Lung Teng. Lin in 2005 examined the presentation and frequency of agreements and disagreements in Far East, Lung Teng, and Nan I. As a result, given the significance of speech acts in textbooks and the scarcity of research concerning the speech acts of *invitations* and *disagreements* in senior high school English textbooks, the present study seeks to analyze the frequency and presentation of *invitations* and *disagreements* in the two series of senior high school English textbooks, published by San Min and Lung Teng in Taiwan and compare the cultural differences between American and Chinese based on *invitations* and *disagreements*.

## 1.2 Research Purposes

This current study intends to analyze the listening and speaking sections (San Min) and individual conversation handbooks (Lung Teng) of the two series of senior high school English textbooks from the pragmatic perspective of speech acts. The reason for the different choices of analyzed materials is because the organization and the number of dialogue and conversation in the two versions are quite different. To bridge the gap in the previous literature, the first aim of the present study is to examine the frequency of two relatively little speech acts, *invitations* and *disagreements*. The second aim is to study how the two speech acts are presented in these two versions of textbooks and whether they are presented in American ways. Also, American and Chinese way of expressing *invitations* and

*disagreements* in terms of cultural differences are provided. This paper thus intends to raise the awareness of the role of speech acts in the EFL classroom by examining the strategies of *invitations* and *disagreements* that the English textbooks present to teach students. Hopefully, the paper can offer some insights into the EFL instructors about how to include the functions of *invitations* and *disagreements* in their teaching and help EFL learners to develop a wide variety of strategies to communicate.

### **1.3 Significance of Research**

The present study will be of significance since it offers insights to both textbook compilers and teachers. For textbook compilers, they are able to examine whether all of the textbooks are well organized in a communicative fashion, and if the speech acts are included in proper proportion. On the other hand, teachers may thus adjust and supplement their teaching in order to establish students' communicative competence.

## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, the issue of communicative competence is reviewed first in section 2.1. Afterwards, theoretical groundings with regard to pragmatic transfer and pragmatic failure are elucidated in section 2.2 and section 2.3. What is more, speech act theory is then explained in section 2.4 to shed light on a coding scheme adapted from the relevant study (for invitations: Beebe et al., 1990; Jawad & Habeeb, 2013; Nelson et al., 2002; Trong, 2012; for disagreements: Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Spencer, 2000; Vuchinich, 1990; Yu, 2010, 2013) to analyze the conversation in the two series of textbooks in this research. Also, cultural differences between American and Chinese speech acts are stated in section 2.5. In section 2.6 and section 2.7, the issues of the textbook and textbook evaluation are discussed. Last but not least, in section 2.8, the research questions of the study are presented.

#### 2.1 Communicative Competence

Hymes (1972) and Campbell and Wales (1970) proposed the notion of communicative competence, including not only grammatical competence but contextual or sociolinguistic competence (as cited in Canale & Swain, 1980). After the release of the first practical model from Canale and Swain in 1980, Canale (1983) revised the model. In Canale's (1983) model, communicative competence consisted of four components, grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. Grammatical competence referred to the mastery of the language forms whereas sociolinguistic competence indicated the appropriate performance and understanding of utterances in different contexts. As to discourse competence, it delineated the ability to combine sentences

into unified spoken or written texts. Lastly, strategic competence dealt with communication strategies to avoid communication breakdowns.

## **2.2 Pragmatic Transfer**

Pragmatic transfer was defined as “the influence exerted by learners’ pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension, production, and acquisition of L2 pragmatic information” (Kasper, 1992, 1995, p. 207). Seminal work on dividing pragmatic transfer was carried out (Leech, 1983, pp. 10-11), still the reference point for virtually all discussions of pragmatic transfer in relation to L2 pragmatics. In Leech’s division of pragmatics, two different components made up the construct of the pragmatic transfer. The first category, pragmalinguistic transfer, reflected the transfer of learners’ choice of language resources that are given to convey certain illocutionary force; the second category, sociopragmatic transfer reflected a language speaker’s interpretation and performance of the linguistic behavior which is influenced by the gap between L1 and L2 context. In Kasper’s words, it is “the process whereby the illocutionary force of politeness value assigned to a particular linguistic material in native language influences learners’ perception and production of form-function mappings in target language” (Kasper, 1992, p. 209). Takahashi and Beebe (1987) did extensive work with the phenomenon of pragmatic transfer and the proficiency impact on pragmatic transfer. The results showed that the more proficient learners were more advantageous in transferring L1 sociocultural norms than less proficient learners due to the former has better control over the L2 to express their feelings.

## **2.3 Pragmatic Failure**

Thomas (1983, p. 91) defined pragmatic failure as “the inability to understand what is

meant by what is said". More simply put, pragmatic failure is associated with a negative transfer of L1 speech act strategies to L2 or insufficient pragmatic knowledge in the given situation. Following Leech's (1983) classification of pragmatics, Thomas (1983) further classified pragmatic failure into two categories: pragmalinguistic failure and sociopragmatic failure. To be more precise, speakers suffer from pragmalinguistic failure when they fail to grasp the intended meaning due to the underlying conventions in an utterance. As for speakers suffer from sociopragmatic failure, they fail to deal with a degree of gravity, taboo, a cross-cultural difference of power and distance, and value judgment (Thomas, 1983). For instance, Kwon (2004) has discussed the refusal strategies that were employed in Korean and American English and further suggested that the cultural variations in refusals between the two language groups may cause pragmatic failure when Korean learners of English rely on their culture-specific refusal strategies when interacting with native English speakers.

#### **2.4 Speech Act Theory**

While the concept of communicative competence is increasingly important, speech acts have been widely discussed since the late 1960s. A famous book written by J.L. Austin in 1962 was the first to introduce speech act theory and further to classify speech acts into three types: locutionary acts, illocutionary acts, and perlocutionary acts. A locutionary act refers to the literal meaning of the utterance while an illocutionary act deals with the underlying meaning and intended significance behind the ostensible meaning. As to a perlocutionary act, it was the actual effect brought about by the illocutionary on the hearer. Later in 1969, on the basis of Austin's (1962) research, Searle published a book, *Speech Acts: An Essay in the Philosophy of Language*. In 1979, Searle then modified classifications of illocutionary acts in detail, in which five categories were maintained, and they are: (1) assertive acts: utterances

that commit oneself to something is being the case; (2) commissive acts: utterances that commit oneself to some future course of action, for instance, promises, offers or threats; (3) declarative acts: utterances that change the existing state of affairs, such as declarations or decrees; (4) directive acts: utterances that direct the hearer to take action, such as requests, suggestions, warnings, or commands; and (5) expressive acts: utterances that are used to express one's emotions, feelings, and attitudes toward someone or something, such as apologies, appreciation or compliments.

After Austin's (1962) and Searle's (1969) pioneering work, the study of speech acts has been shifting from a limited focus on mere classifications to an expanded focus that also includes presentation sequences and their following responses.

#### ***2.4.1 Studies on the Speech Act of Invitations***

Harvey Sacks (1992) demonstrated that invitations in a spoken interaction can be presented either as "invitations that generate the interaction" or as "interactionally generated invitations" (Sacks, Spring 1972, 1992, lecture 6). The former refers to pre-planned invitations as presented by the inviter as the reason for calling whereas the latter occurs during an ongoing interaction in an impromptu way. The calls may appear either in "habitual calls", i.e. calls made 'just to keep in touch' (Drew & Chilton, 2000, p. 137) or in calls made for different purposes, e.g. to make a request. Other examples from De Stefani (2018) was the case in which Italian banks call clients to make invitations for the purpose of offering bank services. From the case, two social action formats were found, which are formulation format and solicitation format. The former can be seen mostly in a declarative clause (the reason for the call), in which acceptance of invitations tend to occur late. The latter can be found in an interrogative clause that acceptance of invitations tend to occur early after the format.

Furthermore, other researchers such as Routarinne and Tainio (2018) and Bella and Moser (2018) have concluded from telephone conversations between Finnish and Greek respectively that the former tend to avoid using the verbs of volition while the latter often use the volition verb 'want' when making invitations.

Invitations can be classified into direct invitations and indirect invitations. As Trong (2012) categorized in the study, direct invitations can be classified into three strategies, which are *Performative Sentences with a Subject*, *Declarative Sentences*, and *Imperatives*. As for indirect invitations, they can be classified into three strategies such as *WH- (How~) Questions*, *Yes/No Questions*, and *Tag Questions*. The study revealed that native speakers of American English prefer to use *WH- (How~) Questions* to extend invitations indirectly. What worths mentioning is that the study also showed that native speakers of American English especially barely employed *Declarative Sentences* and *Tag Questions* to invite people. Furthermore, Eshreth (2014) even classified the invitations into four main categories, Direct Invitation, Conventionally Indirect Invitation in Speaker-based Conditions, Conventionally Indirect Invitation in Hearer-based Conditions, and Non-conventional Indirect Invitation. Below each category, there are sub-strategies. As for the first category of Direct Invitation, five sub-strategies of elliptical phrase, imperatives, unhedged performatives, hedged performatives, and obligation are employed. As for the second category of Conventionally Indirect Invitation in Speaker-based Conditions, desire/needs and wishes are adopted. In terms of the third category of Conventionally Indirect Invitation in Hearer-based Conditions, four sub-strategies are applied in the utterances, which are suggestory formulae, permission, willingness, and ability. When speaking of the fourth category of Non-conventional Indirect Invitation, the strong hints and mild hints belong to this category.



In addition, as previous literature indicated, invitations can be served for different purposes. Invitations not only function as directives to request the hearer's willingness or desire to participate in the activity (e.g. Would you like to come for dinner tomorrow?) but assertiveness to agree with the previous proposition and/or correctness (22% out of 37%) (e.g., You are right) or to show the mutuality (63%) of proposition (e.g. I believe the same thing) (Holtgraves, 2005). When speaking of responses of invitations, acceptance of invitations shares the feature of "produced straightforwardly and without delay" (Makri-Tsilipakou, 1991, p. 70) while the rejection of invitations shares the feature of delayed response and more elaborate and complex (Davidson, 1984; Pomerantz, 1984; Sacks, 1987). Ganter (2016) also maintained that acceptance of invitations tend to be conditional and momentary whereas Chang (2009) proposed that the choice of refusal strategies depends on the previous speech acts and the respondent's status. The rejection of invitations appears to be complex since they require a high level of pragmatic competence to avoid risking the interlocutor's positive/negative face (Brown & Levinson, 1978).

While acceptance and rejection of invitations are rich in meaning, invitation responses can be further categorized into **direct acceptance, indirect acceptance, direct refusals, and indirect refusals**. Based on Jawad and Habeeb's (2013) study, seven sub-strategies are employed to directly accept invitations such as *Direct Acceptance, Thanks, Gratitude, and Appreciation, Expressing Pleasure/Gladness, Expressing Surprise and Admiration, Congratulating, Conditional Acceptance, and Counter Question (CQ)*. As for indirect acceptance, two sub-strategies such as *Ostensibly Releasing from Obligation* and *Complimenting* are adopted to indirectly accept invitations. They found that native speakers of American English seem to employ *Direct Acceptance, Expressing Pleasure/Gladness,*

and *Counter Question (CQ)* more often to directly accept invitations in daily conversation. In the same vein, Eshreth (2014) also indicated that the accepting strategies of thanking and appreciating and expressing gladness are frequently observed in the speech of US people. In terms of the refusals to invitations, Kinjo (1987) identified that most refusal strategies to invitations are direct ones. In her study, eight direct refusals to invitations are provided such as Explicit Refusal, Expression of Appreciation, Excuse or Explanation, Expression of Regret, Expression of Positive Feelings or Wishes, Offer of an Alternative, Request for Further Information and Repetition while A Conditional is the only strategy to perform indirect refusal to invitations. Likewise, Eshreth (2014) also proposed the similar declining strategies in the speech of US people, which are the expression of regret, justifications, reasons, asking for forgiveness or thanking, the promise of compensation, and offering good wishes. In his study, he further highlighted that justifications, reasons, and expressions of regret are two declining strategies that are normally used in the American convention.

#### ***2.4.2 Studies on the Speech Act of Disagreements***

Pomerantz (1984) first provided the classification of agreement and disagreement responses within a series of turns. Agreement responses were classified into three categories: upgrade, same evaluation, and downgrade. As for disagreement responses, the four categories were made: silence, repair initiator, partial agreement, and contrastive evaluation. When communication occurs, the interlocutors offer assessments to ensure the participation in the communication, indicating the access to, and knowledge of things referred to (Pomerantz, 1984). After the speaker's initial assessment, the hearer often proceeds the conversation with the following assessment, showing agreement or disagreement. Using a corpus of conversations of native speakers of English, Pomerantz (1984) drew the clear distinction

between agreements and disagreements. Agreements are considered preferred activities that “may occupy an entire turn, may be accomplished with stated agreement components, and maybe realized with minimization of the gap between the prior turn’s completion and the agreement turn’s initiation” (1984, p. 65). Disagreements, on the other hand, are regarded as dispreferred activities that “may produce delays, such as ‘no talk,’ requests for clarification, partial repeats, and other repair initiators, turn prefaces, and so on” (1984, p. 70). By the same token, in Rees-Miller’s (2000) article, she identified three types of disagreements, softened disagreement (62% of turns), disagreement not softened or strengthened (30% of turns), and aggravated disagreement (8% of turns). Firstly, softened disagreement is utilized to minimize threats to addressees and can be further categorized into two categories, positive politeness (21% of turns) and negative politeness (41% of turns). The former can be manifested in the strategies of positive comments, humor, inclusive pronouns (1<sup>st</sup> person plural), partial agreement, and colloquial language (Lakoff, 1973; Brown & Levinson, 1987, pp. 68-74, 102-117) for professors to encourage students’ participation and demonstrate the solidarity with other. The latter is utilized to mitigate the threat to the addressee’s negative face by making use of the strategies of interrogatives, hedges (e.g. I think/I don’t know, maybe, sort of, seems) to show the uncertainty, and impersonal forms (Lakoff, 1973; Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 131). Secondly, disagreement not softened or strengthened can be demonstrated in the strategies of contradictory statements and verbal shadowing. Thirdly, aggravated disagreement is adopted for the sake of preserving one’s self-respect and defending the speaker’s face at the same time. The employment of rhetorical questions, intensifiers, personal, accusatory *you*, and judgmental vocabulary can be the best depiction in this category.

To study the degree of directness among 15 native speakers of English and 15 native speakers of Japanese in English with natural speech, Beebe and Takahashi (1989) collected the data through the use of Discourse Completion Task (DCT) and notebooks, with the comparison of the semantic formulas of disagreement. Results indicated that cross-cultural variation was evident in the frequency and content of semantic formulas used by each language group concerning the contextual variables, which include the effect of interlocutor status on strategy use across groups (i. e., higher status and lower status). For instance, Japanese speakers used more indirect formulas than their American counterparts. The results of DCT showed that in the setting of higher to lower status, the Japanese used more explicit criticism than Americans (85%: 50%); Americans used more positive remarks (57%: 0) or expressions of gratitude than Japanese (33%: 15%).

Under the examination of the use of positive remarks and other similar formulas, Takahashi and Beebe (1993) employed DCT (unequal status, professor and student) to investigate among American speakers of English (AE), Japanese learners of English (JE) and native Japanese speakers (JJ). The findings show that in the setting of higher to lower status, the AE group used more prefaced positive remarks (79%: 23%: 13%) and more softeners (71%: 50%: 26%) than JE and JJ group. Nevertheless, in the situation of lower to a higher status, no groups used positive remarks. American speakers of English used various original softeners (e.g., I may be mistaken, but...), while Japanese speakers of English used formulaic ones (e.g., I'm afraid, I think, I understand).

With regard to responses to disagreement, Wang (2008) indicated that *bushi* in Mandarin is used to directly refute the addressee's assertion. Besides, Isaacs and Clark (1990) suggested that recipients may offer ostensible responses such as partial agreement or partial

disagreement when receiving the ostensible invitations that are not intended to be taken seriously. They further pointed out that seven features were found for recipients of ostensible responses to make the ostensible invitations clear after extending the initial ostensible invitations. They were listed as follows:

1. A makes B's presence at event E implausible.
2. A extends invitation only after B has solicited the invitation through the context or directly.
3. A does not motivate invitation beyond social courtesy.
4. A does not persist or insist on the invitation.
5. A is vague about arrangements for event E by employing "some time".
6. A hedges the invitation to B by employing "well", "I guess", "I mean", "maybe", and "if you want".
7. A delivers the invitation with inappropriate cues by employing gaze avoidance, uhs, pauses, mumbling or rapid speech, inappropriate body posture, and inappropriate intonation.

### **2.5 Cultural Differences Between American and Chinese Speech Acts**

The incorporation of cultural learning into language learning is of utmost concern. The process of learning the target language involves the learning of the target culture and the overcoming of the personal and transactional barriers presented by two cultures in contact. With the successful integration of culture and language teaching, the contribution to language ability, cultural sensitivity, and general humanistic knowledge can greatly manifest in the security, defense, economic well-being of this country, and that global understanding ought to be a mandatory component of basic education (Lafayette & Strasheim 1981; Strasheim 1981).

### 2.5.1 Invitation

Extending and receiving invitations are ordinary activities in human life. These activities are motivated by the need to have bonds with others and maintain the relationship at the same time. Therefore, invitations occur and are recognized in multiple cultures and languages. In the past decades, several cross-cultural studies provide an extensive discussion of extending and receiving invitations in authentic telephone calls in seven different languages (Chinese, English, Farsi, Finnish, French, Greek, and Italian). In terms of the Chinese way of extending invitations, Yu and Wu (2018) have investigated the relationship between the format of the invitation and the projected type of recipient's response and found three main formats in Chinese (Mandarin) invitations, which are imperatives "Verb-not-Verb" questions, interrogatives (anticipate success, end with particles "ba" (吧) (Chao, 1968; Han, 1995; Li & Thompson, 1981) or "bei" (嘸) and declaratives (the lexical item "hai" (還) or "benai" (本來)). In terms of the American way of extending invitations, Drew (2018) discussed invitations based on a corpus of invitations over 30 made in telephone calls in English (US and UK). Afterwards, he proposed seven properties in terms of turn designs and linguistic construction. They are So-prefaced contracted interrogative; Why don't we...construction; a contracted form of Do you want to...; a conditional form; So-prefaced & conditional forms; Well-prefaced directive; and So-prefaced declarative form. In addition, White (1993, p.196) claimed that "please" can co-occur with the invitation as a type of request under certain circumstances (e.g. "Please have a cigarette/drink/seat").

In terms of how Americans and Chinese respond to invitations, social distance plays the central role. When refusing the boss's invitation to the party, the Chinese often use "negative ability/willingness" formula ("wish" formula) to soften the tension caused by the direct

refusal. They incline to offer specific reasons to interlocutors who are in higher status and give unspecified excuses to interlocutors who are in a lower or equal status. As for Americans, they use “negative ability/willingness” formula (“wish” formula) less and give vague excuses often (59%) to refuse the invitation, regardless of the interlocutors’ status (Chang, 2009). Besides, Farnia and Wu (2012) also maintained that expressions of regret and expressions of excuses, reasons, and explanations are the most frequently adopted strategies for native speakers of Chinese to refuse invitations directly.

In order to deepen our understanding of how social distance affects addressees’ choice of responding to invitations (requests), Taguchi (2007) thus adopted the concepts of Interlocutors’ power difference (P), social distance (D), and the degree of imposition (R) (Brown & Levinson, 1987) and investigated whether the two situation types (PDR-high and PDR-low) have a differential effect on features of oral production. In Taguchi’s (2007) study, he conducted by employing Beebe et al.’s (1990) refusal coding scheme. The coding scheme showed that the refusal strategies can be classified into two main categories, direct expressions and indirect expressions. The former refers to the direct refusal *No/Negative Willingness/Ability* while the latter refers to the indirect refusals such as *Statement of Regret, Wish, Excuse, Statement of Alternative, Promise of Future Acceptance, Indefinite Reply/Hedging, Postponement, Repetition/Question*. Within the framework, Nelson et al. (2002) combined all three types of direct refusal (i.e., “I refuse”, “no”, “negative ability/willingness”) into one single category. The analysis of data revealed that 42.9% of native speakers of English are prone to use direct expressions while 57.1% of them employ indirect expressions more to refuse invitations.

### 2.5.2 Disagreement

Thirty years ago, educational theorists and researchers investigated the cultural differences between American and Chinese speech acts of agreements and disagreements. Various groups of researchers have carried out studies using different methods to work on the issue. For example, Beebe and Takahashi (1989) employed written elicitation task and Dogancay-Aktuna and Kamisli (1996) worked upon the task and conducted a comparative study of discourse strategies used by native speakers of Turkish and North American English supplemented by natural data. The study revealed that Turks tend to be more direct and blunt than Americans when disagreeing with people that are in a higher or lower status. Kuo (1992) explored talks among Chinese close friends and discovered that Chinese people's communicative behaviors mainly depend on the formality of a situation and the relationship between interlocutors. Chinese people are bolder with intimates and more reserved with strangers.

In terms of the American way of expressing disagreement, unlike Hong Kong Chinese, native speakers of English made less effort to avoid conflicts and accommodate the interlocutor's face-want (Yuen, 1992; Kirkbride et al., 1991). Compared with EFL speakers, Americans seem to use 'well' less to indicate the disagreement (Crible & Pascual, 2020) except three situations, to correct a phrase, to quote, and to introduce the speaker's own opinion (Müller, 2004). Besides, Americans are prone to use but as the repairs or reformulations of errors. Moreover, disagreement can be categorized into direct disagreement and indirect disagreement. Many studies have revealed that disagreement can be classified into four sub-strategies of direct disagreement, which are *Explicit Disagreement*, *Criticism or Negative Evaluation*, *Question*, and *Alternative Suggestion* (Beebe & Takahashi, 1989;



Spencer, 2000). With regard to indirect disagreement, the strategy of *Hints* is used to imply messages. When expressing disagreement, interlocutors' choice of strategies and linguistic features may be affected for the sake of avoiding conflicts and accommodate the interlocutor's face-want as previous literature indicated (Yuen, 1992; Kirkbride et al., 1991). Therefore, responses to disagreement are intricately interwoven to the speech act of disagreement. Six strategies are identified to respond to disagreement, which are *Concession*, *Compromise*, *Contradiction*, *Avoidance (Silence/Topic Switch)*, *Questions*, and *Joking* (Vuchinich, 1990; Yu, 2010, 2013). In Yu's (2010) study, he pointed out that native speakers of American English tend to use *Joking* more than native Chinese speakers when responding to disagreement, while native Chinese speakers are prone to employ *Concession* and *Compromise* more than their counterparts. Moreover, as Günthner (2000) contended, native Chinese speakers "temporarily signal formal consent and then in the following turn to indicate a discordant position without formally marking it as a disagreement" (p.226) or through concessions, compromises, and topic shift to avoid the potential conflicts.

Besides, native Chinese speakers utilize *meiyou* and *bushi* to express disagreement in daily conversation (Wang, 2008). The former is a weak denial marker to negate the completion or achievement of a verbal action while the latter is stronger disagreement than *meiyou* to express a non-completive aspect (Li & Thompson, 1981) and more expressive to show speaker's different attitudes and beliefs. Moreover, *meiyou* is polysemous since it has six functions, negation, mitigation, evasion, revision, turn-taking, and topic-shift to seek alignment with the participant and *bushi* is monosemous by applying explicit negation such as more interruptions and overlaps to deny others. Besides, *keshi* 'well', *buguo* 'nevertheless', *danshi* 'yet' are all applied in daily discourse to mark the disagreement (Wang & Tsai, 2007).

*Keshi* (Schiffrin, 1987) frequently occurs at the beginning of a turn to preface disagreement before an answer to a question, hesitation, or a dispreferred answer. It is often operated in casual contexts as a face-threat mitigator and a delaying tactic to mark the weak/indirect disagreement. *Buguo* is employed in formal contexts as a way to shift the topic. *Danshi* is used more formally as *buguo* but the contrast meaning of *danshi* is stronger. Sometimes, the Chinese prefer to converse with each other, using the format of *suiran* ‘though’ plus *danshi* to reinforce the position of contrast. Chinese incline to raise questions by using *danshi* when having doubts concerning the previous speaker’s idea.

## 2.6 Textbook

In the field of English, textbooks are commonly used in EFL (English as a foreign language) classroom (Lawrence, 2011; Lee, Lin & Wang, 2011), including Taiwanese contexts (Hsu, 2010; Lee, Lin, & Wang, 2011). Textbooks are a key component in most language programs (Chan, 2004; Chen, 2003; Huang, 2003; Li, 2003; Liao, 1999; Wu, 2002). According to Lee, Lin and Wang (2011), Meurant (2010), and Noordin and Samad (2005), both teachers and students benefit from using English textbooks in the academic contexts. For the benefit of teachers, Allwright (1981) suggested that textbooks could be defined in two positions, the deficiency view and the difference view. The textbooks function as the compensation for teachers’ deficiencies in the former view, whereas they serve as the carriers of decisions that facilitate and reinforce the instruction. They could be treated as a means of “re-skilling” that brings changes into the classroom rather than “deskilling” (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994). Moreover, the textbooks serve as a resource for language no matter spoken or written. They stimulate ideas for activities for learner practice and communicative interaction without constraining learners’ creativity. As can be known, most language teaching today

could not take place without the use of textbooks due to the various purposes they serve (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994). Therefore, selecting an appropriate set of textbooks for use is of critical importance.

## **2.7 Textbook Evaluation**

According to Lawrence (2011), textbook evaluation is regarded as an efficient way to examine and advance the quality of English textbooks. The use of the textbooks is advantageous because it provides structure and a syllabus for a program. Without textbooks, a program may have no central core, and learners may not receive a syllabus that has been systematically planned and developed. Through textbook evaluation, it is feasible to identify the strengths and weaknesses of textbooks (Cunningsworth, 1995). On this account, textbook evaluation then has received a great deal of attention. There are many studies on the issue of textbook evaluation (Candlin & Breen, 1979; Littlejohn, 1998; Sheldon, 1988; Skierso, 1991; Tucker, 1975; Ur, 1996; Williams, 1983). For instance, Cunningsworth (1995) and Ellis (1997) claimed that textbook evaluation was categorized into three terms, pre-use, in-use, and post-use evaluation. Pre-use evaluation, named predictive evaluation, was employed to inspect the potential performance of textbooks. An in-use evaluation was designed to help teachers witness the advantages and disadvantages of textbooks in use. Post-use evaluation, the so-called retrospective evaluation, was carried out to evaluate the quality of textbooks after use. As for the approaches for textbook evaluation, the best way can be the combination of both impressionistic views and in-depth evaluation (Cunningsworth, 1995). The impressionistic view is to go through the textbooks and make a brief judgement based on the general impression, while in-depth evaluation is to select the segments (e.g., vocabulary, grammar rules, and exercises) to be analyzed and scrutinize them

by gathering information (Cunningsworth, 1995). The present study was designed to conduct a post-use and in-depth evaluation based on a coding scheme adapted from the relevant study (for invitations: Beebe et al., 1990; Jawad & Habeeb, 2013; Nelson et al., 2002; Trong, 2012; for disagreements: Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Spencer, 2000; Vuchinich, 1990; Yu, 2010, 2013). In order to deepen our understanding of textbook evaluation, Richards (2001, p.258) calls for further research in citing Cunningsworth's (1995) criteria for reviewing textbooks. There are four major guidelines to follow. Firstly, the content of the textbooks should relate to students' life experiences and correspond to the objectives of the program. Secondly, the textbooks should reflect the authentic use of the language to equip students with the ability to employ language effectively and practically. Thirdly, the textbooks should serve as a facilitator to reinforce students' learning, instead of sticking to the rigid "method" or theoretically sound materials. Lastly, the textbooks should have a clear role as support for learning. Like teachers, they mediate between the target language and the learner.

On the basis of textbook evaluation, Williams (1983) further maintained a checklist for textbook evaluation. The scheme of Williams's (1983) contained four assumptions, i.e., up-to-date methodology, guidance for non-native teachers, needs of second language learners, and relevance to the socio-cultural environment. First, up-to-date methodology indicated the components of the current teaching pedagogy in the English textbooks. Second, English textbooks were served as the guidance for non-native teachers to effectively use the teaching materials. Third, English textbooks were required to cater to students' needs due to their various backgrounds. Fourth, the incorporation of cultural learning with language learning was essential to influence students toward a better understanding of both global and domestic cultural diversity through foreign language study. A further study that bears upon this issue of

evaluation is from J. Brown (1995, p.161). The five major categories are considered: author's and publisher's reputation, fit to the curriculum (meeting needs and goals), physical characteristics (layout, organization), logistical factors (price, teaching aids, workbooks), and teachability (the usefulness of the teachers' manuals).

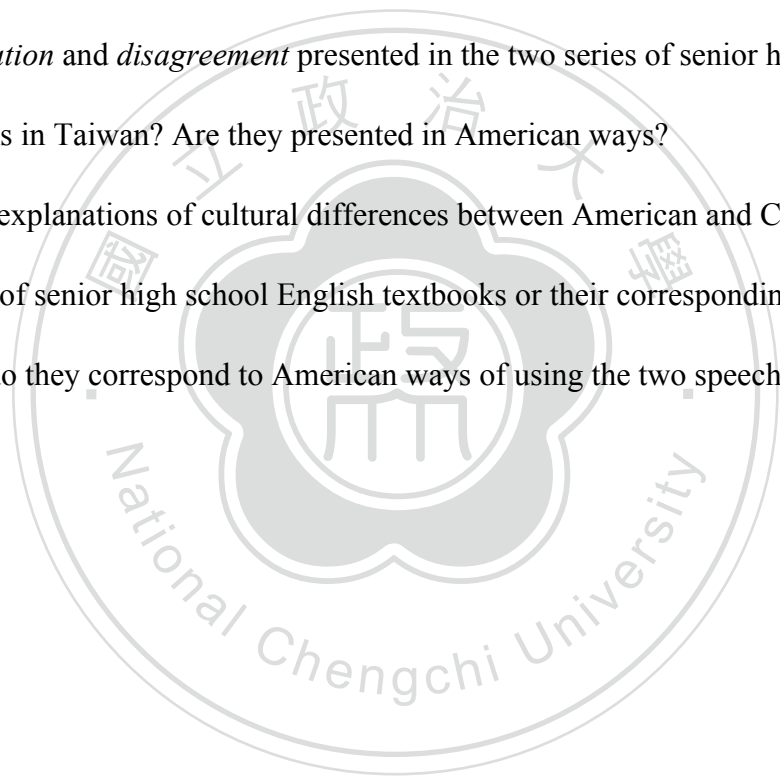
Additional evidence in support of the criteria to evaluate teaching materials is provided by Chamber in 1997. Firstly, suitability for the age group, cultural appropriateness, methodology, level quality, number and type of exercises, skills, teachers' book, variety, personal involvement, and problem-solving should be taken into consideration. Secondly, the theory-based teaching pedagogy should be applied into practice to examine students' achievement when using textbooks. Thirdly, teachers should be aware of the perspectives they include in the evaluation. As many others including Sheldon (1988) and Skierso (1991) have aptly pointed out the comprehensive checklists for teachers to evaluate the teaching materials such as the rationale, goals, layout, authenticity, cultural bias, vocabulary, structures, exercises, activities, and so on. Furthermore, Robinett (1978, pp.249-251) adapted the textbook evaluation criteria and listed the following twelve elements to consider when selecting and evaluating textbooks. The twelve elements are goals of the course, backgrounds of the students (age, native language and culture, educational background, motivation), approach, language skills, general content (validity, the authenticity of language, appropriateness of topics and contexts, proficiency level), quality of practice material, sequencing, vocabulary, general sociolinguistic factors (varieties of English, cultural content), format, accompanying materials, and teachers' guide.

## 2.8 Research Questions

As a consequence, in order to investigate the speech acts of *invitations* and

*disagreements* in the two series of English textbooks published by San Min and Lung Teng in Taiwan, based on a coding scheme adapted from the relevant study (for invitations: Beebe et al., 1990; Jawad & Habeeb, 2013; Nelson et al., 2002; Trong, 2012; for disagreements: Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Spencer, 2000; Vuchinich, 1990; Yu, 2010, 2013). The three research questions to be explored are presented as follows:

1. What is the frequency of *invitation* and *disagreement* in the two series of senior high school English textbooks, published by San Min and Lung Teng in Taiwan?
2. How are *invitation* and *disagreement* presented in the two series of senior high school English textbooks in Taiwan? Are they presented in American ways?
3. Are there any explanations of cultural differences between American and Chinese provided in the two series of senior high school English textbooks or their corresponding teachers' manuals? If so, do they correspond to American ways of using the two speech acts?





## **CHAPTER 3**

### **METHODOLOGY**

This chapter presents the overall research design of the study. The materials of the study will be described first in section 3.1. Next, the procedural design of the study is introduced in section 3.2. Section 3.3 discusses the analysis of the data applied in this study. Section 3.4 states the inter-rater reliability.

#### **3.1 Materials**

According to the website of Hanlin Book City in 2019, the statistics showed that Textbook San Min holds 55% market share and Textbook Lung Teng holds 31% market share among all versions of high school English textbooks in Taiwan. As can be known, Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng, which are the most prominent versions of senior high school English textbooks used in Taiwan, were chosen to be the analyzed materials in this study. Both of the textbooks were compiled and published based on Senior High School Required Subject English Curriculum Provisional Outline issued by the Ministry of Education in 2008, in which communicative competence was the main focus. Due to their high percentage of use, they were especially crucial during the process of language teaching and learning in speech acts.

The organization and the number of dialogue and conversation in senior high school English textbooks are different in some way. Among the 6 volumes of Textbook San Min, the Listening and Speaking section at the end of each volume was chosen to be analyzed. In the first to fourth volume, there are 12 units of conversation in each volume while there are 10 units of conversation in the last two volumes. That is, the total number for analysis in this study is 68 units. Each unit has a topic and the arrangement of each includes Teaching



Objectives, Teaching Suggestions for Conversation, Translation and Analysis, and Additional Reference Exercises.

As to the 6 volumes of Textbook Lung Teng, the individual conversation handbook for each volume was selected to be analyzed. In each volume, there are 6 units of conversation and each unit has two conversations, which form the number of 72 units for analysis in this study. Each unit is designed for helping students to acquire practical English conversation skills. As for the arrangement of each unit, it contains four major parts, which are Useful Expressions, Conversation 1 & 2, Guided Conversation, and On Your Own (Task 1-basic version & Task 2-advanced version).

### 3.2 Procedures

To investigate the two types of speech acts, a Pearson's chi-square test was adopted to delve into the comparisons of the observed frequencies of occurrence in the two series of textbooks with the expected frequencies in the literature. The procedures were presented as follows:

1. Extracting the utterances and responses of *invitations* and *disagreements* from the listening and speaking part of Textbook San Min and individual conversation handbook of Textbook Lung Teng from Book 1 to Book 6 (1<sup>st</sup> to 3<sup>rd</sup> year) and categorizing into different types based on the coding schemes. The reason for choosing the listening and speaking part of Textbook San Min and individual conversation handbook of Textbook Lung Teng to be analyzed is that they contain most of the conversations between interlocutors and make speech act analyses possible.
2. Multiply the total of observed frequencies in the textbooks and the percentage of each strategy in the literature to get the value of expected frequencies. The expected frequencies

are based on the existing literature and treated as the American norm.

3. Compare between the observed frequencies of occurrence in the two series of textbooks with the expected frequencies in the literature with the aid of quantitative analysis, Pearson's chi-square test.

4. Figure out the dominant strategies that are used in the two speech acts in the two series of textbooks to validate the result of the research through chi-square quantitative analysis.

5. Compare the dominant strategies presented in the textbooks with the previous literature afterwards to see whether they correspond to American ways of using the two speech acts.

### 3.3 Data Analysis

The collected data were analyzed based on the three research questions. The following showed how *invitations* and *disagreements* were examined in the current study. Each speech act was classified based on a coding scheme adapted from the relevant study (for invitations: Beebe et al., 1990; Jawad & Habeeb, 2013; Nelson et al., 2002; Trong, 2012; for disagreements: Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Spencer, 2000; Vuchinich, 1990; Yu, 2010, 2013). The analytic framework of invitation strategies is collected from different research studies and practical textbooks due to little research concerning the clear classification of invitation strategies. Trong (2012), among others, provided the clearest categorization of invitations in English. Furthermore, the strategy of self-invitation from Drew (2018) is added to make the analysis more complete. In terms of the framework employed for invitation responses, Jawad and Habeeb (2013) proposed the most detailed construction of direct acceptance and indirect acceptance to invitations whereas Beebe et al. (1990) categorized direct refusals and indirect refusals to invitations in a profound manner, which are the target to be explored in the present study. Also, the reason for choosing the taxonomies of disagreements from Beebe and

Takahashi (1989) and Spencer (2000) and responses to disagreement from Vuchinich (1990) and Yu (2010) (2013) as the analytic framework is that they provided the most detailed classification to analyze their data.

What worths mentioning is that it is not without deficiency by selecting the studies above and treating them as the American norm to conduct the analysis. It may be too arbitrary since no single research study can represent the American convention of expressing the two speech acts. However, due to the scarcity of research concerning the speech acts of invitations and disagreements, the relevant research had no choice but to be treated as the American Norm in the present study.

### ***3.3.1 Frequency of the Two Speech Acts in the Textbooks***

To answer the first research question, the frequencies of the two speech acts presented in the two series of high school English textbooks were counted and presented in frequency tables. Since most previous studies of speech acts and textbook analysis chose ‘sentence’ as the unit of data analysis, the study then was conducted in the same manner. The occurrence of a speech act and its corresponding response form two counts independently. Afterwards, Pearson’s chi-square test was conducted to figure out the dominant strategies that are employed in the two versions of textbooks. Comparisons were then made to show the distribution of the two speech acts in two sets of textbooks.

### ***3.3.2 How the Two Speech Acts Are Presented in the Textbooks***

To answer the second research question, the data collected from the two sets of textbooks were scrutinized based on the classification of the two speech acts behavior and their corresponding responses provided in the following parts. Then, the dominant strategies in the textbooks were compared with those in the previous literature to see whether they

corresponded to American ways of using the two speech acts. The results of the analysis were presented in the tables.

### ***Invitation***

Trong (2012), among others, demonstrated that invitation strategies can be categorized into four direct invitations and three indirect invitations in forms of questions, as can be seen below:

#### **Modified strategies of direct invitations**

1. ***Performative Sentences with a Subject***: Utterances occur before an action and these kind of sentences appear to signify the performance of the action itself (Austin, 1962).  
e.g. I **would like to invite** you to dinner next Sunday at my home. (Tillitt & Bruder, 1999)
2. ***Declarative Sentences***: Utterances occur when expressing states of affairs or doing things (Austin, 1962).  
e.g. **We just thought that it would be nice to have you over for dinner.** (Tillitt & Bruder, 1999)
3. ***Imperatives***: Utterances occur when giving commands or requests and they may appear in the structure of “Let’s + infinitive” (Tillitt & Bruder, 1999; Yule, 1996).  
e.g. **Do have a chocolate biscuit!** (Cobuild, 2001)  
**Let’s go to our place for a beer.** (Tillitt & Bruder, 1999)
4. ***Self-invitation***: Utterances occur when “a speaker may report some event or occasion or circumstance to another, and thereby elicit from the other” (Drew, 2018).  
e.g. **Can I go see it?** (Drew, 2018)

#### **Strategies of indirect invitations**

1. ***WH- (How~) Questions***: Utterances that start with WH-questions and How (Trong, 2012).

e.g. **Why** don't you come on holiday with us?

e.g. **How** do you fancy going out for a meal at the weekend?

e.g. **How** about coffee? (Tillitt & Bruder, 1999)

2. **Yes/No Questions**: Utterances that appear without the initiation of WH-questions and they may refer to different issues with the intention of inviting (Trong, 2012).

e.g. **Can you come over and join us?** (Le Huy Lam, 2000)

e.g. **Are you free next Thursday?**

3. **Tag Questions**: Utterances that end by adding up the phrases such as “won’t you?” and “can’t we?” and they are used to remind the invitation to the invited people (Trong, 2012).

e.g. “You will come to have dinner with us, **won’t you?**” (Le Huy Lam, 2000)

#### *invitation responses*

As Jawad and Habeeb (2013) aptly pointed out, the positive invitation responses can be classified into direct acceptance and indirect acceptance to invitations.

#### **Strategies of direct acceptance to invitations**

1. **Direct Acceptance**: The expressions such as “sure”, “definitely”, “of course”, and “alright” belong to this strategy (Jawad & Habeeb, 2013).

e.g. Yeah, I’ll **definitely** be there.

2. **Thanks, Gratitude, and Appreciation**: The expression such as “thank you” belongs to this strategy (Jawad & Habeeb, 2013).

e.g. **Thank you** for inviting me.

3. **Expressing Pleasure/Gladness**: The expressions such as “I’d like to very much.” and “I’d love to.” are employed by recipients to show their pleasure to the offering (Jawad & Habeeb, 2013).

e.g. I'd like to very much.

e.g. I'd love to.

4. *Expressing Surprise & Admiration*: The expressions such as “Awesome!”, “Oh” or “Wow” belong to this strategy (Jawad & Habeeb, 2013).

e.g. Wow! It is a beautiful watch. That's very generous of you.

5. *Congratulating*: The expression such as “Congratulations!” is used in special contexts where the inviter or offerer is experiencing a happy occasion (Jawad & Habeeb, 2013).

e.g. Congratulations, man. Of course, I'll see you there.

6. *Conditional Acceptance*: The pattern that includes “if” is employed when the speaker has the intention to or pretends to accept the invitation with conditions (Jawad & Habeeb, 2013).

e.g. I will go if I have time.

e.g. If I find someone to give me a ride to your party, I'll be there after work.

7. *Counter Question*: The expression that is employed by posing rhetorical questions to make a statement without expecting the answer (Jawad & Habeeb, 2013).

e.g. What time?

e.g. Who else is going there?

### Strategies of indirect acceptance to invitations

1. *Ostensibly Releasing from Obligation*: The expressions such as “You don't have to.” and “You don't need to.” belong to this strategy and they may be treated as ostensible refusals. (Jawad & Habeeb, 2013).

e.g. You shouldn't have to.

e.g. You don't have to spend so much money on my birthday.

2. **Complimenting**: The expression that is employed by praising or offering good wishes to refer to addressee-related events (Jawad & Habeeb, 2013).

e.g. **I suppose there are good people in the world.**

Beebe et al. (1990) noted that there are nine sub-strategies of refusals to invitations under two main categories, as can be seen below:

### **I. Direct expressions**

1. **No/Negative Willingness/Ability**: These expressions that comprise three types of direct refusal (i.e., “I refuse”, “no”, “negative ability/willingness”) into this category (Nelson et al., 2002).

e.g. **I don't want to./I can't.**

### **II. Indirect expressions**

2. **Statement of Regret**: The expressions that include “sorry” to show regret and apology (Beebe et al., 1990).

e.g. **I'm sorry.**

3. **Wish**: The expressions that include “wish” to show the willingness (Beebe et al., 1990).

e.g. **I wish I could go.**

4. **Excuse**: The expressions that are employed to justify the reasons behind the refusals (Beebe et al., 1990).

e.g. **I have a plan.**

5. **Statement of Alternative**: The expressions that include “Why don't we...?” to give other options (Beebe et al., 1990).

e.g. **I'd rather drink tea.**

6. **Promise of Future Acceptance**: The expressions that are employed to set a condition for

future or give a promise to comply (Beebe et al., 1990).

e.g. **I'll do it next time.**

7. ***Indefinite Reply/Hedging***: The expressions such as “I don’t know.”, “I’m not sure.”, or hedges to show one’s uncertainty and hesitation (Beebe et al., 1990).

e.g. **Maybe we can work something out.**

8. ***Postponement***: The expressions that is employed to change the date or time of an event or an action to the future or an unknown time (Beebe et al., 1990).

e.g. **I'll think about it.**

9. ***Repetition/Question***: The expressions that is employed to repeat the interlocutor’s utterance to request for clarification or further information (Beebe et al., 1990).

e.g. **Friday night?**

As the literature review indicated, Americans prefer to:

1. adopt directives as invitations to request the hearer’s willingness or desire to participate in the activity (e.g. Would you like to come for dinner tomorrow?) (Holtgraves, 2005).
2. perform assertions as acceptance to the invitations to show the mutuality (63%) of proposition (e.g. I believe the same thing) between the speaker and the hearer (Holtgraves, 2005).
3. use the format of ‘please’ and invitation as a type of request (e.g. “Please have a cigarette/drink/seat”) (White, 1993).
4. employ “negative ability/willingness” formula (“wish” formula) more and give vague excuses often (59%) to refuse the invitation (Chang, 2009).



5. apply the format of **Yes/No Questions** to extend invitations (Trong, 2012).
6. employ the strategies of **Direct Acceptance**, **Expressing Pleasure/Gladness**, and **Counter Question (CQ)** more often to directly accept invitations in daily conversation (Jawad & Habeeb, 2013).

### **Disagreement**

Beebe and Takahashi (1989) and Spencer (2000) developed a detailed categorization of disagreement, which consists of four sub-strategies of direct disagreement and one sub-strategy of indirect disagreement, as can be seen below:

#### **Direct disagreement**

1. **Explicit Disagreement**: This type of disagreement refers to the speaker explicitly disagrees with what he/she hears (Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Spencer, 2000).  
e.g. I am afraid **I don't agree.**
2. **Criticism/Negative Evaluation**: This type of disagreement refers to the speaker criticizes or evaluates negatively on what he/she hears (Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Spencer, 2000).  
e.g. **That's not practical.**
3. **Question**: This type of disagreement refers to the speaker's questions on what he/she hears (Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Spencer, 2000).  
e.g. **Do you think that would work smoothly?**
4. **Alternative Suggestion**: This type of disagreement refers to the speaker gives other alternatives when potentially disagrees (Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Spencer, 2000).  
e.g. **How about trying...?**

## Indirect disagreement

**Hints:** This type of disagreement refers to the speaker says something to imply the hidden meaning without telling directly (Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Bulm-Kulka, 1989; Spencer, 2000).

e.g. **You know what? I think I need more time to think it over. Can we find other time to talk about it after I've got a chance to look through it?** (Yu, 2010)

The strategies of responses to disagreement are adapted from Vuchinich (1990) and Yu (2010) (2013), as can be seen below:

### ***Responses to disagreement***

1. **Concession:** When the addressee responds to disagreement, he/she not only gives in to the speaker's viewpoints but even agrees with the complainer's ideas (Vuchinich, 1990).

e.g. A: Her presentation is great.

B: I beg to differ. I think there's lots of room for improvement.

A: **Come to think of it, maybe you're right.** (Yu, 2010)

2. **Compromise:** When the addressee responds to disagreement, he/she offers "a position that is between the opposing positions that define the dispute" (Vuchinich, 1990, p.126).

e.g. A: I don't like her. She's such a phony.

B: At least she's always seemingly kind and charitable.

A: **Right, I agree. She's not that undesirable.** (Yu, 2010)

3. **Contradiction:** When the addressee responds to disagreement, he/she refuses so as to let the interlocutor know that his or her opinion is not accepted or recognized.

Mostly, the addressee may directly show his/her disagreement by saying 'I disagree'

or 'I don't agree' or 'I don't think so' or they may simply state their own opinion (Vuchinich, 1990).

e.g. A: I love this movie.

B: What? This movie is such a drag!

A: **Not at all. I think it's one of the best I've ever seen.** (Yu, 2010)

4. **Avoidance (Silence/Topic Switch)**: When the addressee responds to disagreement, he/she keeps silent or shift the topic to minimize or terminate the exchange (Vuchinich, 1990).

e.g. A: I can't believe his suggestion. That's outrageous!

B: I don't think what's the problem!

A: **Care to have a drink?** (Yu, 2010)

5. **Questions**: When the addressee responds to disagreement, he/she shows the disagreement by posing questions in order to clarify or question the validity of the disagreement (Vuchinich, 1990).

A: He's a natural!

B: You're kidding me!

A: **What's wrong?** (Yu, 2010)

6. **Joking**: When the addressee responds to disagreement, he/she shows the disagreement by using humor in order to shorten the distance between the interlocutors (Vuchinich, 1990).

A: I love this movie.

B: It really sucks!

A: **Maybe it would win an Oscar this year.** (Yu, 2010)

As the previous literature showed, Americans are prone to:

1. employ more positive remarks or expressions of gratitude and softeners (e.g., I may be mistaken, but...) in the setting of higher to a lower status (Takahashi & Beebe, 1993).
2. offer ostensible responses such as partial agreement (e.g. *na*) or partial disagreement to minimize the disagreement when receiving the ostensible invitations (Isaacs & Clark, 1990).
3. use softened disagreement (negative politeness) to mitigate threats to the addressee's negative face by performing interrogatives, hedges (e.g. I think/I don't know), downtoners (e.g. maybe, sort of), verbs of uncertainty (e.g. seems), and impersonal forms (Lakoff, 1973; Brown & Levinson, 1987, p.131; Rees-Miller, 2000).
4. use 'well' less to indicate the disagreement except for the following three situations, to correct a phrase, to quote, and to introduce the speaker's own opinion (Crible & Pascual, 2020; Müller, 2004).
5. use 'but' as the repairs or reformulations of errors (Crible & Pascual, 2020; Müller, 2004).
6. use the strategy of **Questions** and **Joking** to respond to disagreement (Vuchinich, 1990; Yu, 2010, 2013).

### ***3.3.3 Explanations of Cultural Differences in the Textbooks and Their Corresponding Teachers' Manuals***

To answer the third research question, the two series of high school English textbooks and their corresponding teachers' manuals were analyzed. When conducting the analysis, American and Chinese way of expressing invitations in terms of cultural differences is provided.

### **Invitation**

As the previous literature showed, social status and social distance do matter in Chinese culture. Chinese tend to:

1. adopt three formats, “Verb-not-Verb” questions, interrogatives (anticipate success, end with particles “*ba*” (吧) or “*bei*” (嘸)) and declaratives (the lexical item “*hai*” (還) or “*benai*” (本來)) to extend invitations (Yu & Wu, 2018).
2. use “negative ability/willingness” formula (“wish” formula) and offer specific reasons to interlocutors who are in higher status and give unspecified excuses to interlocutors who are in a lower or equal status (Farnia & Wu, 2012).
3. adopt the expression of regret and expression of excuses, reasons, and explanations more to directly reject invitations (Farnia & Wu, 2012).

### **Disagreement**

As the previous literature indicated, the Chinese prefer to:

1. employ *meiyou* and *bushi* to express disagreement (Wang, 2008).
2. apply *keshi* ‘well’, *buguo* ‘nevertheless’, *danshi* ‘yet’ to mark the disagreement. Sometimes, the Chinese use the format of *suiran* ‘though’ plus *danshi* to reinforce the position of contrast (Schiffrin, 1987; Wang & Tsai, 2007).
3. use *bushi* to directly refute the addressee’s assertion (Wang, 2008).
4. employ **Concession** and **Compromise** to respond to disagreement (Yu, 2010).

## **3.4 Inter-rater Reliability**

In order to achieve the inter-rater reliability and establish the extent of consensus on the use of the coding schemes of the present study, the data from each series of the textbooks were selected to be categorized by a second-rater (Cohen, 1960). The second rater is Chinese

and also an English teacher of a senior high school in Taiwan. He has taught in senior high school for five years. Because the second-rater does not have the background knowledge of speech act performance, the researcher illustrated different categories of each speech act with examples. Then, several ratings were done to provide practices before the second-rater was presented with the data. The rater adopted the same coding schemes to analyze the textbooks, San Min and Lung Teng. The discussion proceeded afterwards if the categorization had been considered different. In reaching the consensus, the researcher and the second rater decided which data best suited the data being classified.

Based on the findings of the rater's analysis, it was found that the level of the consistency between the researcher and the rater was high. An acceptable inter-rater agreement was at least 85% (Cohen, 1960), and the calculated results showed that the inter-rater agreement for the classification of the two speech acts was 90%.



## CHAPTER 4

### RESULTS

In this chapter, section 4.1 showed the frequency of *invitations* and *disagreements* in the two series of senior high school English textbooks, Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng. The results were presented in Table 1 and Table 2. Afterwards, section 4.2 demonstrated the presentation of *invitations and disagreements* and then elucidated the differences between the use of the two speech acts in the textbooks and the authentic use of the two speech acts presented in the literature with the aid of chi-square analysis. The results were shown in Table 3 to Table 17. The cross-cultural analysis was done to examine whether the two series of textbooks presented the two speech acts in American ways or not. Section 4.3 indicated the explanations of cultural differences between American and Chinese to see if they were provided in the textbooks and their corresponding teachers' manuals. The examples from the supplementary materials were shown from Table 18 to Table 20. Moreover, section 4.3 also presented whether the explanations of cultural differences correspond to the American way of using the two speech acts.

#### 4.1 Frequency of the Two Speech Acts in the Textbooks

In order to answer the first research question, all of the conversational data in the six volumes of the selected textbooks, Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng, were categorized and counted. The occurrence of a speech act and its corresponding response formed two counts separately. The examination was based on based on a coding scheme adapted from the relevant study (for invitations: Beebe et al., 1990; Jawad & Habeeb, 2013; Nelson et al., 2002; Trong, 2012; for disagreements: Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Spencer, 2000; Vuchinich, 1990; Yu, 2010, 2013). The percentages of the two speech acts and their



responses were attached as well. The results are shown in Table 1 and Table 2.

Table 1 shows the frequency of the two speech acts in the two series of textbooks. Overall, in Textbook San Min, out of the 2316 sentences in the conversational data, the frequencies of the speech acts of invitations and disagreements were 26 and 20 per series respectively. That is to say, the proportion of the two speech acts is almost the same in San Min. By contrast, in Textbook Lung Teng, out of the 1670 sentences analyzed, the frequency of the speech act of disagreements was 68 per series, while that of the speech act of invitations was relatively low (18 per series).

It is worth noting that there were almost no discrepancies in the distribution of frequency in terms of the speech act of invitations in Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng. As for the distribution of the speech act of disagreements, there were discrepancies between Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng. As can be seen in Table 1 below, the frequency of disagreements in Textbook Lung Teng was 68 per series, which was three times higher than that of disagreements in Textbook San Min.

**Table 1**

*The Two Speech Acts in the Two Series of Textbooks*

Speech Act	Textbook			
	San Min		Lung Teng	
Frequency (Per Series)	Number	%	Number	%
Invitation	26	1.1	18	1.1
Disagreement	20	0.9	68	4.1

Table 2 shows the frequencies of the responses of two speech acts in the two series of textbooks. Overall, in Textbook San Min, out of the 2316 sentences in the conversational data, the frequencies of the speech acts of invitations and disagreements were 24 and 20 per series respectively. In other words, the proportions of the two speech acts is almost the same in Textbook San Min. In Textbook Lung Teng, out of the 1670 sentences to be analyzed, the frequency of the speech act of disagreements was 67 per series, while that of the speech act of invitations was relatively low (21 per series).

What worth mentioning is that there were almost no discrepancies of distribution in terms of the responses of invitations in Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng. As for the distribution of responses to disagreements, there were discrepancies between Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng. As can be seen in Table 2 below, the frequency of responses to disagreements in Textbook Lung Teng was 67 per series, which was three times higher than that of responses to disagreements in Textbook San Min.

**Table 2**

*The Responses of Two Speech Acts in the Two Series of Textbooks*

Speech Act	Textbook			
	San Min		Lung Teng	
Frequency (Per Series)	Number	%	Number	%
Invitation	24	1	21	1.3
Disagreement	20	0.9	67	4

## 4.2 How the Two Speech Acts Are Presented in the Textbooks

To answer the second research question, the presentations of *invitations* and *disagreements* were examined and analyzed. The results are shown from Table 3 to Table 17. Afterwards, the cross-cultural analysis was undergone to see whether the two series of textbooks showed the American convention of using the two speech acts. The findings are illustrated as below.

### *Invitation*

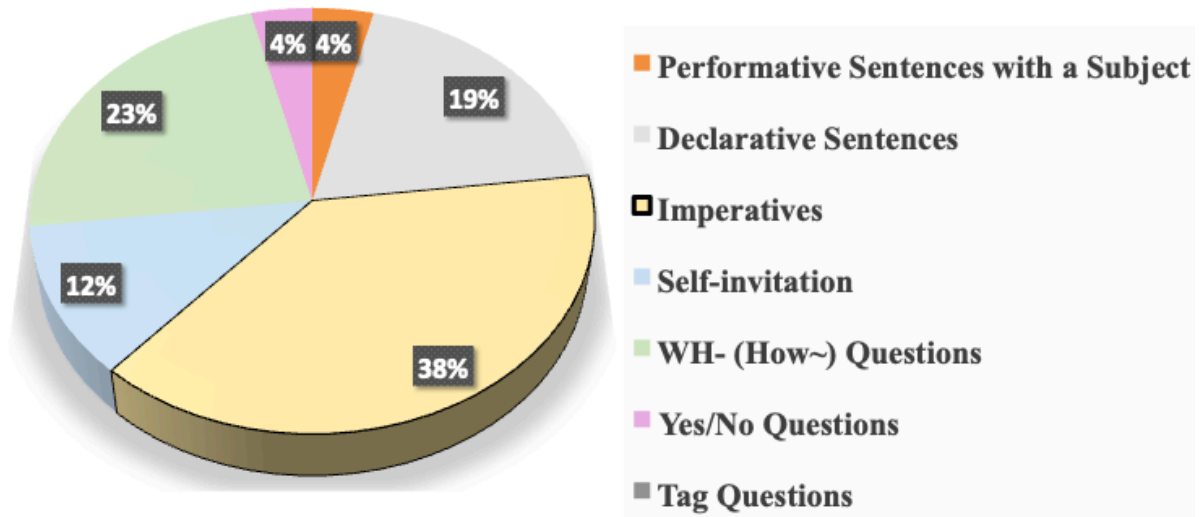
Table 3 includes all the modified invitation strategies in the two series of textbooks. In Textbook San Min, 38.46% of the invitation strategies were Imperatives. In Textbook Lung Teng, 27.77% of the invitations belonged to the indirect strategy of Yes/No Questions.

Previous literature showed that for Americans, *Imperatives* is the most dominant strategy (49%) to extend direct invitations. With regard to indirect invitations, *Yes/No Questions* is the most frequently adopted strategy (36%) for Americans (Trong, 2012). In terms of the direct invitations, it seemed that Textbook San Min did a better job than Textbook Lung Teng (see Figure 1 below). In terms of the indirect invitations, Textbook Lung Teng presented more native-like (see Figure 2 below). What worth noting is that both San Min and Lung Teng included WH- (How~) Questions seven times more than the American convention of using indirect invitations (3.33%).

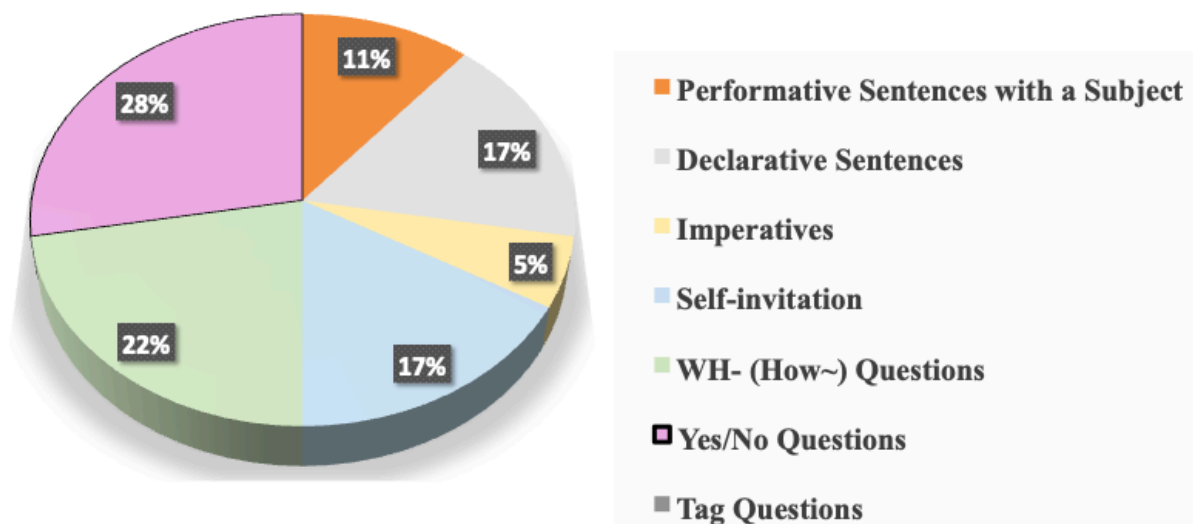
Table 4 contains all the modified invitation strategies in Textbook San Min. Based on chi-square analysis, the results showed that  $\chi^2=44.428 > 12.592$ , the null hypothesis of 61% of Americans employ direct invitation strategies and 39% of Americans employ indirect invitation strategies is rejected.

**Table 3***Modified Invitation Strategies in the Two Series of Textbooks*

Modified Invitation Strategy	San Min		Lung Teng	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Performative Sentences with a Subject	1	3.84	2	11.11
Declarative Sentences	5	19.23	3	16.66
Imperatives	10	38.46	1	5.55
Self-invitation	3	11.53	3	16.66
WH- (How~) Questions	6	23.07	4	22.22
Yes/No Questions	1	3.84	5	27.77
Tag Questions	0	0	0	0
Total	26	100.00	18	100.00



*Figure 1 Modified Invitation Strategies in Textbook San Min*



*Figure 2 Modified Invitation Strategies in Textbook Lung Teng*

That is to say, the observed frequencies of the modified invitation strategies in Textbook San Min do not fit the expected frequencies in the literature (Trong, 2012). As can be known, there is a significant difference concerning the distribution of the direct invitations and indirect invitations presented in Textbook San Min and American convention of using invitation strategies. In order to examine the reasons that contribute to the significant difference, the value of R (standardized residual) was tallied. The results indicated that the significant difference is attributable to the indirect strategies of WH- (How~) Questions

(  $| 5.910 | > 2.00$  in absolute value) and Yes/No Questions (  $| -2.732 | > 2.00$  in absolute value). The direct strategies of Performative Sentences with a Subject (  $| -1.200 | < 2.00$  in absolute value) and Imperatives (  $| -0.767 | < 2.00$  in absolute value) are not major contributors to the significant  $X^2$  value. Again, the results of the analysis confirmed that Imperatives is the most frequent strategy adopted in Textbook San Min.

**Table 4**

*Observed (O) Frequencies, Expected (E) Frequencies,  $X^2$ , and R (Standardized Residual) of Modified Invitation Strategies in Textbook San Min*

Strategies	O	E	$(O-E)^2/E$	R
Performative Sentences with a Subject	1	3.12	1.440	-1.200
Declarative Sentences	5	0	0	0
Imperatives	10	12.74	0.589	-0.767
Self-invitation	3	0	0	0
WH- (How~) Questions	6	0.78	34.933	5.910
Yes/No Questions	1	9.36	7.466	-2.732
Tag Questions	0	0	0	0
Total	26	26.00	$X^2=44.428$	

Table 5 contains all the modified invitation strategies in Textbook Lung Teng. Based on chi-square analysis, the results showed that  $X^2=29.451 > 12.592$ , the null hypothesis of 61% of Americans employ direct invitation strategies and 39% of Americans employ indirect invitation strategies is rejected. In other words, the observed frequencies of the modified invitation strategies in Textbook Lung Teng do not fit the expected frequencies in the literature (Trong, 2012). As can be known, there is a significant difference concerning the distribution of the direct invitations and indirect invitations presented in Textbook Lung Teng and American convention of employing invitation strategies. In order to examine the reasons that contribute to the significant difference, the value of R (standardized residual) was tallied. The results revealed that the significant difference is attributable to the direct strategy of Imperatives ( | -2.633 | > 2.00 in absolute value) and the indirect strategy of WH- (How~) Questions ( | 4.708 | > 2.00 in absolute value). The direct strategy of Performative Sentences with a Subject ( | -0.108 | < 2.00 in absolute value) and the indirect strategy of Yes/No Questions ( | -0.581 | < 2.00 in absolute value) are not major contributors to the significant  $X^2$  value. Once again, the results of the analysis confirmed that Yes/No Questions is the most frequent one adopted in Textbook Lung Teng.

The following shows the direct and indirect strategies of invitations discovered in the two series of high school English textbooks, Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng are listed below.

### **Modified strategies of direct invitations**

#### **1. *Performative Sentences with a Subject***

e.g. Textbook San Min Book 6 Unit 3 Congratulations on Your Excellent Work

(p.244)

**Table 5**

*Observed (O) Frequencies, Expected (E) Frequencies,  $\chi^2$ , and R (Standardized Residual) of Modified Invitation Strategies in Textbook Lung Teng*

Strategies	O	E	(O-E) <sup>2</sup> /E	R
Performative	2	2.16	0.011	-0.108
Sentences with				
a Subject				
Declarative	3	0	0	0
Sentences				
Imperatives	1	8.82	6.933	-2.633
Self-invitation	3	0	0	0
WH- (How~)	4	0.54	22.169	4.708
Questions				
Yes/No	5	6.48	0.338	-0.581
Questions				
Tag Questions	0	0	0	0
Total	18	18.00	$\chi^2=29.451$	

→Karen (U.S.A.): OK, last but not least, **I'd like to invite you all to a barbecue at Leverette House on Friday afternoon.** .....

Elisa (R.O.C.): That's so exciting! .....

## 2. *Declarative Sentences*

e.g. Textbook San Min Book 3 Unit 5 You'd better Submit Your Request Soon



(p.306)

→Ryan (U.S.A.): ..... **My parents will be glad to have you stay with us.**

Cindy (R.O.C.): Thanks for inviting me to live with you and your family,  
but.....

### 3. *Imperatives*

e.g. Textbook Lung Teng Book 2 Chapter 5 Do You Have Time on Saturday  
Afternoon? (p.260)

Conversation 1

→Ms. Ellis (U.S.A.): But if you do finish your meeting early, **then please do  
come.** .....

Sofie (Denmark): I will try to drop by, but I can't promise!

### 4. *Self-invitation* (Drew, 2018)

e.g. Textbook Lung Teng Book 4 Chapter 6 Heading for the Sunshine! (p. 320)

Conversation 1

→Ms. Ellis (U.S.A.): Great news, everyone! My uncle George has bought a house  
near Miami Beach, and he's invited me to stay over the long weekend.

Sofie (Denmark): Wow, Florida! **Can we come?**

### Strategies of indirect invitations

#### 1. *WH- (How~) Questions*

e.g. Textbook San Min Book 5 Unit 1 We've Got to Plan This Trip Carefully (p. 236)

→Ryan (U.S.A.): **How about a short weekend trip so that you can take a  
break and relax?**

Elisa (R.O.C.): But I have a really tight schedule.....

## 2. *Yes/No Questions*

e.g. Textbook Lung Teng Book 6 Chapter 6 Time to Say Goodbye! (p. 247)

Conversation 2

→Sofie (Denmark): I was thinking that I would go back to Denmark in August;

**do you want to come?** We could stay at my home for a while and then go

backpacking in Europe.

Simba (Kenya): I'd like to go to London.

## 3. *Tag Questions* (No examples were found in two series of textbooks)

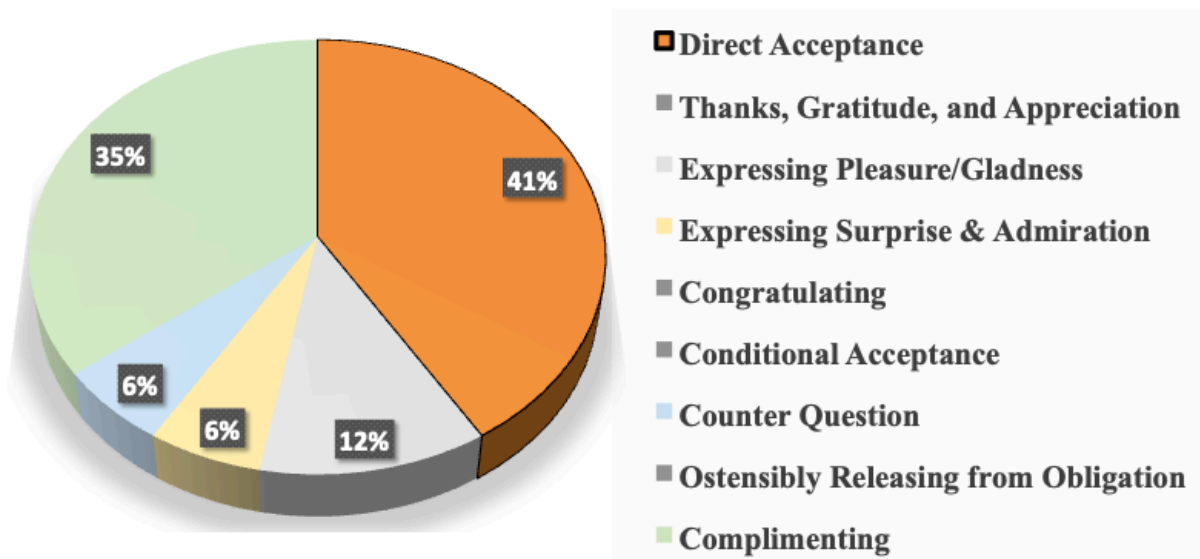
Table 6 displays all the strategies of direct acceptance and indirect acceptance to invitations in the two series of textbooks. In Textbook San Min, the percentage of Direct Acceptance was the highest one, accounting for 41.17% more or less whereas Complimenting took up approximately 35.29%. In Textbook Lung Teng, the percentage of Direct Acceptance was also the highest one, accounting for 36.36% more or less whereas Conditional Acceptance and Complimenting both took up approximately 18.18% and Expressing Surprise & Admiration, Counter Question, and Ostensibly Releasing from Obligation all shared around 9.09%.

Previous literature revealed that for native speakers of English, *Direct Acceptance* is the most dominant strategy (27%) to directly accept the invitations, and *Complimenting* is the most dominant strategy (7%) to indirectly accept the invitations (Jawad & Habeeb, 2013). The research results are in substantial agreement with previous literature (see Table 6 below). It appeared that both Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng made a great effort to conform to the American norms of employing the acceptance of invitations (see Figure 3 & Figure 4 below).

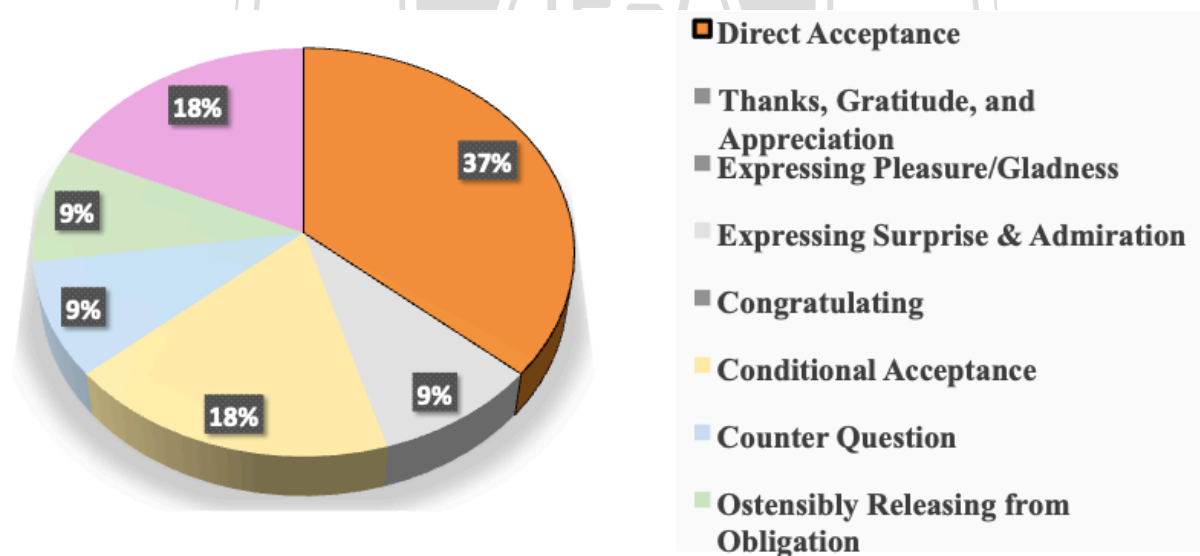
**Table 6***Strategies of Invitation Responses (Acceptance) in the Two Series of Textbooks*

Invitation Response Strategy	Textbook			
	San Min		Lung Teng	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Direct Acceptance	7	41.17	4	36.36
Thanks, Gratitude, and Appreciation	0	0	0	0
Expressing Pleasure/Gladness	2	11.76	0	0
Expressing Surprise & Admiration	1	5.88	1	9.09
Congratulating	0	0	0	0
Conditional Acceptance	0	0	2	18.18
Counter Question	1	5.88	1	9.09
Ostensibly Releasing from Obligation	0	0	1	9.09

Complimenting	6	35.29	2	18.18
Total	17	100.00	11	100.00



**Figure 3** Strategies of Invitation Responses (Acceptance) in Textbook San Min



**Figure 4** Strategies of Invitation Responses (Acceptance) in Textbook Lung Teng

Table 7 demonstrates the strategies of direct acceptance and indirect acceptance to invitations in Textbook San Min. Based on chi-square analysis, the results indicated that  $X^2=26.886 > 15.507$ , the null hypothesis of 92% of Americans employ direct acceptance strategies and 8% of Americans employ indirect acceptance strategies to invitations is

rejected. In other words, the observed frequencies in Textbook San Min do not fit the expected frequencies in the literature (Jawad & Habeeb, 2013). As can be known, the percentage of direct acceptance strategies is different from 92% and the percentage of indirect acceptance strategies is different from 8%. To be more precise, the frequency of employing the strategies of direct and indirect acceptance in Textbook San Min does not conform to American convention. To figure out the strategies that result in a significant difference between the convention of direct and indirect acceptance to invitations in Taiwan and America, the value of R (standardized residual) was tallied. The results indicated that Complimenting ( $|4.409| > 2.00$  in absolute value) is the major contributor to the significant  $\chi^2$  value. To take a closer look at the indirect acceptance to invitations, the strategy of Complimenting accounted for 35.29% in Textbook San Min while it only accounted for 7% in Jawad and Habeeb's (2013) study (see Table 6 above).

Table 8 presents the strategies of direct acceptance and indirect acceptance to invitations in Textbook Lung Teng. Based on chi-square analysis, the results revealed that  $\chi^2=23.985 > 15.507$ , the null hypothesis of 92% of Americans employ direct acceptance strategies and 8% of Americans employ indirect acceptance strategies to invitations is rejected. In other words, the observed frequencies in Textbook Lung Teng do not fit the expected frequencies in the literature (Jawad & Habeeb, 2013). As can be known, the percentage of direct acceptance strategies is different from 92% and the percentage of indirect acceptance strategies is different from 8%. To be more precise, the frequency of employing the strategies of direct and indirect acceptance in Textbook Lung Teng does not conform to American convention. To figure out the strategies that result in a significant difference between the convention of direct and indirect acceptance to invitations in Taiwan and America, the value of R

(standardized residual) was tallied. The results showed that Conditional Acceptance

**Table 7**

*Observed (O) Frequencies, Expected (E) Frequencies,  $X^2$ , and R (Standardized Residual) of Invitation Responses (Acceptance) in Textbook San Min*

Strategies	O	E	(O-E) <sup>2</sup> /E	R
Direct Acceptance	7	4.59	1.265	1.124
Thanks, Gratitude, and Appreciation	0	2.04	2.04	-1.428
Expressing Pleasure/Gladness	2	2.89	0.274	-0.523
Expressing Surprise & Admiration	1	0.85	0.026	0.162
Congratulating	0	1.19	1.19	-1.090
Conditional Acceptance	0	0.68	0.68	-0.824
Counter Question	1	3.57	1.850	-1.360
Ostensibly Releasing from Obligation	0	0.119	0.119	-0.344
Complimenting	6	1.19	19.442	<b>4.409</b>
Total	17	17.00	$X^2=26.886$	

( | 2.351 | > 2.00 in absolute value) and Ostensibly Releasing from Obligation ( | 3.326 | >

2.00 in absolute value) are the major contributors to the significant  $X^2$  value.

**Table 8**

*Observed (O) Frequencies, Expected (E) Frequencies,  $X^2$ , and R (Standardized Residual) of Invitation Responses (Acceptance) in Textbook Lung Teng*

Strategies	O	E	(O-E) <sup>2</sup> /E	R
Direct Acceptance	4	2.97	0.357	0.597
Thanks, Gratitude, and Appreciation	0	1.32	1.32	-1.148
Expressing Pleasure/Gladness	0	1.87	1.87	-1.367
Expressing Surprise & Admiration	1	0.55	0.368	0.606
Congratulating	0	0.77	0.77	-0.877
Conditional Acceptance	2	0.44	5.530	2.351
Counter Question	1	2.31	0.742	-0.861
Ostensibly Releasing from Obligation	1	0.077	11.064	3.326
Complimenting	2	0.77	1.964	1.401
Total	11	11.00	$X^2=23.985$	

The following shows the direct and indirect acceptance of invitation strategies discovered in the two series of high school English textbooks, Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng are listed below.

### **Strategies of direct acceptance to invitations**

#### **1. *Direct Acceptance***

e.g. Textbook Lung Teng Book 6 Chapter 2 Please Lend a Hand (p. 226)

Conversation 2

→Sofie (Denmark): Yes, I'm sure that charity workers will be able to get into the fashion show for nothing!

James (Taiwan): **OK. Definitely count me in.**

**2. *Thanks, Gratitude, and Appreciation*** (No examples were found in two series of textbooks)

#### **3. *Expressing Pleasure/Gladness***

e.g. Textbook San Min Book 4 Unit 8 Footloose on the Freedom Trail (p. 313)

→Alvin: .....Would you like to be my assistant today?

Ryan (U.S.A.): Sure. **It would be my pleasure.**

#### **4. *Expressing Surprise & Admiration***

e.g. Textbook Lung Teng Book 4 Chapter 6 Heading for the Sunshine! (p. 320)

Conversation 1

→Ms. Ellis (U.S.A.): Great news, everyone! My uncle George has bought a house near Miami Beach, and he's invited me to stay over the long weekend.

Sofie (Denmark): **Wow, Florida!** Can we come?

**5. *Congratulating*** (No examples were found in two series of textbooks)



## 6. *Conditional Acceptance*

e.g. Textbook Lung Teng Book 5 Chapter 2 Do You Remember Tori? (p. 221)

Conversation 1

→Sofie (Denmark): .....And, anyway, what other plans do you have for the vacation?

Simba (Kenya): OK, **but only if you book all the tickets and hotels**. I have an essay to finish.

## 7. *Counter Question*

e.g. Textbook San Min Book 2 Unit 1 What Do You Say? (p. 263)

→Ryan (U.S.A.): **Should I bring anything?**

Austin (R.O.C.): (*Smiling*) No. Just show up at 6 o'clock on Saturday.

### Strategies of indirect acceptance to invitations

#### 1. *Ostensibly Releasing from Obligation*

e.g. Textbook Lung Teng Book 1 Chapter 3 I Really Appreciate It (p. 228)

→James (Taiwan): Well, I bought you these to say thanks.

Ms. Ellis (U.S.A.): James, such beautiful flowers! Thank you! **You really shouldn't have!**

#### 2. *Complimenting*

e.g. Textbook San Min Book 6 Unit 5 What's Your Dream University (p. 250)

→Nina (Germany): ..... You can see for yourself what it's like to study at Boston University, for example.

Cindy (R.O.C.): **That's a terrific idea!** .....

Table 9 lists all the strategies of direct refusal and indirect refusal of invitations in the two series of textbooks. In Textbook San Min, the percentage of Excuse was the highest one,

accounting for 42.85% more or less whereas both No/Negative Willingness/Ability and Repetition/Question took up approximately 28.57%. In Textbook Lung Teng, the percentage of Excuse was also the highest one, accounting for 40%. Statement of Alternative was in the second place, and on the contrary, third place went to the strategies of No/Negative Willingness/Ability, Statement of Regret, Promise of Future Acceptance, and Repetition/Question as the same ranking.

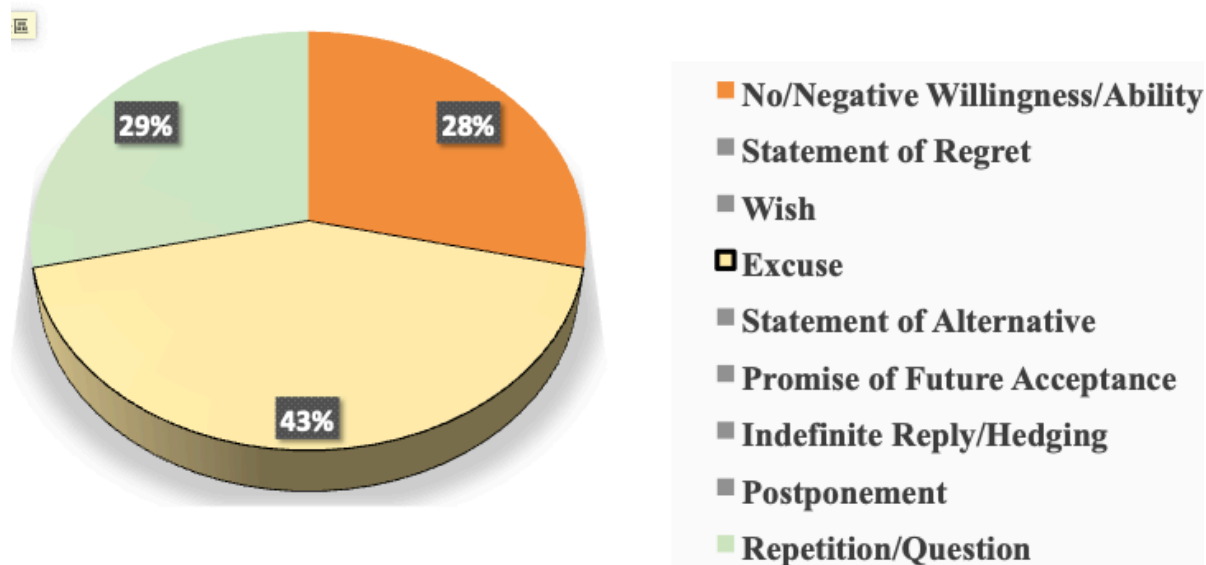
Previous literature showed that for native speakers of English, *No/Negative Willingness/Ability* is the most frequently adopted strategy (42.9%) to directly refuse invitations and *Excuse* is the most frequently applied strategy (37.1%) to indirectly refuse invitations (Beebe et al., 1990 & Nelson et al., 2002) (see Figure 5 & Figure 6 below). The research results are not in substantial agreement with previous literature (see Table 9 below).

**Table 9**

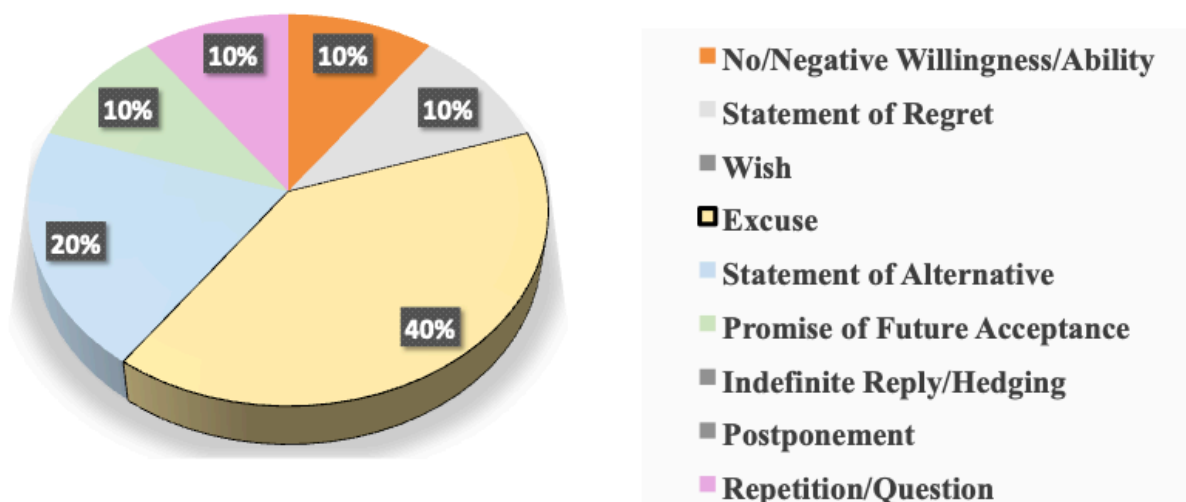
*Strategies of Invitation Responses (Refusals) in the Two Series of Textbooks*

Invitation Response Strategy	San Min		Lung Teng	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
No/Negative Willingness/Ability	2	28.57	1	10
Statement of Regret	0	0	1	10

Wish	0	0	0	0
Excuse	3	42.85	4	40
Statement of Alternative	0	0	2	20
Promise of Future Acceptance	0	0	1	10
Indefinite Reply/Hedging	0	0	0	0
Postponement	0	0	0	0
Repetition/Question	2	28.57	1	10
Total	7	100.00	10	100.00



*Figure 5 Strategies of Invitation Responses (Refusals) in Textbook San Min*



**Figure 6** Strategies of Invitation Responses (Refusals) in Textbook Lung Teng

Table 10 contains all the strategies of direct refusal and indirect refusal of invitations in Textbook San Min. Based on chi-square analysis, the results showed that  $\chi^2=38.606 > 15.507$ , the null hypothesis of 42.9% of Americans employ the direct refusal strategy and 57.1% of Americans employ indirect refusal strategies to invitations is rejected. In other words, the observed frequencies in Textbook San Min do not fit the expected frequencies in the literature (Beebe et al., 1990 & Nelson et al., 2002). As can be concluded, the frequency of employing the strategies of direct and indirect refusal in Textbook San Min does not correspond with American convention of using them to refuse invitations. In order to examine the strategies that contribute to the significant difference, the value of R (standardized residual) was tallied. The results suggested that Repetition/Question ( $| 6.075 | > 2.00$  in absolute value) is the major contributor to the significant  $\chi^2$  value. To take a closer look at the indirect refusal to invitations, the strategy of Repetition/Question accounted for 28.57% in Textbook San Min while it only accounted for 1.4% in the literature (Beebe et al., 1990 & Nelson et al., 2002) (see Table 9 above).

**Table 10**

*Observed (O) Frequencies, Expected (E) Frequencies,  $X^2$ , and R (Standardized Residual) of Invitation Responses (Refusals) in Textbook San Min*

Strategies	O	E	(O-E) <sup>2</sup> /E	R
No/Negative	2	3.003	0.335	-0.578
Willingness/Ability				
Statement of Regret	0	0.196	0.196	-0.442
Wish	0	0.196	0.196	-0.442
Excuse	3	2.597	0.062	0.250
Statement of Alternative	0	0.301	0.301	-0.548
Promise of Future Acceptance	0	0.301	0.301	-0.548
Indefinite Reply/Hedging	0	0.301	0.301	-0.548
Postponement	0	0	0	0
Repetition/Question	2	0.098	36.914	<b>6.075</b>
Total	7	7.00	$X^2=38.606$	

Table 11 presents all the strategies of direct refusal and indirect refusal of invitations in Textbook Lung Teng. Based on chi-square analysis, the results showed that  $X^2=16.875 >$

15.507, the null hypothesis of 42.9% of Americans employ the direct refusal strategy and 57.1% of Americans employ indirect refusal strategies to invitations is rejected. That is to say, the observed frequencies in Textbook Lung Teng do not fit the expected frequencies in the literature (Beebe et al., 1990 & Nelson et al., 2002). As can be concluded, the frequency of direct and indirect refusal in Textbook Lung Teng does not correspond with American convention of using them to refuse invitations. To examine the strategies that contribute to the significant difference, the value of R (standardized residual) was tallied. The results suggested that Statement of Alternative (  $| 2.394 | > 2.00$  in absolute value) and Repetition/Question (  $| 2.298 | > 2.00$  in absolute value) are the major contributors to the significant  $X^2$  value. To take a closer look at the indirect refusal to invitations, the strategy of Statement of Alternative accounted for 20% in Textbook Lung Teng while it only accounted for 4.3% in the literature (Beebe et al., 1990 & Nelson et al., 2002). As for the strategy of Repetition/Question, it accounted for 10% in Textbook Lung Teng while it only accounted for 1.4% in the literature (Beebe et al., 1990 & Nelson et al., 2002) (see Table 9 above).

The following shows the direct and indirect refusals of invitation strategies discovered in the two series of high school English textbooks, Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng are listed below.

### **The strategy of direct refusal to invitations**

#### ***1. No/Negative Willingness/Ability***

e.g. Textbook San Min Book 2 Unit 1 What Do You Say? (p. 263)

→Austin (R.O.C.): (*Smiling*) No. Just show up at 6 o'clock on Saturday.

Ryan (U.S.A.): Saturday? **Oh, no. I'm afraid I can't make it.** I've already made plans with Elisa for Saturday.

**Table 11**

*Observed (O) Frequencies, Expected (E) Frequencies,  $X^2$ , and R (Standardized Residual) of Invitation Responses (Refusals) in Textbook Lung Teng*

Strategies	O	E	(O-E) <sup>2</sup> /E	R
No/Negative	1	4.29	2.523	-1.588
<i>Willingness/Ability</i>				
Statement of Regret	1	0.28	1.851	1.360
Wish	0	0.28	0.28	-0.529
Excuse	4	3.71	0.022	0.150
Statement of Alternative	2	0.43	5.732	2.394
Promise of Future Acceptance	1	0.43	0.755	0.869
Indefinite Reply/Hedging	0	0.43	0.43	-0.655
Postponement	0	0	0	0
Repetition/Question	1	0.14	5.282	2.298
Total	10	10.00	$X^2=16.875$	

### **Strategies of indirect refusal to invitations**

#### **2. Statement of Regret**

e.g. Textbook Lung Teng Book 4 Chapter 6 Heading for the Sunshine! (p. 322)

Conversation 2

→Sofie (Denmark): ..... I think we should go!

Ms. Ellis (U.S.A.): **Sorry**, Simba and Sofie. I agree with the others. It really wouldn't be smart to go down there now. ....

3. **Wish** (No examples were found in two series of textbooks)

4. **Excuse**

e.g. Textbook Lung Teng Book 2 Chapter 5 Do You Have Time on Saturday

Afternoon? (p. 260)

Conversation 2

→Ms. Ellis (U.S.A.): Yes, it is better to call.

Sofie (Denmark): **I would love to come, but I just got a call from my would-be landlord. He wants me to meet with him before we sign the contract, and the appointment is for this coming Saturday.**

5. **Statement of Alternative**

e.g. Textbook Lung Teng Book 6 Chapter 6 Time to Say Goodbye! (p. 247)

Conversation 2

→Simba (Kenya): I don't have much money though. **We'd have to travel on a shoestring.**

Sofie (Denmark): Of course! That's what backpacking is all about. We'd stay in youth hostels and we'd eat cheap food.

6. **Promise of Future Acceptance**

e.g. Textbook Lung Teng Book 5 Chapter 3 Welcome to LA! (p. 227)



## Conversation 1

→James (Taiwan): Hey! I'd like to see the Hollywood sign.

Tori: No problem! **Maybe that will have to be tomorrow, though.** .....

7. *Indefinite Reply/Hedging* (No examples were found in two series of textbooks)

8. *Postponement* (No examples were found in two series of textbooks)

9. *Repetition/Question*

e.g. Textbook San Min Book 2 Unit 1 What Do You Say? (p. 263)

→Austin (R.O.C.): (*Smiling*) No. Just show up at 6 o'clock on Saturday.

Ryan (U.S.A.): **Saturday?** Oh, no. I'm afraid I can't make it. I've already made plans with Elisa for Saturday.

Table 12 shows disagreement strategies in the two series of textbooks. Alternative Suggestion ranked first place in Textbook San Min whereas Criticism/Negative Evaluation topped in Textbook Lung Teng.

Previous literature showed that *Criticism/Negative Evaluation* is the most dominant strategy (28%) to show disagreement directly in the context of America (Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Rees-Miller, 2000; Spencer-Oatey, 2000). In terms of the direct disagreement, it seemed that Textbook Lung Teng did a better job than Textbook San Min (see Figure 7 & Figure 8 below).

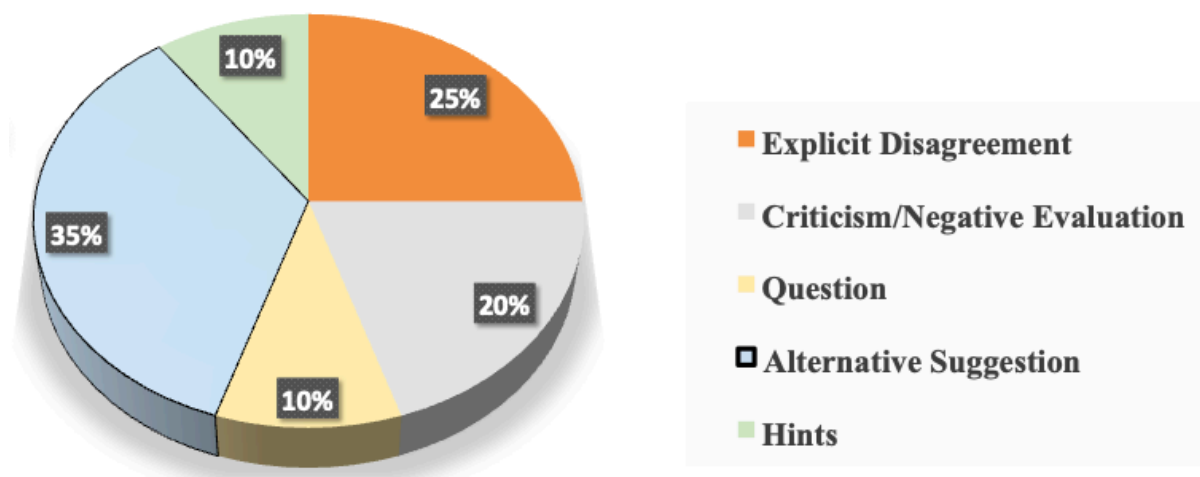
**Table 12**

*Disagreement Strategies in the Two Series of Textbooks*

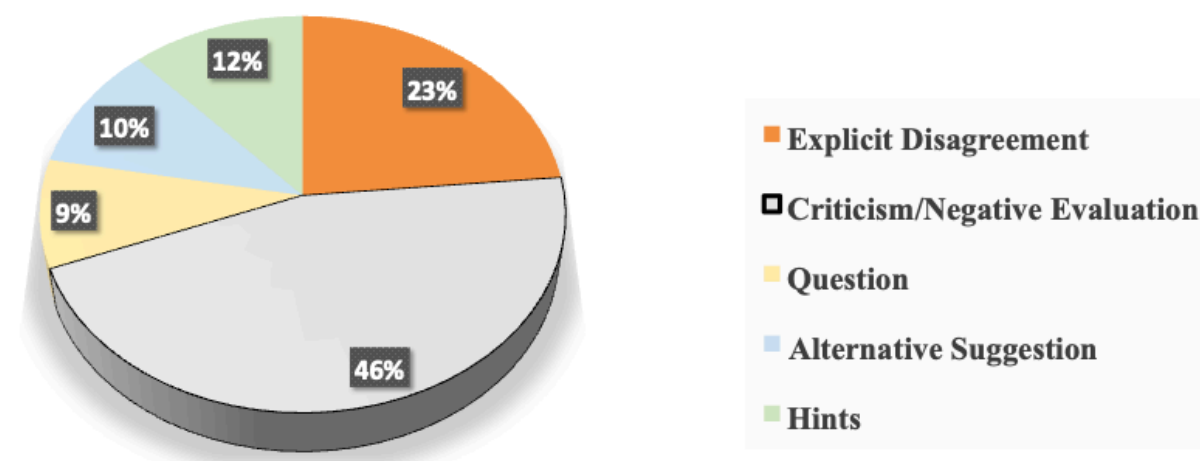
Disagreement Strategy	Textbook			
	San Min		Lung Teng	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Explicit	5	25	16	23.52
Disagreement				
Criticism/Negative	4	20	31	45.58
Evaluation				
Question	2	10	6	8.82
Alternative	7	35	7	10.29
Suggestion				
Hints	2	10	8	11.76
Total	20	100.00	68	100.00

Table 13 displays disagreement strategies in Textbook San Min. Based on chi-square analysis, the results showed that  $X^2=17.175 > 3.841$ , the null hypothesis of 44% of Americans employ the direct disagreement and 56% of Americans employ the indirect disagreement is rejected. That is to say, the observed frequencies in San Min do not fit the expected frequencies in the literature (Rees-Miller, 2000). As can be seen, the percentage of strategies of direct disagreement is different from 44% and the percentage of the strategy of indirect

disagreement is different from 56%. The percentage implied that the frequency of employing



*Figure 7 Disagreement Strategies in Textbook San Min*



*Figure 8 Disagreement Strategies in Textbook Lung Teng*

strategies to disagree with others either in a direct or indirect manner in Textbook San Min is significantly different from American convention. In order to see the strategies that contribute to the significant difference, the value of R (standardized residual) was tallied. The results revealed that the significant difference is attributable to both the strategies of direct disagreement ( $| 3.101 | > 2.00$  in absolute value) and indirect disagreement ( $| -2.749 | > 2.00$  in absolute value).

**Table 13**

*Observed (O) Frequencies, Expected (E) Frequencies,  $\chi^2$ , and R (Standardized Residual) of Disagreement Strategies in Textbook San Min*

Strategies	O	E	(O-E) <sup>2</sup> /E	R
Direct Disagreement	18	8.8	9.618	3.101
Indirect Disagreement	2	11.2	7.557	-2.749
Total	20	20.00	$\chi^2=17.175$	

Table 14 demonstrates disagreement strategies in Textbook Lung Teng. Based on chi-square analysis, the results revealed that  $\chi^2=54 > 3.841$ , the null hypothesis of 44% of Americans employ strategies of direct disagreement and 56% of Americans employ the strategy of indirect disagreement is rejected. That is to say, the observed frequencies in Textbook Lung Teng do not fit the expected frequencies in the literature (Rees-Miller, 2000). As can be seen, the percentage of strategies of direct disagreement is different from 44% and the percentage of the strategy of indirect disagreement is different from 56%. The percentage implied that the frequency of employing strategies to disagree with others either in a direct or indirect manner in Textbook Lung Teng is significantly different from American convention. In order to see the strategies that contribute to the significant difference, the value of R (standardized residual) was calculated. The results indicated that the significant difference is attributable to both the strategies of direct disagreement ( | 5.499 | > 2.00 in absolute value) and indirect disagreement ( | -4.874 | > 2.00 in absolute value).

**Table 14**

*Observed (O) Frequencies, Expected (E) Frequencies,  $\chi^2$ , and R (Standardized Residual) of Disagreement Strategies in Textbook Lung Teng*

Strategies	O	E	(O-E) <sup>2</sup> /E	R
Direct Disagreement	60	29.92	30.240	5.499
Indirect Disagreement	8	38.08	23.760	-4.874
Total	68	68.00	$\chi^2=54$	

The following shows the direct and indirect disagreement strategies discovered in the two series of high school English textbooks, Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng are listed below.

### Strategies of direct disagreement

#### 1. *Explicit Disagreement*

e.g. Textbook San Min Book 3 Unit 4 What Are Your Plans for the Summer?

(p. 303)

→Cindy (R.O.C.): .....Isn't it a bit too far-fetched for me to think of ever studying here?

Ryan (U.S.A.): **Not at all!** .....

#### 2. *Criticism/Negative Evaluation*

e.g. Textbook Lung Teng Book 3 Chapter 6 Please Control Your Pet! (p. 281)

Conversation 2

→Simba (Kenya): I thought he understood about using the little box!

James (Taiwan): **It doesn't look that way to me.** .....

### 3. *Question*

e.g. Textbook Lung Teng Book 4 Chapter 2 That's a Bit Gross! (p. 299)

Conversation 2

→James (Taiwan)): .....He's going to become a competitive eater!

Sofie (Denmark): **Are you serious?** .....

### 4. *Alternative Suggestion*

e.g. Textbook Lung Teng Book 4 Chapter 6 Heading for the Sunshine! (p. 320)

Conversation 2

→Ms. Ellis (U.S.A.): It's about 1,300 miles; that's a long drive.

Sofie (Denmark): Well, **we could fly. Flying is pretty cheap.**

### **The strategy of indirect disagreement**

#### *Hints*

e.g. Textbook Lung Teng Book 5 Chapter 3 Welcome to LA! (p. 228)

Conversation 2

→Sofie (Denmark): Here's one called Raging Waters; that sounds like a blast!

James (Taiwan): Actually, **I can't swim, so water parks always make me nervous.** .....

Table 15 illustrates all the responses to disagreement in the two series of textbooks. In Textbook San Min, the percentage of Contradiction was the highest one, accounting for 40% whereas Concession took up approximately 30% and Compromise and Joking shared around 10%. In Textbook Lung Teng, the percentage of Compromise was the highest one, accounting for 38.80% more or less whereas Contradiction took up approximately 35.82%

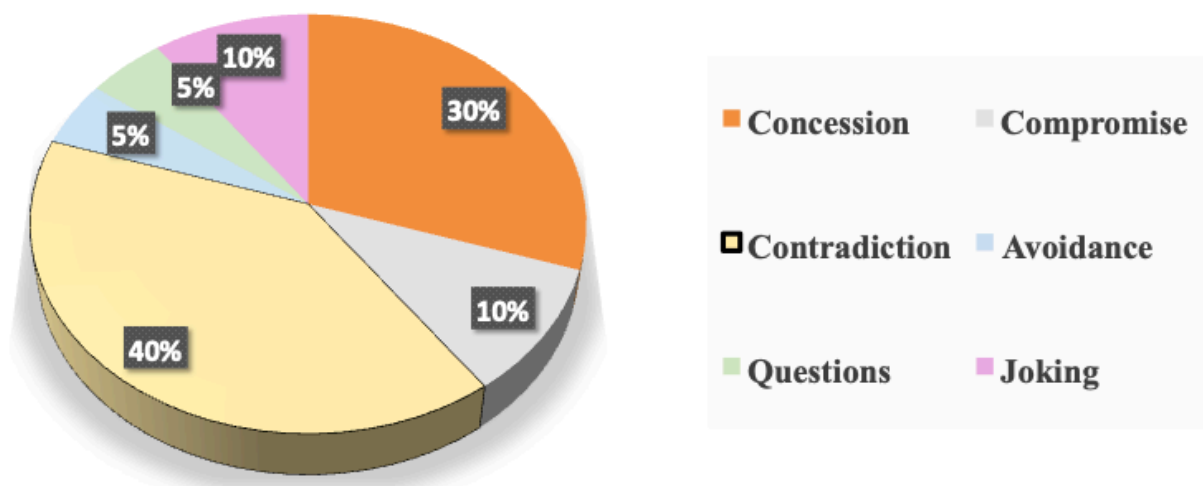
and Concession shared around 8.95%.

Previous literature indicated that *Questions* are the most frequently adopted strategy (28%) for Americans to respond to disagreement (Vuchinich, 1990; Yu, 2010, 2013). The research results in both Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng are not in substantial agreement with previous literature (see Figure 9 & Figure 10 below).

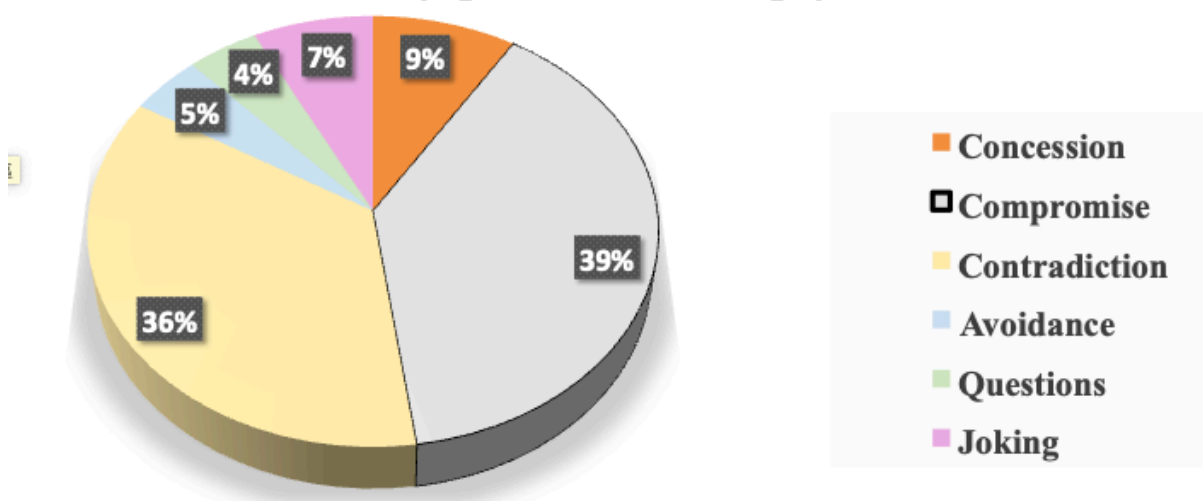
**Table 15**

*Strategies of Responses to Disagreement in the Two Series of Textbooks*

Response to Disagreement	Textbook			
	San Min		Lung Teng	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Concession	6	30	6	8.95
Compromise	2	10	26	38.80
Contradiction	8	40	24	35.82
Avoidance	1	5	3	4.47
Questions	1	5	3	4.47
Joking	2	10	5	7.46
Total	20	100.00	67	100.00



*Figure 9 Strategies of Responses to Disagreement in Textbook San Min*



*Figure 10 Strategies of Responses to Disagreement in Textbook Lung Teng*

Table 16 lists all the responses to disagreement in Textbook San Min. Based on chi-square analysis, the results showed that  $X^2=22.667 > 11.070$ , the null hypothesis of 14% of Americans employ Concession, 15% employ Compromise, 12% employ Contradiction, 6% employ Avoidance, 28% employ Questions, and 25% employ Joking to respond to disagreement is rejected. In other words, the observed frequencies in Textbook San Min do not fit the expected frequencies in the literature (Vuchinich, 1990; Yu, 2010, 2013). As can be known, the frequency of employing strategies of responses to disagreement in Textbook San Min is significantly different from American convention. In order to see the strategies



that contribute to the significant difference, the value of R (standardized residual) was calculated. The results revealed that Contradiction ( $| 3.614 | > 2.00$  in absolute value) is the major contributor to the significant  $X^2$  value. Again, the results of the analysis confirmed that Contradiction is the most frequent strategy adopted in Textbook San Min.

**Table 16**

*Observed (O) Frequencies, Expected (E) Frequencies,  $X^2$ , and R (Standardized Residual) of Strategies of Responses to Disagreement in Textbook San Min*

Strategies	O	E	(O-E) <sup>2</sup> /E	R
Concession	6	2.8	3.657	1.912
Compromise	2	3	0.333	-0.577
Contradiction	8	2.4	13.066	3.614
Avoidance	1	1.2	0.033	-0.182
Questions	1	5.6	3.778	-1.943
Joking	2	5	1.8	-1.341
Total	20	20.00	$X^2=22.667$	

Table 17 contains all the responses to disagreement in Textbook Lung Teng.

Based on chi-square analysis, the results showed that  $X^2=79.95 > 11.070$ , the null hypothesis of 14% of Americans employ Concession, 15% employ Compromise, 12% employ Contradiction, 6% employ Avoidance, 28% employ Questions, and 25% employ Joking to respond to disagreement is rejected. In other words, the observed frequencies in Textbook

Lung Teng do not fit the expected frequencies in the literature (Vuchinich, 1990; Yu, 2010, 2013). As can be known, the frequency of employing strategies of responses to disagreement in Textbook Lung Teng is significantly different from American convention. In order to see the strategies that contribute to the significant difference, the value of R (standardized residual) was calculated. Apart from the first strategy of Concession (  $|-1.103| < 2.00$  in absolute value) and the fourth strategy of Avoidance (  $|-0.508| < 2.00$  in absolute value) are not the major contributors to the significant  $X^2$  value, the rest of the strategies of responses to disagreement are all major contributors to the significant  $X^2$  value, as in Compromise (  $|5.031| > 2.00$  in absolute value), Contradiction (  $|5.628| > 2.00$  in absolute value), Questions (  $|-3.638| > 2.00$  in absolute value), and Joking (  $|-2.870| > 2.00$  in absolute value).

The following shows the strategies of responses to disagreement discovered in the two series of high school English textbooks, Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng are listed below.

### 1. *Concession*

e.g. Textbook San Min Book 4 Unit 9 Happy Fourth of July! (p. 317)

→Cindy (R.O.C.): ..... Besides, in Taiwan, we also have a New Year's Eve fireworks show when we count down to the New Year, don't we?

Elisa (R.O.C.): (*Embarrassed*)Right. Now that you mention it, it does make sense.

### 2. *Compromise*

e.g. Textbook Lung Teng Book 2 Chapter 2 Can I Make a Suggestion? (p. 245)

Conversation 2

**Table 17**

*Observed (O) Frequencies, Expected (E) Frequencies,  $\chi^2$ , and R (Standardized Residual) of Strategies of Responses to Disagreement in Textbook Lung Teng*

Strategies	O	E	(O-E) <sup>2</sup> /E	R
Concession	6	9.38	1.217	-1.103
Compromise	26	10.05	25.313	<b>5.031</b>
Contradiction	24	8.04	31.681	<b>5.628</b>
Avoidance	3	4.02	0.258	-0.508
Questions	3	18.76	13.239	<b>-3.638</b>
Joking	5	16.75	8.242	<b>-2.870</b>
Total	67	67.00	$\chi^2=79.95$	

→Ms. Ellis (U.S.A.): .....When the subject is really interesting, you will be surprised at how fast you pick it up.

Simba (Kenya): **Yes, maybe you are right.** Music is my hobby so that would be interesting.

### 3. **Contradiction**

e.g. Textbook Lung Teng Book 3 Chapter 2 Your Hair Looks So Weird! (p. 257)

Conversation 1

→James (Taiwan):..... Did you just get out of bed?

Sofie (Denmark): Ha ha. **Honestly, you guys have no fashion sense at all!**

#### 4. *Avoidance (Silence/Topic Switch)*

e.g. Textbook San Min Book 1 Unit 7 What's Your Favorite TV Show? (p. 267)

→Ryan (U.S.A.): ..... To me, they are all boring, though, because their plots are almost the same.

Elisa (R.O.C.): (Shrugging her shoulders) Well, I still like to watch them.

#### **What's your favorite TV show, then?**

#### 5. *Questions*

e.g. Textbook Lung Teng Book 3 Chapter2 Your Hair Looks So Weird! (p. 257)

Conversation 1

→Noriko (Japan): What are those weird colors?

Sofie (Denmark): **You mean the highlights?** Those are very in this year.

#### 6. *Joking*

e.g. Textbook Lung Teng Book 6 Chapter4 Who Painted That? (p. 235)

Conversation 1

→Noriko (Japan): ..... You know, Michelangelo and Leonardo da Vinci, those guys.

James (Taiwan): I know about the Renaissance period. I know I play a lot of video games, **but I am cultured!**

### **4.3 Explanations of Cultural Differences in the Textbooks and Their Corresponding Teachers' Manuals**

To answer the third research question, cultural differences between Chinese and Americans in using the two speech acts, *invitations* and *disagreements* in the textbooks and their corresponding teachers' manuals are discussed as follows.

### ***Textbooks***

In the two series of the textbooks examined, some teaching objectives of the units were about the speech acts of *invitations* and *disagreements*. Nevertheless, few units provided culturally related explanations for instructors and students to follow in the academic context.

In Textbook San Min, the teaching objectives of Book 1 Unit 5 (Are You Available Tomorrow?) are to learn how to extend invitations and accept or decline the invitations. Also, the teaching objectives of Book 2 Unit 1 (What Do You Say?) are to learn how to use correct English to make invitations and properly give responses. In Textbook Lung Teng, the teaching objectives of Book 2 Chapter 5 (Do You Have Time on Saturday Afternoon?) are to make students learn how to issue, accept, and decline invitations, and it included related useful expressions such as party types, inviting, accepting, and declining at the beginning of the chapter.

*Invitations* and *disagreements* were part of the two series of the textbooks examined; however, limited explanations of cultural differences between Chinese and Americans were offered in Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng. This would not be helpful for students to equip with the skills of making authentic conversations in real-life situations.

### ***Teachers' Manuals***

In teachers' manuals, some of the units include useful sentences concerning the speech acts to be instructed. Even though the textbooks try to provide cross-cultural information, there are limited explanations. Take Textbook San Min for example, in Book 1 Unit 5, the unit provided students with several examples about how to extend, accept, and decline the invitations (see Table 18 below). Besides, in Book 2 Unit 1, the unit is designed for issuing, accepting, and declining one's invitations (see Table 19 below). However, the teachers'

manuals failed to highlight the most frequently adopted way to employ useful sentences authentically. Also, the textbooks do not refer to the time and to whom those students can use the sentences in daily life. As for the teachers' manuals of Textbook Lung Teng, some useful expressions of inviting are given in Book 2 Chapter 5 (see Table 20 below). The following are the supplementary materials offered in teachers' manuals in Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng. The analyses of whether the expressions correspond to American ways of using invitations are attached as well.

The expressions of extending invitations in the teachers' manuals in Textbook San Min are mainly provided with the formats of indirect invitations, with a total of 9 out of the 16 (see Table 18 & Table 19 below). Among the 9 indirect invitations, the first place went to Yes/No Questions, accounting for 7 in total and the second place went to WH- (How~) Questions and Tag Questions as to the same ranking. Based on the results of the study, Yes/No Questions is the dominant strategy in America. That is to say, the distribution of the strategies concerning indirect invitations above authentically reflected how Americans indirectly extended invitations. In terms of the formats of direct invitations, Performative Sentences with a Subject occupied the most, with a total of 4 out of 6. The results indicated that the given examples were inconsistent with American preference for employing Imperatives to extend direct invitations. Although the number of expressions is too small to gain the full picture of whether the extra supplementary materials reflect the American convention of issuing invitations, the researcher still tried to make a brief conclusion with the limited number here.

**Table 18**

*Textbook San Min Book 1 Unit 5 Are You Available Tomorrow? (T262)*

---

Extend invitations	
Are you free on Friday?	(Indirect invitation-Yes/No Questions)
May I talk to you tomorrow?	(Indirect invitation-Yes/No Questions)
I'd like to have a talk with you.	
(Direct invitation-Performative Sentences with a Subject)	
Can I see Dr. Yang at ten?	(Indirect invitation-Yes/No Questions)
Is it possible to see Dr. Wang this morning?	(Indirect invitation-Yes/No Questions)
Will the doctor be available tomorrow?	(Indirect invitation-Yes/No Questions)
Do you have time after school?	(Indirect invitation-Yes/No Questions)

---

The expressions of inviting in the teachers' manuals in Textbook Lung Teng are mainly presented in the forms of direct invitations, with a total of 3 out of the 5 (see Table 20 below). Among all the strategies of invitations, Declarative Sentences rank first place whereas the second place goes to WH- (How~) Questions and Yes/No Questions as to the same ranking. As can be known, both direct and indirect invitations covered in the supplementary materials fail to correspond to the American convention of inviting either directly or indirectly in daily exchange. Furthermore, Trong (2012) highlighted that direct invitations in the form of declarative sentences rarely appear, which are in contrast with the situation here.

If compared to the supplementary materials offered in teachers' manuals in Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng, the given examples in Textbook San Min are more than those in Textbook Lung Teng. Moreover, the examples covered in Textbook San Min seem

**Table 19**

*Textbook San Min Book 2 Unit 1 What Do You Say? (T262-1)*

---

Extend invitations	
Let's go for a walk, shall we?	(Indirect invitation-Tag Questions)
Shall we have a drink at this restaurant? (Indirect invitation-Yes/No Questions)	
How about having lunch together later?	
(Indirect invitation-WH- (How~) Questions)	
Would you like to have dinner with us tonight?	
(Direct invitation-Performative Sentences with a Subject)	
We're having a party this weekend. Would you care to join us?	(Direct invitation-Declarative Sentences + Performative Sentences with a Subject)
I would like to invite you to dinner tonight.	
(Direct invitation-Performative Sentences with a Subject)	
I was wondering if you'd like to go to the movies.	
(Direct invitation-Declarative Sentences)	

---

to be more diverse to supplement teacher's teaching in the EFL classroom. Yet, once again, the cultural explanations in the two series of textbooks are still quite insufficient. The materials should be designed to reflect American's authentic use more and even refer to the comparisons of the dominant strategies between American and Chinese.



**Table 20**

*Textbook Lung Teng Book 2 Chapter 5 Do You Have Time on Saturday Afternoon? (p. 257)*

---

Useful Expressions (Inviting)

---

What are you doing on Friday/Saturday/the weekend?

(Indirect invitation-WH- (How~) Questions)

---

Are you free on Monday morning/Thursday night?

(Indirect invitation-Yes/No Questions)

---

I am having a party/a dinner party/a barbecue on Monday/Sunday.

(Direct invitation-Declarative Sentences)

---

I would love it if you could come. (Direct invitation-Declarative Sentences)

---

It would be great if you could come. (Direct invitation-Declarative Sentences)

---

RSVP= Please reply (to my invitation).

---

## CHAPTER 5

### DISCUSSION

In section 5.1, a discussion on the findings of the conversational data in Chapter 4 is made. The section mainly displays the comparisons of the research findings with those in the existing literature. Afterwards, in section 5.2, the possible factors contributing to research results are elucidated. There are seven factors, internationalization/globalization, L1 transfer (Lai, 2017), the education system, the backgrounds of compilers (Lai, 2017), cross-linguistic influence and learner language (Lai, 2017), the idea of World Englishes (Lai, 2017), and the instruction of speaking.

#### 5.1 Discussion of Research Results

##### 5.1.1 *Frequency of the Two Speech Acts in the Textbooks*

The present study attempted to probe into the frequencies of the two speech acts of invitations and disagreements in the two series of senior high school English textbooks published by Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng. As shown in Table 1, in Textbook San Min, the percentage of invitations was 1.1%, and that of disagreements was 0.9%. In Textbook Lung Teng, the percentage of invitations was 1.1%, and that of disagreements was 4.1%. Namely, the frequency of disagreements outnumbered invitations in Textbook Lung Teng. The results of the study were not consistent with the previous research findings.

Take Lin's (2005) study, for example, the researcher examined four speech acts, compliments, requests, apologies, and agreements and disagreements in the three series of high school English textbooks, Far East, Lung Teng, and Nan I. The results indicated that the frequency of agreements was more than that of the disagreements, which was 34 and 26 respectively. The findings from Lin (2005) were inconsistent with the present study. In Ku's

(2015) study, the researcher investigated four speech acts, compliments, requests, apologies, and agreements and disagreements in the three series of the vocational high school English textbooks, Dong Da, Far East, and Lung Teng. The results showed that the frequency of agreements was less than that of the disagreements, which were consistent with the results of the present study. Yet, the frequency of disagreements in Ku's (2015) study was still far less than that in the present study.

One possible reason for the sharp increase of the speech act of disagreements included in senior high school English textbooks may lie in the significant importance of disagreements nowadays. Disagreement is not less tolerant and not dispreferred all the time. Certain practices are prone to contain disagreements as in the process of decision-making and problem-solving talk, which are quite common in daily exchange (Angouri & Locher, 2012). Also, due to the nature of Chinese culture, seeking a harmonious relationship is the dominant goal of ordinary Chinese people (Triandis, 1988, 1995). Most native speakers of Chinese may find it difficult to express disagreements clearly but decently for the sake of avoiding causing embarrassment to the interlocutors. For the purpose of improving the situation, textbook compilers make endeavors to cover more examples so as to get students to be familiar with the expressions of disagreements either in an explicit or implicit way. Moreover, another possible reason may be that the textbooks should be designed to cater to the needs of students and echo their life experiences. If the textbooks fail to reflect the backgrounds and life experiences of the students with the time change, the students may have difficulties relating to their life while learning. As a result, unlike the older generations in the past, the younger generations are bolder when expressing opinions. As the world becomes increasingly globalized, interdependent, and interconnected, there is inevitably a degree of cultural

convergence. Influenced by the American culture, the younger generations tend to seek their individualism and their true self rather than to be obedient all the time. Lastly, the third reason may simply be because the previous studies from Lin (2005) and Ku (2015) employed different coding schemes of disagreement from Pomerantz (1984). Pomerantz's (1984) classification of the disagreements contained four main strategies, including silence, repair initiators, partial agreement, and contrastive evaluation. Since the analyzed materials in the studies were mainly conversational data, the strategy of silence was unlikely to appear and thus led to the lower frequency of disagreements in previous studies.

With regard to the speech act of invitations, it seemed that there were no previous research conducting similar analysis to investigate the frequency of invitations in high school English textbooks in Taiwan despite the common use of invitations in daily life. Consequently, the findings in the present study could provide some empirical evidence to clarify the myth in the past decades.

### ***5.1.2 How the Two Speech Acts Are Presented in the Textbooks***

The present study aimed to explore the presentation of the two speech acts of invitations and disagreements in the two series of textbooks published by Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng. Also, the cross-cultural analysis was made to see whether the two series of textbooks showed the American norm of using the two speech acts. Most of the findings in the present study are not in contradiction with those of the empirical studies, except the employment of responses to disagreement between Chinese and Americans.

First of all, with regard to the most dominant strategy used by Americans to extend invitations, the findings in the present study confirm those of Trong (2012), although there are important differences regarding other aspects of the studies. Trong (2012) maintained that

*Imperatives* is the most dominant strategy (49%) for Americans to extend direct invitations and *Yes/No Questions* is the most frequently adopted strategy (36%) for Americans to extend indirect invitations. These results lend some credence to the expected frequencies in terms of direct invitations. The possible reasons may be due to the nationality, status, and relationship between the interlocutors in the textbooks. Since most of the interlocutors in the conversations are either classmates or friends in the same rank, the less formal use of *Imperatives* is frequently adopted to express intimacy and friendliness. Furthermore, the nationality of the addressee (Ryan) in the examples of invitations in Textbook San Min is mostly Americans and it may confirm the consistent result from the literature.

As in situations of indirect invitations, the present study showed that both Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng included WH- (How~) Questions far more than the Americans. As Trong (2012) pointed out, the format of WH- (How~) Questions is more often to be employed in the close relationship and the invitations prefaced with How~ is less formal (Tillilt & Bruder, 1999). In a close relationship, this kind of question is favored for increasing friendliness when issuing invitations. It also helps to create a comfortable atmosphere. The suggestion is partly true since the examples from the two series of textbooks are mostly friends or classmates, whose social status is equal. However, most of the examples found in Textbook San Min are prefaced with “Would you...”, which is uncommon in the close relationship. Influenced by Confucianism, the Chinese negotiation style is more formal and highly structured in the high-context culture (Chang, 2009). Based on the cultural belief, this may attribute to the fact that most examples included in Textbook San Min are presented in the format of “Would you like to...?” to extend invitations in a more gentle and gracious manner.

The American negotiation style is more blunt and abrupt (Chang, 2009) and thus establishing relationships is less important in the initial stages (Hurn & Tomalin, 2013). For Americans, the format of *Yes/No Questions* is used to show politeness and formality straightforwardly. Sometimes, Yes/No Questions appear to refer to different issues even when the speakers mean to extend invitations to the listeners. Before actually making invitations, speakers may try out the listeners' willingness to accepting or refusing invitations by asking their available time to show them respect.

Secondly, with regard to the most dominant strategy used by Americans to accept invitations, the findings in the present study confirm those of Jawad and Habeeb (2013). Previous literature indicated that for native speakers of English, *Direct Acceptance* is the most dominant strategy (27%) to directly accept the invitations, and *Complimenting* is the most dominant strategy (7%) to indirectly accept the invitations (Jawad & Habeeb, 2013). The research results are congruent with previous literature (see Table 6 above). Compared with Americans, it seems that both Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng include the strategy of Complimenting more than their counterparts. This may be because the conversational style of Chinese people is indirect, implicit, lengthy, and often protracted with several turns as in ritual invitations. They rather refuse the invitations indirectly first and turn out to agree with the invitations in the end. Through the turns back and forth between the interlocutors, compliments may be probably a useful strategy for the invitees to divert the inviters' invitations and try hard to preserve the harmony at the same time (Chang, 2009; Triandis, 1988, 1995). The inviters may need to confirm from the invitees so that they can be sure about whether the invitees accept indirectly or decline indirectly. In addition, the low birth rate in Taiwan may attribute to the fact that the parents spoil their children. Therefore,

the parents choose to adopt the encouragement and compliments to replace the blame when raising and educating their children. As for the context in America, the parents maintain that their children should be financially independent as early as possible. The suggestion can be demonstrated in some American series or episodes that the teenagers in America begin to seek part-time jobs in high school or move out to prove their independence.

As in situations of direct acceptance to invitations in Textbook Lung Teng, the strategy of conditional acceptance accounted for 18.18%, which is four times more than that in the literature (Jawad & Habeeb, 2013) (see Table 6 above). Since conditional acceptance is employed to indicate the hypothetical condition that the addressee may have the possibility to accept the invitation and then fail to attend later. For native speakers of Chinese, establishing relationships is more important in the initial stages (Hurn & Tomalin, 2013). Hence, due to the nature of collectivists, they choose to play safely in a more conservative way, avoiding disappointing the initiator. Instead, they make efforts to keep rapport with the interlocutor and save the interlocutors' face (Triandis, 1988, 1995; Chang, 2009).

Thirdly, in terms of the frequently adopted strategy used by Americans to refuse invitations, *No/Negative Willingness/Ability* is the most frequently adopted strategy (42.9%) to directly refuse invitations and *Excuse* is the most frequently applied strategy (37.1%) to indirectly refuse invitations (Beebe et al., 1990 & Nelson et al., 2002). The research results are not compatible with previous literature (see Table 9 above). Although No/Negative Willingness/Ability is the most dominant strategy of direct refusal to invitations in Textbook San Min, the frequency is still quite low when compared with the American convention. Hence, what needs to be explored further is why the textbooks in Taiwan prefer to include more indirect refusal strategies. For example, both San Min and Lung Teng include

Repetition/Question more than Americans. Also, the strategy of the Statement of Alternative is employed in Textbook Lung Teng more than that in the literature (Beebe et al., 1990 & Nelson et al., 2002). This may be due to the fact that native speakers of Chinese are reluctant to refuse immediately but rather hint at various difficulties as collectivists in a high-context culture. They do not openly show frustration but instead, striving to maintain a harmonious relationship and save the interlocutors' face (Triandis, 1988, 1995; Chang, 2009). In Chinese culture, they are taught not to reveal their emotions easily. When negotiating with others or encountering the conflicting situations, not to hurt the dignity and put in other people's shoes are the principles to obey. As for Americans, they explicitly show their interests as individualists and give vague excuses often to refuse the invitation, regardless of the interlocutors' status (Chang, 2009).

Fourthly, as previous literature revealed, *Criticism/Negative Evaluation* is the most dominant strategy (28%) to show disagreement directly whereas *Hints* is the most dominant strategy (43%) to express disagreement indirectly in the context of America (Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Rees-Miller, 2000; Spencer-Oatey, 2000). The research results in Textbook Lung Teng are in conformity with previous literature (Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Rees-Miller, 2000; Spencer-Oatey, 2000) (see Table 14 above). The possible reasons contributing to the research results may be related to the learners' level of L2 proficiency (Chang, 2009).

Learners with higher language proficiency displayed a wider range of strategies (Maíz-Arévalo, 2014) when interacting with others. As previous literature indicated, the rejections can be seen as a kind of disagreement, requiring a high level of pragmatic competence to avoid risking the interlocutor's positive/negative face (Brown & Levinson, 1978). Instead of employing the complex strategies of indirect disagreement, the native



speakers of the Chinese find it easier to express the disagreement more straightforward. Zhu and Boxer (2013) also held the similar proposition that expressions of strong disagreement, which are not prefaced with hedges, concessions, partial agreement or any other devices that can soften the tone of voice (Pomerantz, 1984, p.74), were perceived as a rude behavior to Americans. For Americans, they need the autonomy from others and mitigate threats to the addressee's negative face by performing interrogatives and obscure expressions such as hedges (e.g. I think/I don't know), downtoners (maybe, sort of), verbs of uncertainty (e.g. seems), and impersonal forms. (Lakoff, 1973; Brown & Levinson, 1987, p.131; Rees-Miller, 2000). These all contribute to the research results of American's preference for employing strategies of indirect disagreement.

As in situations of direct disagreement, Alternative Suggestion is the most frequently adopted strategy in Textbook San Min (see Table 12 above). Compared with the American convention, the native speakers of the Chinese tend to express disagreement by giving alternatives to mitigate the potential threat. By doing so, the possibility of convincing the interlocutors successfully may increase. Likewise, the alternative suggestions seem to provide the interlocutors the platform to make appropriate decisions without hurting their feeling.

Lastly, as previous literature indicated, *Questions* are the most frequently adopted strategy (28%) for Americans to respond to disagreement (Vuchinich, 1990; Yu, 2010, 2013). The research results are not in substantial agreement with previous literature. As can be seen from the research findings, Contradiction is the most frequently adopted strategy to respond to disagreement in Textbook San Min (see Table 15 above). Furthermore, compared with the previous research findings, Yu (2010) pointed out that native speakers of Chinese incline to

employ Concession when responding to disagreement. However, other similar research conducted by adopting the different frameworks of disagreement (Pomerantz, 1984) revealed that the textbooks include the strategies of Contrastive Evaluation and Partial Agreement the most (Lin, 2005; Ku, 2015), both of them have the same meaning with Contradiction and Compromise. The results of the findings from Lin (2005) and Ku (2015) are compatible with the results of the present study since Contradiction is the most dominant strategy in Textbook San Min and Compromise is the most dominant strategy in Textbook Lung Teng.

From the above results, as can be known, the issue is why the textbooks in Taiwan prefer to include the strategies of Contradiction and Compromise while Americans prefer to employ the strategies of Questions and Joking to respond to disagreement (Yu, 2010). As mentioned earlier, Criticism/Negative Evaluation is the most dominant strategy to show direct disagreement in Textbook Lung Teng (see Table 12 above), it may be reasonable that the corresponding responses of disagreement, Contradiction is applied the most with the increasing recognition to voice for rights or stances in these recent years. As Liu (2004) pointed out, some of the studies concerning disagreements in the past appeared to reinforce the principle of Neo-Confucianism and make it overrule Chinese people's communicational style. Some other researchers also made successful attempts to discover different aspects of Chinese by probing into the seemingly disputable stereotypes or presuppositions (Kádár, 2007, 2008). Nonetheless, the results seemed to contradict the essence of Chinese culture and their convention of responding to different opinions. In a high-context culture, the Chinese especially treat 'face-saving' and 'face-giving' as the top priority (Hurn & Tomalin, 2013). If making contradictive assessments in Chinese culture, it may be a little bit awkward and embarrassing. Under the circumstance, EFL instructors are able to supplement their teaching

with the instruction of the intermediaries and the strategies of Concession and Compromise that are more common to mitigate the tension in Chinese culture (Yu, 2010). During the negotiation, the Chinese may refer to the higher authority for important decisions so Concessions are commonly implemented (Hurn & Tomalin, 2013). Hurn and Tomalin (2013) maintained that the American ‘can-do’ culture has made them more competitive and action-oriented. To create the maximum impact, they are more than willing to take risks. Consequently, employing Questions to challenge conflicting ideas with the aim of positioning their stances may not be a peculiar exception. Besides, they have the habit of adopting humor as the ‘ice-breaker’, creating a relaxing and humorous atmosphere when encountering conflicting situations.

### ***5.1.3 Explanations of Cultural Differences in the Textbooks and Their Corresponding Teachers’ Manuals***

The present study attempted to examine the cultural differences between Chinese and Americans in using the two speech acts of *invitations* and *disagreements* in the textbooks and their corresponding teachers’ manuals. The research findings are in accordance with those of the following two studies.

Lin (2005) strived to examine the four speech acts, compliments, requests, apologies, agreements, and disagreements and their corresponding sequences in the three series of senior high school English textbooks, Textbook Far East, Textbook Lung Teng, and Textbook Nan I. The study revealed that the use of the strategies in the conversational data is mainly presented in the Western way, without offering further explanations and pointing out the differences in the ESL and EFL context. In addition, insufficient context descriptions also restrict students’ opportunities for gaining an understanding of cultural differences. It was likely that the

textbook compilers made endeavors to present the content more native-like, without taking the cultural background of the target audience into consideration. Also, due to the limited layout in the textbooks, the writer and editors may choose to sacrifice the context descriptions since both the instructors and the students pay little attention to the content that will not appear in exams.

Ku (2015) tried to evaluate the pragmatic content of the four speech acts, compliments, requests, apologies, agreements, and disagreements in the three series of vocational high school English textbooks, Dong Da, Far East, and Lung Teng. The results of the study indicated that the contextual information is quite limited to facilitate the instruction of the speech acts. What's worse, Ku (2015) even pointed out that the inappropriate contextual information is likely to cause students' misunderstanding and misuses of the speech acts.

## **5.2 Discussion of Possible Factors Contributing to Research Results**

Based on the results of the current study, it was concluded that the two speech acts of invitations and disagreements in the two series of textbooks were mostly compatible with target language norms. However, there were still discrepancies on some occasions. In the following sections, the possible explanations to exemplify the agreement and inconsistency with the American convention of employing the speech acts of invitations and disagreements were given.

The following shows the reasons that might contribute to the agreement between the textbooks and the American convention of employing the speech acts of invitations and disagreements. They are listed in the following, including internationalization/globalization and L1 transfer (Lai, 2017).

### ***5.2.1 Internationalization/Globalization***

As English has become more and more important in the global village, from the government to the publishers in Taiwan, the appeal to advocate bilingual education has been rampant in recent years. To pave the way for their children, parents start to send their children to receive bilingual education for the preparation of studying abroad at an early age. Also, with the advance of standard of living in Taiwan, backpacking may not be uncommon among the younger generations. Compared with the older generations in the past, the younger generations seem to have access to go abroad more frequently than before. As a consequence, the publishers should shoulder the responsibility of catering to students' needs and relating to their life experiences in the EFL classroom. Otherwise, the textbooks may be opted out if they fail to meet the requirements and gain recognition in the market. To distinguish among other publishers in the competent publishing industry, the publishing industry may invite the editors and compilers of the textbooks that had experiences of studying abroad in America. Accordingly, some of the conversational data in textbooks tend to reflect the American's everyday occurrences.

### ***5.2.2 L1 Transfer***

During the process of learning the second language, adult learners seem to be more vulnerable to the effect of what the first language brings to them. Since they are more cognitively mature, they easily formulate the linguistic rules from the resources that are available to them, either in their native language or the target language. However, the saliency of interference from the adults' first language does not guarantee interference in their second language acquisition. This hypothesis can be confirmed by the study of Dulay and Burt (1974 a). They maintained that when Spanish-speaking children learned English,

more than 86 percent of the 500 errors occurred in the expected intralingual strategies rather than interference from the first language. The first language can be treated as a bridge to facilitate second language learning by compensating the concept of generalization.

The facilitating role of the first language can be applied in the present study as well. Based on the aforementioned results of the present study, Imperatives is the most dominant strategy to be employed in Textbook San Min and America when extending direct invitations. This phenomenon may attribute to the three main formats in Chinese (Mandarin) invitations from the investigation concerning the relationship between the format of the invitation and the projected type of recipient's response (Yu & Wu, 2018). They are imperatives “Verb-not-Verb” questions, interrogatives (anticipate success, end with particles “*ba*” (吧) (Chao, 1968; Han, 1995; Li & Thompson, 1981) or “*bei*” (唄) and declaratives (the lexical item “*hai*” (還) or “*benai*” (本來)). This may well explain the compatibility between Textbook San Min and target language conventions.

Another example is that there are plenty of expressions for native Chinese speakers to express disagreement to strengthen their points of view. They tend to utilize *meiyou* and *bushi* to express disagreement in daily conversation (Wang, 2008). *Bushi* is employed to refute others' ideas by applying explicit negation such as more interruptions and overlaps. Besides, *keshi* ‘well’, *buguo* ‘nevertheless’, *danshi* ‘yet’ are all adopted in daily discourse to mark the disagreement (Wang & Tsai, 2007). This may well depict the frequent use of explicit disagreement in both Textbook San and Textbook Lung Teng. The provided examples above illustrate the consistency of the results between the textbooks and the overall tendency in America.

The following shows the reasons that might contribute to the inconsistency between the

textbooks and the American convention of employing the speech acts of invitations and disagreements. They are listed in the following, which are the education system, the backgrounds of compilers (Lai, 2017), cross-linguistic influence and learner language (Lai, 2017), the idea of World Englishes (Lai, 2017), and the instruction of speaking.

### ***5.2.3 The Education System***

Under the learning environment of credentialism in Taiwan, the competence indicators in the college entrance exam inevitably affect the content of textbooks. Hence, textbooks then determine teachers' instruction in class. Instead of equally distributing the time on teaching the four skills, teachers rather focus on the instruction of vocabulary, grammar, and reading sections in textbooks (Lai, 2017). Due to the time constraint, most of the teachers in class may simply skip the conversation sections so as to stuff more knowledge to be tested in the college entrance exam within the tight class schedule. With the heavy reliance on the knowledge to be tested in the textbooks, the skill of speaking is neglected despite the unquestionable importance. As a consequence, the role of the textbooks in the classroom may affect the ideology of how the editorial groups of the textbooks edit and compile the textbooks (Lai, 2017). They may underestimate the necessity of the conversation sections and thus contribute to the inconsistency between the strategy used in the textbooks and the target language norms.

### ***5.2.4 The Backgrounds of Compilers***

Even though the editorial groups of Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng compiled and published based on the same Senior High School Required Subject English Curriculum Provisional Outline issued by the Ministry of Education in 2008, they may have different perspectives toward the concept of communicative competence due to their various

educational backgrounds. According to the name lists of the editorial groups, most of them are non-native speakers. Some publishers may invite the native speakers to collaborate with the editorial group, striving to present the teaching materials from the perspectives of the native speakers (Lai, 2017). Consequently, there are discrepancies concerning the inclusion of the strategies of invitations and disagreements between the two versions. In the same vein, the ways and the focus for the two versions to present the speech acts may be divergent. Another possible reason is that due to the prominence of Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng for some years, the subsequent editors may simply make revisions instead of making substantial changes. For the above reasons, it might depict the phenomenon that there were discrepancies between the two series of textbooks examined and thus lead to the inconsistency between the textbooks and the American norms.

#### ***5.2.5 Cross-linguistic Influence and Learner Language***

Researchers (Odlin, 2003; Taylor, 1975) have found that the interference (interlingual transfer) occurs when the previous performance disrupts the performance of a second task in the early stages of language learning. Once the learners acquire the new system of the target language, more and more intralingual transfer manifests in the target language. As time marches on, the learners gain better control over the target language. Yet, the existence of the erroneous features appears to be something not uncommon in the process of second language learning. Therefore, the textbook editors are of no exception. Most of the textbook editors are non-native speakers. They are likely to be affected by both the interlingual and intralingual transfer no matter how high their proficiency level in English is (Lai, 2017). Despite the fact that the textbook editors have mastered in English, many studies have indicated the deficiency of cultural learning in the process of learning foreign language. Due to the



aforementioned reasons, the textbook editors may fail to present the speech acts in the textbooks in American ways.

### ***5.2.6 The Idea of World Englishes***

The rapid growth in the volume and quality of research on World Englishes is witnessed in the past decades (He & Zhang, 2010; Jenkins, 2009; Matsuda, 2003). The scholars all pointed out that the systematic codification of localized English, promotion of World Englishes's wider educational acceptability, and further incorporation and implementation of the localized features into the pedagogic model in ELT are crucial to pave the way so as to confront the new trend.

World Englishes is not a deviation but a phenomenon to present the variety and diversity in the dynamic world. Language is part of the culture and culture is dynamic. Language and culture are intricately interwoven to help one to view himself as bilingual and multicompetent speakers of English in ELF contexts despite the ever-changing superior role of Standard Englishes. As part of the member in the contexts, one can even act as an active role to take the issues seriously—the development and codification of the localized Englishes in a systematic way for the public to recognize and acknowledge. The role of Standard Englishes is challengeable and some changes can be made to move forward to the realization of World Englishes.

Unquestionably, Standard Englishes such as American or British English have long been regarded as the norm and the one-and-only orthodox that cannot be doubted. Understandably, curriculum/textbook designers, teachers, and learners in the academic field need a rule and a guideline to follow so that they have the foundation to create teaching materials and the criteria to grade and evaluate learners' learning outcome. The trend of World Englishes

inevitably influences the way they compile the textbooks. The issue of World Englishes came into the limelight recently when it was pointed out that the EFL learners only could conform to the so-called American norm but fail to retain their native language while learning the foreign language. Such an argument is unbalanced because the speech acts in the study are simply the language on its own surface to enhance the efficacy of communication. If interlocutors do not follow the target language norm, they may encounter the pragmatic failure. The unexpected misunderstanding and miscommunication then occur and violate the spirit of communicative language teaching. “As in Rome, do as the Romans do”. By following the target language norm does not guarantee the denial to one’s own language and culture or the obedience to change one’s cultural behavior, but instead, it is a way to pave for the successful communication. Hence, influenced by the idea of World Englishes, the textbook editors may fail to present the speech acts in the textbooks in American ways.

### ***5.2.7 The Instruction of Speaking***

Despite the fact that the production of speech is crucial in terms of language learning, the amount of time spent in the instruction of speaking is quite little in the EFL classroom. The factors that make speaking difficult to teach in class are because of clustering, redundancy, reduced forms, performance variables, colloquial language, rate of delivery, stress, rhythm, intonation, and interaction (Dunkel, 1991; Flowerdew & Miller, 2005; Richards, 1983; Ur, 1984). Among the factors, performance variables deserve special attention since they bring the salient differences between the learners’ utterances and the convention of the target language. Take the hesitation phenomena for example, instead of remaining silent, the native speakers of English rather employ “fillers” such as *uh, um, well, you know, I mean, like*, etc. to fill up the “thinking time” during the interaction. As a

consequence, for some high school English teachers, they may reserve no time for oral practices in class to avoid the predicament. They may not have sufficient background knowledge to identify and get students familiar with the different performance variables by culture. Since some of the high school English teachers are also the editors of the textbooks; this may reasonably explain why they tend to ignore the importance of the conversation section in the textbooks and present the examples that are not congruent with the American language norm.

As the identities of high school English teachers and the textbook editors or compilers at the same time, the percentage of teaching speaking in class and students' needs and reactions toward the speaking activities may manifest in the teachers' ideology when editing and compiling the textbooks. Furthermore, their experiences of studying abroad do not guarantee their capability of presenting the examples from textbooks in American ways. This hypothesis can be confirmed by many studies since they revealed that the simplified register of Foreigner Talk (FT) (Wesche, 1994) is employed when the native speakers talk with the non-native speakers. The native speakers will modify their speech more simply for the non-native speakers to comprehend easily. To some extent, the textbook editors may be influenced by the experiences of communicating with native speakers of English when they studied in foreign countries. Supposedly, the experiences are likely to have an impact on their choices of selecting and presenting the materials in the textbooks.

## CHAPTER 6

### CONCLUSION

Section 6.1 summarized the major findings of the present study. Afterwards, section 6.2 provided pedagogical implications. Also, section 6.3 proposed the limitations of the present study. Lastly, suggestions for future research were proposed in section 6.4.

#### 6.1 Summary of the Major Findings

After analyzing all of the data collected from the two series of high school English textbooks, Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng, the two speech acts of *invitations* and *disagreements* are discussed under the framework of a coding scheme adapted from the relevant study (for invitations: Beebe et al., 1990; Jawad & Habib, 2013; Nelson et al., 2002; Trong, 2012; for disagreements: Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Spencer, 2000; Vuchinich, 1990; Yu, 2010, 2013). In terms of the frequency, presentation, dominant strategies of the two speech acts that are frequently used by Americans and other major findings are concluded as follows:

Firstly, there were almost no discrepancies in the distribution of frequency in terms of the speech act of *invitations* and the corresponding responses in Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng. With respect to the speech act of *disagreements*, there were discrepancies between Textbook San Min and Textbook Lung Teng. The frequency of disagreements and responses to disagreements in Textbook Lung Teng was three times higher than that of disagreements in Textbook San Min. It is worth noting that the frequency of disagreements in Textbook Lung Teng in the present study is even far more than that of disagreements in the previous research studies (Ku, 2015; Lin, 2005).

Secondly, Imperatives is the dominant strategy in Textbook San Min whereas Yes/No

Questions is the dominant strategy in Textbook Lung Teng to extend invitations. It appeared that both versions conform to the American norms. In both San Min and Lung Teng, they prefer to employ WH (How~) Questions while Americans prefer to employ Yes/No Questions. When it comes to the invitation responses, Direct Acceptance and Complimenting are the two top preferences of acceptances to invitations in both San Min and Lung Teng, which is in substantial agreement with the American convention. With regard to refusals to invitations, No/Negative Willingness/Ability and Excuse are the two top preferences in Textbook San Min. It seemed that Textbook San Min presents the refusals to invitations in American ways rather than Textbook Lung Teng. As can be known, most of the speech act of invitations in the two series of textbooks present in American ways respectively. In terms of the speech act of disagreements, Criticism/Negative Evaluation is the frequently adopted strategy in Textbook Lung Teng. It seemed that Textbook Lung Teng did a better job than Textbook San Min in terms of the employment of disagreement strategies. As for responses to disagreement, the results in the two series of textbooks are inconsistent with the previous literature. Contradiction is the most frequently adopted strategy in Textbook San Min whereas Compromise is the most frequently used strategy in Textbook Lung Teng. The results are quite different from the American norm of responding to disagreement since they are prone to adopt Questions and Joking. Under the consequence, the presentation of the responses to disagreements included in two series of textbooks fails to reflect the American convention of giving responses to disagreements.

Thirdly, limited explanations of cultural differences between American and Chinese were provided in the two series of senior high school English textbooks and their corresponding teachers' manuals. At most, since some teaching objectives of the units were

related to the usage of invitations and disagreements, sentence patterns or useful expressions about the two speech acts were given as supplementary materials. However, the compilers failed to highlight the dominant strategies that native speakers of English often employ or specify the occasions to apply the expressions into practice.

## **6.2 Pedagogical Implications**

Based on the analyses of the frequencies and dominant strategies of the two speech acts in the two series of textbooks, some pedagogical implications are provided.

First of all, based on the dominant strategies, the textbook compilers could consider including more expressions based on the frequently adopted strategies in the conversations or teachers' manuals. In this way, the students may be able to learn more useful skills in making authentic conversations in real-life situations.

Secondly, as EFL instructors in the classroom, it is suggested that they could supplement their teaching by instructing more usage concerning the dominant strategies and compare the differences between the expressions in textbooks and the American convention of employing the speech acts in daily exchange. On top of that, the EFL instructors should highlight the concept of L1 negative transfer and the importance of pragmatic failure.

Lastly, for the purpose of enhancing students' cultural sensitivity, EFL instructors are able to present cultural topics by making good use of textbook illustrations and photos. Also, small groups techniques such as discussions, brainstorming, role-plays based on real-life scenarios, case studies, critical incident scenarios (socializing through invitations), mini-drama, cultural capsules, the cultural assimilator, and 'cultural shorthand' (Hurn & Tomalin, 2013) for cultural instructions are recommended as well.

### **6.3 Limitations of the Present Study**

First of all, the present study only examined the speech acts of invitations and disagreements in the two prominent versions of senior high school English textbooks. Other versions such as Hanlin and Dong Da were still left unexamined especially the speech act of invitations. It seems that there were no related studies concerning invitations in high school English textbooks in Taiwan. Future research is called for to examine the speech acts of invitations and disagreements further to exemplify the definition of the “American norm” and see whether the two speech acts conform to American conventions as I found in the study. Secondly, the materials used in the present study were not the latest versions since the new series has not been released completely. Thirdly, no questionnaire design was conducted in the study to collect different perspectives toward speech acts from students, EFL instructors, or textbook editors and compilers. Fourthly, the cell number in chi-square analysis is too little to validate the results of the research. Lastly, the conversational data were mainly collected from the man-made materials in the textbooks rather than the natural corpora obtained through the Observation Method in real-life situations.

### **6.4 Suggestions for Future Research**

The research suggests that future researchers could broaden the range of the materials under investigation by including the latest versions of senior high school English textbooks, compiled based on the 108 new curricula. Based on the research findings in the present study, the comparisons could be made between the old and new versions of English textbooks to see whether the speech acts are presented more native-like. Furthermore, future researchers could also examine whether the new versions cover enough cultural explanations either in

textbooks or teachers' manuals. Since the teaching materials in the textbooks are still created, they are artificial data rather than natural data. No matter how native-like the materials appear to be, it is speculated that they could hardly replace the position of the authentic materials in daily exchange. If the time and the resources allowed, the future researcher is also encouraged to employ the Observation Method so as to obtain the authentic data in real-life conversations. Accordingly, the results may be more convincing to solidify the substantial agreement of the dominant strategy between the textbooks and the American language norms. Last but not least, this research is just a fledging exploration of invitations and disagreements since scant attention has been paid to the frequency and dominant strategy of them in the EFL context. Future researchers could conduct similar research by discovering more aspects cross-culturally so that more findings could be obtained in this regard. For example, the relationship between the dominant strategy and the influence of the L1 positive or negative language transfer can be further research. The relationship between the dominant strategy and the language conventions of older and younger generations respectively can also be further research. Hopefully, the study will throw some light on several issues or at least pave the way to new research projects that will help consolidate the study of speech acts in textbooks in Taiwan.





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